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ERRATA.

Page 8, col. i, line 32 from bottom. Dele "the editor of the *Economiste Français*" (see p. 53).

Page 16, col. iii, line 5. For "Macmillan & Co." read "G. P. Putnam's Sons."

Page 71, col. i, line 29. For "1873" read "1872."

Page 85, col. ii, line 21 from bottom. For "shipped" read "slipped."

Page 92, col. ii, line 26 from bottom. For "Gray's" read "Garrick's."

Page 94, col. ii, lines 12 and 11 from bottom. For "Solor, and" read "Solorzano." Col. iii, line 18. For "almojerifazco" read "almojerifazgo."

Page 151, col. iii, line 20. For "fama" read "famam."

Page 174, col. i, line 12 from bottom. For "Marcus Morton" read "Elbridge Gerry."

Page 263, col. i, line 34 from bottom. For "Schleiermacher" read "Novalis." Col. iii, line 15. Read, 'When lilacs last in the door-yard bloomed."

Page 305, col. i, line 8 from bottom. For "Public" read "Mercantile."

Page 323, col. ii, line 9 from bottom. For "University" read "School."

Page 340, col. iii, line 29. For "Professor" read "James Jay."

Page 346, col. iii., line 32. For "They" read "The examples given of his water-colors."

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 7, 1892.

The Week.

THE *Times's* correspondent at Washington, whose war with Chili has shown signs of slackening lately, made a reconnoissance in force on New Year's eve, with somewhat brilliant results. He found that an order had been issued for the shipment of 45,000 pounds of powder to San Francisco for big guns. Moreover, this powder was to go "from the Dupont Powder Works direct" —a fact which implied haste. At all events, the blatherskite who prepared the headlines understood it so, for he labelled it "Hurrying Powder West." Is it customary, when ordering the Dupont Company's powder to San Francisco, to send it by the roundabout road instead of sending it direct? The Committee on Expenditures in the Navy Department ought to look into this matter. At the same time that the shipment of powder direct was going on, there was a shipment of 2,200 pounds of gun-cotton from Newport to San Francisco. "These shipments," says the blatherskite, "following close upon the large shipments of powder a few days ago, cannot be explained on the ground that they are merely to replenish the stores depleted by target practice, for it is known that every vessel on the Pacific station has already a full supply of powder and projectiles, and the present shipments are, in fact, intended to form a reserve supply, to be drawn upon in case of hostilities." This bustle with powder and gun-cotton took place, he tells us, on a day of "holiday calm" at the Navy Department, a day on which "there was less talk than for some weeks about preparations for war." What, in Heaven's name, then, might happen on a day of ordinary ferocity at the Navy Department?

In the book just published by the man who was the London *Times's* correspondent in Chili until recalled for his ridiculous infatuation with Balmaceda, there are two passages bearing upon the question of American neutrality. The first is:

"I went on to have a look at the American cruiser *Baltimore*, which had recently arrived. I found the officers, from the Captain downwards, very distinctly partisans of the Government. They regarded the alleged causes of the revolution as mere flimsy pretexts, and believed that the whole affair had been worked up by agitators on behalf of the European nitrate syndicates."

The other reads:

"The Americans had heretofore stood well-nigh alone in evincing sympathy with the cause of the President. . . . They had, indeed, been almost as avowedly partisans of Balmaceda as the British war-ships had been of Congress; and had they been represented by any other living man than Mr. Patrick Egan, as Resident Minister, their moral support would have carried far more weight than it did."

The correspondent himself was a hot friend of Balmaceda's, and knew at least when he found a fellow-feeling, however untrustworthy his book may be in other particulars.

The discharge of more than 200 workmen from the Government service at Sandy Hook, without payment of their wages for two months' work already done, points to financial straits at Washington. According to the newspaper accounts, every sort of excuse for withholding the pay of these men has been resorted to. "Red tape" is made responsible by some people, while the workmen themselves are imbued with the notion that the money appropriated by Congress to pay them has been "diverted to politics." Red tape means simply the formality prescribed by law or regulation for drawing money from the Treasury. It is not hurtful nor even dilatory when the money is on hand to pay the bills as they become due. But if the money is not there, then red tape becomes very helpful to the delinquent debtor. It enables him to push ahead the claims that are least pressing in order to meet those that are most pressing. In such cases forms become very important. It is to be remarked that red tape has not given much trouble in this particular since the close of the war, although it was complained of more or less during the war, particularly in reference to the pay of the soldiers. The reason why obligations of the Government have been promptly paid heretofore is that the Treasury has had the money to pay them. If red tape multiplies now, the presumption is that the bottom of the Treasury is in sight, and that the Secretary is holding back every dollar that he can. We know of one case where the rent of a building hired by the Government, although due and payable monthly, has not been paid for four months. We hope that the claimants, whether stone-cutters or others, will make their wrongs known to their respective members of Congress. Let us have an early investigation in order to learn what the Government owes—what is the amount of its honest debts that it cannot pay. Then let us have a temporary loan bill to clear them off, accompanied by a tax bill to pay the loan.

Mr. McKinley's letter to Mr. Blaine, acquitting the latter of having desired to put a duty on hides, may have an important bearing on Cabinet dissensions at the present time, and may add to the number of Mr. Blaine's New England delegates in the next Republican Convention; but as settling what he actually did want, or say he wanted, in respect to hides, it is of slight value. He doubtless was on record on both sides, as usual, particularly on the side that came out ahead. It is not known what he told the Republican members on the 10th of February, 1890, when he made the visit to them which they took such pains to keep secret, but which he revealed to the public through his man, Mr. W. E. Curtis. But whatever may have been the case at that time, it is certain that he is now explicitly committed to a tax on hides. He has over and over again expressed his approval of the Aldrich amendment, which authorizes the President to lay a tax on hides after January 1. Moreover, Mr. Blaine's own proposition was to tax "all the products of any nation of the American hemisphere" — including hides, of course—unless those nations would admit free to their ports a specified list of our exports. This was his suggestion in his letter to the President of June 4, laid before the Senate on June 19.

There has been a great deal of falsehood about Mr. Blaine's attitude towards the Aldrich amendment, as a plain statement of the facts will show. As we just said, Mr. Blaine's letter embodying his own views was transmitted by the President to the Senate on June 19. Immediately after its reading, Senator Hale offered an amendment to the Tariff Bill couched in almost the exact language used by Mr. Blaine in his letter, so that the *Tribune* said that "his [Mr. Blaine's] proposition" was brought before the Senate by Mr. Hale. Referred to the Committee on Finance, it came out on August 28 in the totally different shape of the Aldrich amendment. Was Mr. Blaine satisfied with that shape? Not at all; and so he got Senator Hale to urge his amendment again on September 2. Even after the Senate had defeated that Blaine measure and adopted the Aldrich plan, it was uncertain how the Secretary stood until his letter to Editor Clapp of September 15, in which he characteristically claimed the whole result as his own. Thereupon the faithful *Tribune* heaved a sigh of relief, and said the letter showed that "Mr. Blaine accepts the Aldrich amendment, and the Republican party will be united." As if this legerdemain were not enough, Mr. Blaine indulged in the following bit of tergiversation. He wrote to Editor Clapp: "Every free-trader in the Senate voted against the reciprocity provision." Now, it is an historical fact that Senator Gray offered Blaine's own amendment, in Blaine's own words, with the exception that he said "the President . . . is directed," instead of "authorized," and that every Democrat in the Senate voted for it, while every Republican voted against it.

The Omaha *Bee* publishes an interview with Senator Carlisle on a variety of topics

of national interest. Being asked whether he considered Mr. Blaine or Mr. Harrison the stronger candidate in a Presidential campaign, he replied that he considered Mr. Harrison the stronger. Upon this point he said:

"The nomination of Mr. Blaine might create more enthusiasm than the nomination of Mr. Harrison, but I do not believe he would get as many votes as Mr. Harrison. Many of the conservative business men of the Republican party are afraid of the erratic elements of Mr. Blaine's nature, which have led him at times to imprudent acts and speeches on public matters. Blaine is a remarkable man as a party leader, and he has been compared by some to Henry Clay. His legislative career has been much like that of Mr. Clay. Clay was one of the greatest partisan leaders of his time, but you can find upon our statute-books no act of great value which originated with him. His greatest speeches have passed away, and his reputation is more of a tradition than anything else. Still, for half a century almost he was the leader of a great party and the idol of the people."

Statistics will sustain Mr. Carlisle's views on this subject, whether the comparison be made with the vote for Garfield before Blaine was nominated, or with the vote for Harrison afterwards. If Mr. Blaine is nominated this year, he will be strongest on the day of his nomination. There will be "storms of applause" in the convention-hall, a thundering of cannon out-of-doors, a tremendous fizzing of Roman candles, serpents, wheels, and other pyrotechnics in the evening, and from that time forward to the election a slow but steady loss of votes.

Ex-Gov. Hill signalized his retirement from office at Albany by making a speech explanatory of his Elmira speech. He complained that no Republican or Mugwump paper had published his Elmira speech, while all had denounced it with misrepresentations which the text of it would have exposed. We do not recall any complaint like this from any public man who uses good English. Nor do we recall any other case where a second speech was necessary within two weeks to explain the first one. If Mr. Hill's Elmira speech was misrepresented, it was because it was composed in an involved and foggy diction, signs of which are abundant also in the Albany speech. His twofold modest attempt to signalize his belated entry into the United States Senate by mapping out a tariff and currency programme for the Democratic party in the nation, does not appear to have commanded enthusiastic approval in the press of his own party. Three Democratic journals, all of prominence in the party, have repudiated his suggestions without much ceremony. One of these, the *World* of this city, has been Mr. Hill's most unswerving defender during the closing months of his career as Governor, and its disapproval is therefore of considerable significance. It says that Mr. Hill's programme "is not one that ought to commend itself to Congress," and that "it would commit the party to doctrines and policies which the party has condemned, and upon its condemnation of which the great victory of 1890 was won." The Buffalo *Courier* is no less emphatic, declaring it "amazing that Gov. Hill should seriously seek to commit the Democratic party to a policy that would kill its hopes of success this year dead as a door-nail," and pronouncing his tariff programme "distinctly reactionary," with a tendency to confuse and embarrass the issue and put the Democratic party on the defensive. The Indianapolis *Sentinel*, which is one of the highest authorities in the Democratic party in the West, likewise makes short work of Mr. Hill's "programme of cowardice, dishonesty, and partisan imbecility."

We think it will be entirely safe, in view of these utterances, to leave to the Democratic party of the nation the task of disposing of Mr. Hill's claims to be its economic guide and teacher. No opponent of the Senator and his kind of politics can wish for anything better calculated to injure him in the estimation of his own party than the two speeches in which he has made his first appearance as a national leader. He has revealed his mental and moral equipment much more clearly and accurately in them than his critics have been able to do in years of analysis. The more those speeches are examined, the worse will be the light in which Mr. Hill will stand. We find, for example, in the Ithaca *Democrat*, an analysis of one statement in the first speech, contributed by Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin of Cornell University, which shows the slender equipment that Mr. Hill had upon which to set himself up as an authority on the silver question. He asked in his Elmira speech why it was that from 1792 to 1873 silver abided every test, and he answered his own question by asking another: "Did ever free bimetallic coinage, down to 1873, for one hour fail to make the silver dollar equal to the gold dollar, whether at mint or crucible, or in any market in the wide world?" Prof. Laughlin gives a careful historical survey of the experience of the silver dollar in the United States during the period, and comes to the conclusion, fully sustained by citations from the records, that Mr. Hill's question is an "idle" one, since the "silver dollar was often, and for decades, either above or below the gold dollar in value."

The late Senator Plumb is generally admitted to have read aright the sentiment of his party and the people in Kansas, and to have strengthened himself politically by his opposition to the McKinley Bill. His successor, ex-Congressman Perkins, is not a man of the same stamp of independence. Even in the matter of lead-ore imports from Mexico, he allowed party discipline to get the better of the interests of his constituents, although two other Republican Congressmen from Kansas voted for the amendment to admit the ores free of duty for the sake of the smelters in Kansas. On the financial question he adds one more to the list of Western Republican Senators who declare the demonetization of silver to have been "a crime." On the whole, he promises to increase the public regret at the untimely death of his predecessor.

What has become of the expert investigation of the books of the Keystone Bank in Philadelphia? Was it stopped by the election? The last that was heard of it before election was about the middle of September, when the experts were ordered by Secretary Foster to discontinue their labors because the Government appropriation for such work had been exhausted. Soon afterwards the Citizens' Committee of Philadelphia offered to defray the expense of continuing the examination, and the offer was accepted by Mr. Foster. Since that time no sound has come from the experts, so far as we have been able to discover. They said, when they were stopped, that they had just reached the most interesting point of their examination. Have they ever passed it? There was also a local squad of experts engaged in the same work, but we believe that they were called off some time ago. Did the triumph of the Republican party in the election mean that the robbery and ruin of the Keystone Bank were proper proceedings, and that the attempts which were made to find out the responsible persons were all mistakes?

The free-pass question has come before the Inter-State Commerce Commission, which has rendered a decision holding that it is unlawful to grant free transportation to public officers or private citizens on the ground that their good will is important to the corporation. This ground has been advanced as the justification or excuse for granting passes by railroad companies, and it is, of course, the only ground for the policy. When a company charges $5 for transporting an unknown passenger a certain distance, it cannot carry an official or a "prominent citizen" for nothing except on the plea that the latter's good will is important to it and will be secured by the favor. But the Commission holds that such persons can have no rights in this respect over ordinary travellers by reason of their social or official positions, and consequently that it is an unjust discrimination to carry them without payment of usual fare. The Commission, however, does not prohibit the granting of passes to newspaper men, hotel proprietors, or agents of companies doing business with the corporation, taking the position that these classes stand in a different light under the law, and may not unreasonably claim to be rendering a fair return for the favor. It would have been more consistent if the Commission had made a ruling which would cover all cases, as it must often happen that another man in a certain town than a hotel

proprietor or an editor may be as able to render a fair return for a pass, and consequently as well entitled to it in all justice. As regards public officials, there can be no dispute as to the soundness of the decision. It is a reproach to the community that so many men in such a position are ready to use such passes, and the law should be invoked to end the abuse, if nothing else will serve. It is a waste of time to argue that a judge or a legislator is not affected by a pass. Human nature being what it is, he is influenced, consciously or unconsciously. The proof of this is that the railroad managers grant passes to such officials, for they would not do it if they were not convinced that, in the long run, it pays by inclining the officials to take a more favorable view of the corporations than they would hold otherwise. Of course, the Inter-State Commerce Commission has no authority in this matter except over lines which run through more than one State, and action by the Legislatures will be required to put an end to the abuse.

The low price of cotton revives the discussion in the South of schemes to restrict production in future. Alliance lodges say that the farmers should curtail their cotton acreage, and attempts are making to secure the adoption of concerted methods looking to that end. But the great trouble with all such efforts is that every farmer wants other people to do the cutting-down while he keeps on as before, and that 99 out of every 100 are pretty sure to "trust to luck." Indeed, the Mobile *Register* considers all this discussion a waste of time, because nothing will ever come of it. It points out that the population of the South is increasing, and that the production of cotton will naturally keep pace with it; that the use of commercial fertilizers has brought into cultivation vast tracts of land heretofore regarded as valueless; that the pine lands of the South are now more productive than the alluvial lands, because more easily worked, more healthy, cheaper, and less liable to casualties; and that the area of cotton lands has widened in every direction, running up into North Carolina and Mississippi, and covering a new empire in Texas. The real trouble, in the *Register's* opinion, is, not that more cotton is produced than the world could consume, but that there are not proper facilities for converting the raw material into cloth and transporting it to possible buyers. Every year spreads civilization further into the realm of barbarism, and "every savage is learning to wear a shirt." China and Japan will consume an immense quantity of cotton as soon as they can get it cheaply and conveniently. What ought to be done, therefore, is not to attempt the hopeless task of restricting production, but to erect cotton factories all over the South, so as to spin as much cotton as possible at home, and then to "demand of Congress freer trade, so that people of new countries may be induced to exchange their commodities for our cotton."

Again does English law come forward with a decision calculated to develop the bump of caution in publishers. A firm in Sydney issued a subscription work in two volumes, entitled 'Australian Men of Mark.' A certain subscriber declined to take the books, on the ground that his own biography did not appear therein, although the promise had been made him that it should so appear. The publishers brought suit to compel performance of contract, but the Chief Justice of New South Wales, Sir Frederick Darley, threw them out of court. His decision took a wider range than the contention of the defendant that a private understanding had been violated, and was based upon the broad ground that the contents of the book did not correspond to its title. He declared that the biographies it contained were of merely local celebrities, who had no right to be considered as Australian men of mark. In view of this fact, the Chief Justice decided not only that the defendant should be acquitted, but that, in general, all contracts entered into on account of the book were null and void. This certainly adds a new difficulty to the traditional ones of an author in choosing a title for his writings. Of what avail to select a taking name, when it may only result in a prosecution for obtaining money under false pretences? Particularly ominous is this decision for the publishers of such works as 'The Best Books' or 'The Greatest Thing in the World.' A buyer with a different standard of judgment from the author's may hereafter throw such books back on the publishers with a demand for a refund. The principle must apply to sub-titles also, and this suggests the danger of appending "a poem" or "a farce" to an otherwise legally unobjectionable title.

Experiments in agricultural coöperation on a large scale must be exceedingly rare in France, owing to the repeated subdivision of landed property under the operation of the French law of inheritance, and much interest thus attaches to an undertaking of the sort which has been on trial for the past ten years in Brittany. In that province the Comte de Lariboisière is the proprietor of eighty farms, covering some 1,600 hectares (about 4,000 acres). At the time of the severe agricultural depression in 1880, many of his tenants were far behind in their rents, and were abandoning their leases in despair. Thereupon the Count proposed an arrangement by which they were to continue to work the farms under his direction, he to assume all financial responsibility, to guarantee them their living, and to give them the half of all profits derived from their labor. Then he secured a competent manager who proceeded to make a specialty of dairy farming, steadily improving the breed of cows, and perfecting the processes of manufacture of butter and cheese, with the result of soon securing a reputation for superior products and the highest prices in the market. Both owner and farmer have prospered highly under the new plan. From the accounts which have been published in the case of each farm, it appears that the returns have been greatly increased. Thus one farm which used to rent for $454—a sum which the tenant was unable to realize from the year's farming operations—yielded $1,174 in 1886–'87 and $1,710 in 1889–'90. In the last instance the farmer received, besides his living, $613, and the owner, $1,028, while the balance went to hired laborers as their share of the profits.

The Famine Committee in Russia is said to be making serious efforts to relieve the misery of the peasants, 800,000 of whom are to be employed in paving streets in various towns and in the cleansing of rivers. These works, however, it is added, cannot be begun before spring, and in the meantime the Government will grapple in its own fashion with the problem of transporting grain to the afflicted districts. An illustration of the inability of the officials to move supplies even where railroad facilities abound, is the fact that in Odessa alone there are 8,000,000 bushels of grain which might be shipped to the distressed regions in Poland. In Riga, according to a well-informed correspondent of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, 11,000,000 bushels of oats are doomed to rot because no purchaser can be found in the interior of Russia, the Minister of War having refused to buy any before spring, until which time the supply cannot be kept without being damaged. Similar conditions prevail at Libau, Revel, and other Baltic ports. In remoter parts of the empire, as in the Government of Yeniseisk, grain is an absolute drug in the market, and brings only nominal prices, but there, as elsewhere, means of transportation are totally wanting. The few Russian journals which are allowed to speak even a part of the truth paint the situation in dark colors. Thus the *Vyestnik Yevropy*, a conservative monthly, takes to task the "newspaper patriots" who, like the *Novosti* and the *Novoye Vremya*, flatter the national vanity instead of doing penance for national sins. "The entire mismanagement," says the *Vyestnik*, "is thoroughly Russian in its lack of foresight, of unity of action, of calm consideration of necessary measures, as well as in the habit of doing things at hap-hazard and in the lax sense of duty and responsibility on the part of those charged with authority." Moreover, those who are directly answerable for the extent of the famine and who profit by it, the speculators and usurers, says the *Vyestnik*, are not foreigners, but men with genuine Russian names and of orthodox Russian ancestry.

THE RIGHTS OF MINORITIES.

THE question of the Speaker's rights and duties seems to have a great fascination for ex-Speaker Reed. He is at it again in the last number of the *North American Review*, in combination with Mr. Mills, the well-known member of Congress. Mr. Mills, however, devotes himself mainly to a defence of the individual member's right to refrain from voting at a division, while Mr. Reed, in spite of his present position in the House as the leader of a small minority, makes a savage attack on the rights of minorities, whom he seems to regard with great contempt. Mr. Mills twits him with his change of front on this matter since 1880, when he joined Mr. Blaine in denouncing the very line of action in the Speaker's chair which he himself followed when occupying that place last winter. But evidently nothing is gained by convicting Mr. Reed of inconsistency. He considers it now the main duty of the politician to get what he wants, and apparently has as much scorn as ex-Senator Ingalls for the man who falters or hesitates about the means.

The gist of his contention in his last article is contained in the following, and criticism of this one passage covers his whole case:

> "Among the most cherished so-called rights of minorities is the right of debate. But is that in any sense a right of minorities as such? What is debate, and what is it for? It is not merely a display of the vocabularies of orators. It is not a sacred privilege of talk for no purpose. It is permitted solely to guide the whole assembly to right conclusions. Men join in debate, when they fulfil honestly its mission, for the purpose of pointing out the advantages of the thing proposed or the objections which exist against it. Debate is intended to throw light on the subject from all directions, so that there may be no delusions arising from the shadows. Now, what is all this for? For the benefit of those who in the result turn out to be the fewer in number? By no manner of means. All this light is thrown, not to enable the minority to prevent conclusions, but to enable the majority to come to right conclusions. It hardly needs more than this statement to show that any right of debate which prevents results by obstruction instead of guiding to correct results by enlightenment, is a perversion of honest purpose which ought to receive condemnation and repression."

It is quite true that debate is, in a legislative body, in theory intended to act on the majority in that body—that is, the party in power—and induce them to change or modify their purposes. But it is also true that even if the purpose of the majority were known, and publicly announced to be unalterable, even if it were as certain as that the sun shines at noon that nothing the minority could say would change a single vote, the right of the minority to talk would, under the immemorial principles and traditions of the Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence, remain unshaken. Speaker Reed's theory that the House is not a deliberative but an executive body would make the House a ridiculous body, for a worse organ for the despatch of business could hardly be devised. The "work of the nation," as Mr. Reed looks at it, would be vastly better done by a good bureaucracy presided over by a well-meaning despot like, say, Mr. Reed himself. The reason why talking bodies like the House are tolerated in America and England is, that the Anglo-Saxon race has, from time out of memory, determined to have not military government, but government by *discussion*—that is, government under which all action shall be preceded by a considerable amount of public talk, even if useless or idle talk. It is to this determination that we owe the existence of the American Constitution and those of the several States. Government by discussion has been ridiculed a good deal, but always hitherto by Cæsars and cavalry officers, never until now by the Speaker of a parliamentary body; which shows what an extraordinary thing tariff fanaticism is.

This is not all, however. It is a maxim of Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence governing all proceedings, civil and criminal, legislative and judicial, that the other side must be "heard"—that is, that no action shall be taken by one man affecting another man's interests in mind, body, or estate without hearing what he has to say, and hearing it fully. This may be a mere form. It may be well known that nothing that he can say will have any influence on the result, and that his talk will only impede the despatch of business; but his claim to be heard has become imbedded in Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence, not merely as a personal right, but as an inevitable accompaniment and consequence of the system of government by discussion.

The minority in a legislature, moreover, does not merely talk for itself. It talks as counsel for its constituents out of doors. The minority in the last House of Representatives practically represented—taking the Presidential vote as the test—5,536,242 voters; the majority, led by Mr. Reed, 5,440,708. In other words, the country was about equally divided between the two parties. The line of division in the House was a mechanical or legal, not a moral one. The assumption of the leader of the majority, under these circumstances, to treat the minority with such contempt as to consider their say not worth listening to, was a preposterous one.

It is quite true, however, that debate, even under a government of discussion, must have limits if discussion is not to defeat the object of all government. These limits, too, must be fixed by rules, and the rules must be interpreted and put in force by somebody. That somebody is in all parliamentary countries the speaker or presiding-officer. But this officer must be a *judicial* officer. He must not be a party leader. He must not head either the majority or the minority. He must not be charged with the carriage of party measures. It must be infamous for him to have private or personal interests in pending legislation. The reason of this is that the questions, Has the matter in hand been sufficiently debated? Have the minority been sufficiently heard? Have they had their full rights under law and custom? must come up every day under the rules. To intrust the decision of these questions to their opponents, or to one of their opponents, is a violation of what is, rightly or wrongly, called and popularly accepted as the principles of "natural justice."

Nevertheless, this is what Mr. Reed contends for, and what he actually put in force when he was in the Speaker's chair. He has already described the Speaker as in truth the leader of the majority, charged, just as the Prime Minister is in England, with seeing that such measures as he approves of are put through without what he may consider unnecessary delay. He has repudiated completely for the Speaker the character of a judicial officer charged with the duty of seeing fair play and protecting the rights of the weaker party. Under his rulings, in fact, the presence of a minority in the House is wholly unnecessary, and he might himself now go home to Maine and have his salary sent to him in Portland without fear or reproach. But if his theories were adopted and put in practice for any great length of time by his successors, they would destroy parliamentary government in Washington, and lead to a radical constitutional definition of the Speaker's office, so as to correct his manners and excesses and surround him with judicial proprieties. We trust Mr. Crisp has adopted none of Mr. Reed's fantastic absurdities.

THE IMMIGRATION PROBLEM.

THE opening of a new Congress has revived the discussion of the question of restricting immigration. Among the flood of bills which poured in before the holiday recess was a large number of propositions bearing upon this subject. The feeling has been widespread through the country during the past year that "something ought to be done," and of course Senators and Representatives have been prompt in suggestions as to how it ought to be done.

But it is much easier to propose a "plan" than it will be to secure the enactment of any measure which will essentially change the present situation. A striking illustration of the difficulties of the problem is presented by the experience of New England with a class of immigrants who have been looked upon with the greatest aversion by a large proportion of the people among whom they came. Some years ago the drift of French Canadians across the border grew into a flood, which swept into the manufacturing cities of New England until in some cases this class became the largest element in the foreign-born population. Great was the alarm among the descendants of the original settlers. It was urged that the new comers were ignorant, poor, and degraded; that they would lower the rate of wages and raise the proportion of criminals; that they did not show any disposition to become Americans, but really owed allegiance to another country, while most of them were also in subjection to the priesthood—in

short, that they constituted a most dangerous class in the community.

Ten years ago a strong element in New England would have been ready to support any measure which promised to arrest what was then considered a most alarming evil. But since then a marked change has come about in the attitude of the public towards these immigrants. Maine has had the longest and fullest experience with them, and a Maine journal, the Bangor *News*, recently made an interesting and valuable summary of the results of this experience. It referred to the fact that the people of Maine, and particularly the old Puritan Yankee families, looked askance upon the "Montreal invasion," as it used to be called, of French Canadians who came to the State to better their condition; that "all sorts of ugly stories were circulated about the new comers when they first began to arrive, and many gloomy presages were made about the outcome of a society into which so much of a foreign nature had been mingled." The *News* proceeds:

> "They came and went to work, doing whatever they could find that yielded any pay, and now, after an experience of twenty years or more, these same people who foretold ill are convinced that the French Canadian makes a good citizen and is a valuable addition to the community. He works the year round, and not by jumps and starts. His wages are small, but he saves what he gets, and as early as possible he makes a home for himself, becomes a taxpayer, and helps to support the schools and keep the community prosperous. He believes in education, morality, decency, and progress. He seldom becomes chargeable to the town or city where he lives, and his name is very rare upon the criminal record. Not a politician or an office-seeker, he believes in good government, and casts his vote in favor of economy and reform. As years go on he will grow more and more in favor, his peculiarities will blend with those of the Yankees, and in twenty years more nobody can tell the English stock from the French."

There is probably a somewhat optimistic tone about this judgment, but its substantial truth receives confirmation from a recent deliverance on the same subject in a Montreal newspaper. A certain Abbé Dugas writes a letter to *La Minerve*, in which he protests most earnestly against the emigration of French Canadians to the United States, and his chief reason is that they soon become thoroughly Americanized. Upon this point he says:

> "What is the fatality that pushes us towards that great republic where, soon or late, whatever may be said to the contrary, our nationality will be absorbed? Let the generation born in Canada disappear, that generation which still preserves roots in which the sap taken from the old Canadian soil is still running, and you will then see what will be the feelings in the new stems impregnated with the ideas of American progress. The attachment for Canada will vanish by degrees; nothing will be left to call to mind the fatherland, and the descendants of the old Canadian will be Americans purely and simply. One must be very optimistic or very simple to imagine that the generation born and brought up in the United States will preserve deep sympathies for Canada."

Here is a substantial agreement between the Roman Catholic priest of Montreal and the Protestant editor of Maine, that our Canadian immigrants are sure to become good Americans as regards nationality, while the Yankee observer testifies that they also turn out good citizens. In short, while it would perhaps be too hasty a conclusion to assume that New England is better off for their presence, it would obviously be quite impossible now to organize any effective sentiment against their further coming.

An argument, therefore, against all these projects to restrict immigration, is the fact that the evils threatened from the coming of any particular race may not prove so serious as is at first supposed. If the French Canadians turn out so much better than was anticipated, it may be that we shall not suffer so much harm as some people have feared from the invasion of some other nationality. But a still more serious obstacle to any rigorous law restricting immigration is the politician's fear of offending some "element" among the voters. It may be true, as the Bangor *News* says, that the French Canadian is "not a politician or an office-seeker," but there is not a politician or office-seeker in all New England who would say anything to offend "the French-Canadian vote." And there is a "vote" in this country now of almost every race on the globe—except "the heathen Chinee."

WOOL AND WOOLLENS.

THE *American Wool and Cotton Reporter* considers it pretty certain that the wool and woollens tariff will be overhauled by the present House of Representatives, because "it is difficult for a party to restrain itself from acting according to its controlling principles." The prospect being what it is, and the avowed intention of the Democratic party being to put wool on the free list anyhow, the *Reporter* discusses the question of the compensating duties on woollens. The duties on woollens are made up of two parts: first, ad-valorem duties for protection to the manufacturers; second, specific (or pound) duties to compensate the manufacturer for the duties on wool. For example, paragraph 397 of the McKinley Act provides that on women's and children's woollen cloaks or other outside garments the duty per pound shall be four and one-half times the duty imposed on a pound of unwashed wool of the first class, and in addition thereto 60 per cent. ad valorem. The duty on a pound of unwashed wool of the first class is 11 cents, and the theory is that it takes four-and-a-half pounds of such wool to make one pound of cloth. Consequently, the rate of duty on the goods mentioned is 49½ cents per pound and 60 per cent. ad valorem. The rate before McKinley gave it a lift was 45 cents per pound and 40 per cent. ad valorem. If wool were put on the free list and only the compensating duties repealed, the rate on women's and children's cloaks would be just 60 per cent., which appears to be sufficiently oppressive.

It seems probable that the only controversy in the Democratic ranks when Mr. Springer introduces his free-wool bill will be over these compensating duties. It becomes important, therefore, to know what the manufacturers said would be sufficient protection for them at the time when the high-tariff policy on wool and woollens was adopted. The tariff of 1867, relating to wool and woollens exclusively, was prepared by a joint committee of the National Association of Wool-Manufacturers and of the National Wool-Growers' Association. Their resolutions are embraced in the report of Stephen Colwell, a member of the United States Revenue Commission, published in the Commission's general report for 1865-66 (page 340). The second resolution is as follows:

> "(2.) All manufactures composed wholly or in part of wool or worsted shall be subjected to a duty which shall be equal to 25 per cent. net; that is to say, 25 per cent. after reimbursing the amount paid on account of duties on wool, dyestuffs, and other imported materials used in such manufactures, and also the amount paid for the internal-revenue tax imposed on manufactures and upon the supplies and materials used therefor."

This report was signed by the chiefs of the woollen-manufacturing industry of that day, viz.: E. B. Bigelow, T. S. Foxton, Edw. Harris, J. Wiley Edmands, S. W. Cattell, H. Kingsbury, and Theodore Pomeroy. It was signed also by John L. Hayes as Secretary of the Joint Committee. Twenty-five per cent. was all that they wanted over and above the compensating duties, notwithstanding which self-denial a generous Congress voted that it should be 35 per cent. The Tariff Commission of 1883 took their stand on 35 per cent. over and above the compensating duties, and quoted with approval a speech of Gen. Garfield showing how fair that arrangement was. Again did a liberal-minded Congress go beyond any demands that the manufacturers had presented publicly. The protection over and above compensation was raised in many cases to 40 and even 50 per cent., and McKinley gave it another hitch of about 10 per cent.

Now the *Wool and Cotton Reporter* lets a cat out of the bag by saying that the pound duties are protective to the manufacturer, and the ones which can least be spared by him. "The compensating duties," it says, "are not generally regarded as protective—they are designed and intended to equalize and offset the duties upon the raw wool; yet, in point of fact, the greater strength of the protective policy, so far as pertains to the woollen schedule, lies in these duties, and were it not for the pound duty there would be far greater disturbance in the goods market, coming from importations of low-grade goods. Those woollen manufacturers who place stress upon the ad-valorem duties upon goods are not wholly ingenuous. The main reliance is upon the weight duty." We do not pretend to be skilled in this matter, but we have long suspected that the compensating duties were a good deal more than compensatory—that, for example, four and a half pounds of unwashed wool were not required

to make one pound of the kind of cloth that enters into women's cloaks. If there has been some cheating here in the framing of the tariff, we can understand why the proposition to repeal the so-called compensating duties on woollens is so little liked by the manufacturers. It would probably repeal something which was not compensatory, but clear gain. The *Wool and Cotton Reporter* embraces the occasion to give the Wool-Manufacturers' Association a little lecture on their share in the McKinley legislation. It considers the doubt and uncertainty which hangs over the industry very harmful, and says:

"For this the framers of the McKinley Bill have themselves to blame, since it was possible for them to have so used their great opportunity of a friendly majority in both houses of Congress in 1890 as to have framed a bill which, while sufficiently protective, would have been approved by the average common sense of the American people, and would have been enough of a finality to relieve the woollen industry from the evils of tariff agitation for a decade. Indeed, if the McKinley Bill had never been passed, it is not at all certain that the lower house of Congress would now be Democratic. The woollen industry is unfortunate in serving as the vehicle in which both political parties are disposed to give their tariff policy a constant airing."

THE NEW YORK CONTESTED ELECTION CASES.

THE Republicans have lost control of the State Senate, and have thereby given the Democrats complete control of the Legislature, by their own folly. If they had not persisted in running Mr. Sherwood as their candidate for the Senate in the Twenty-seventh District, after they had been made aware of his ineligibility, they would not be in a minority in the Senate today. Then, too, if the Republican County Clerk in the Twenty-fifth District had exercised proper care in his work of distributing ballots, there would have been no question as to the election of a Republican Senator in that district. The decisions of the Court of Appeals on these two cases are of themselves sufficient to take the control of the Senate from the Republicans, and we are unable to see how the Republicans could have anticipated any other conclusion.

These two decisions are upon questions of great interest as regards the interpretation of our election laws. Mr. Sherwood was at the time of his election a Park Commissioner of Hornellsville. The Constitution declares that "no person shall be eligible to the Legislature who, at the time of his election, is, or within 100 days previous thereto has been, a member of Congress, a civil or military officer under the United States, or an officer under any city government." The Court of Appeals decides that Mr. Sherwood was not eligible, that he violated the Constitution in seeking the votes of electors, that electors violated it in voting for him, and that, as a matter of constitutional law, any certificate which a canvassing board might issue to him would be an absolute nullity, since the "only use he could make of it would be to violate the Constitution, and do wrong by intrusion to an office which he has no right for one moment to hold." Finally, the Court says:

"Sherwood and his competitor may both present their cases to the Senate without either of them having a certificate of election, and that body will have jurisdiction to determine all the questions of fact and law involved in the matter. If it shall agree with this court that the relator was ineligible, and also find that his competitor was not elected, the result will be that a new election will have to be ordered in that district; and the electors there can then choose a person qualified to hold the office, and then they can be properly represented in the Senate. It is far better that they should be called upon to vote again than that the Constitution should be violated."

The decision in the case of the erroneously distributed ballots in the Twenty-fifth District is equally clear and important. Ballots officially marked and signed by the County Clerk for the First District in one town were distributed and voted in the Second District, and those for the First and Second Districts in another town were transposed and thus used in the election. The question before the court was whether or not this irregular use invalidated the votes cast with such ballots. The law plainly requires that the designation or number of the election-district endorsement shall be precisely the same; and in all cases that designation or number shall be that of the polling-place or election district where the vote is offered, and no other. The Court holds that the ballots in question "were cast in utter disregard of this important provision of the statute," that "the endorsement upon them differed from the regular endorsement on all the other ballots used or voted at the same polling-place; and, as they were used or voted by but one of the parties that had made nominations, or, in other words, in behalf of but one candidate or set of candidates, the voters who used them necessarily disclosed to such bystanders as could or desired to observe, the candidates voted for." This the Court declares to be a violation of the secrecy of the ballot. Upon the question as to whether ballots thus cast shall be counted, the Court cites the provision of the law which says that "no ballot that has not the printed official endorsement shall be counted," and decides:

"We are unable to construe this language when applied to the facts of this case in any other way than as the clear and positive mandate of the Legislature to the canvassers to reject and treat as void all ballots found in the box, prepared for and bearing the designation and number of another and a different polling-place or election district than the one where the ballot was cast. The Legislature has forbidden the elector to cast such a ballot. It has prohibited the inspectors from placing it in the box, and the canvassers from counting it. But it is said this result will disfranchise the electors who cast these ballots in good faith, believing that they were the proper official ballots. The answer is, that when an elector attempts to express his will at an election by the use through either design or accident of ballots which the law declares shall not be counted, the courts have no power to help him."

In view of these decisions, which strike us as eminently sound both in law and in common sense, we do not see how the State Canvassers could pursue any other course in these cases than they did in their subsequent meeting. They declared Sherwood not elected, and referred the question of whether his opponent was elected or not to the Senate for decision, and issued a certificate of election to the Democratic contestant in the Twenty-fifth District by rejecting the transposed ballots cast for his opponent. The effect of both decisions, and of the Canvassing Board's action in accordance therewith, will be to make nominating conventions and county clerks more careful hereafter to keep within the letter of the law. The Republicans of this State, especially in reference to their conduct in the Senate, have got into the habit of looking upon themselves as rather above the law—that is, regarding the law as something to be twisted and tortured this way and that to suit their convenience. They have received a lesson now which they will not soon forget.

We wish that we could commend the action of the Canvassing Board in the case of the Fifteenth Senatorial District as unreservedly as in the other cases. This is the district in which Mr. Deane, the Republican candidate, died soon after the election. There has never been any doubt that he was legally elected. The County Canvassers refused to count a certain number of votes which had been cast for him because the Inspectors of Election had written his name incorrectly on the blanks containing their returns. There was no question about the correctness of the ballots. The clerk refused to sign the canvassers' certificate for the Democratic candidate, and a mandamus was issued ordering the canvassers to send the returns back to the inspectors for correction. In the meantime the certificate, unsigned by the clerk, got to Albany and to the State Canvassing Board. The Court afterwards ordered a certificate, based on the corrected returns, to be issued to Mr. Deane. No sooner was this certificate issued than the Democrats, under the guidance of Gov. Hill, began to resort to all possible methods to prevent its reaching Albany. It was mandamused and countermandamused repeatedly, got to Albany once by mail, and was taken from the hands of the postal messenger before it could reach the Canvassing Board.

The only questions before the Court of Appeals were as to the validity of the first certificate, which had not been signed by the clerk, and the right of the lower court to issue an order to the State Canvassers not to canvass an illegal return. The substance of the Court's decision was the following:

"Upon these facts, standing uncontradicted, we think the court below, in its proper branch, would have the power to command the State Canvassers to canvass without regard to such a return. As it contained the result of an illegal and erroneous canvass by the Board of Canvassers in excess of its jurisdiction, and which thereby would alter the result of an election, the court should not permit it to be canvassed. As to the allegations of the manner of the making of the return by the County Board, the State Board could not itself inquire into them. If another return should be sent to the Board, properly authenticated and containing the re-

sult of the legal action of the Board of County Canvassers, the State Board could canvass it."

When the Board met last week, the illegal return was presented, but the corrected return was not produced, though it was known to have been sent in accordance with the Court's orders, and was believed to be in Albany. The Secretary of State, Mr. Rice, who was acting as Chairman, declined to make any reply whatever when he was asked if he had received it, and the Board issued a certificate to the Democratic contestant upon the basis of the only county return that was visibly before it. This was a purely partisan proceeding, and one of which the Canvassing Board ought to be ashamed. The fair course would have been to declare that there was no candidate elected from the district, and thus make necessary a new election.

On general principles, the result is a cause for congratulation. The Democrats are entitled to the control of the Legislature, and they would have secured it by a large majority if the election had been held under a fair apportionment. They will now authorize a redistricting of the State, and will possibly see the wisdom of making it as fair as possible. In the meantime, they will be entirely responsible for the administration of the State Government, and that will be a gain over the former condition of things. No one who remembers the partisan manner in which the Republican majority in the Senate has used its power to prevent the Governor from exercising his constitutional power of appointment, will regard the loss of the Senate to that party as in any sense a public calamity.

BURLESQUE IN THEOLOGY.

A LITTLE pamphlet or tract has just been published in this city, and is said to be circulating in large numbers, entitled 'The New Theology in the Nursery.' No name either of author or of publisher appears upon it, yet it is carefully printed, is ornamented with an ancient cut which looks as if it might have come out of the stores of the Tract Society of fifty years ago, and is evidently intended for wide distribution and reading. It is an attempt to make the views of Prof. Briggs and his sympathizers ridiculous by putting them, or a burlesque of them, into the mouth of a mother instructing her child.

We subjoin a fair specimen of the talk that goes on between "Mrs. Martineau Kuenen" and her precocious son "Johnny":

"Tell me, Johnny, what is it which teaches us how to be saved, and about Heaven and God?"

"The Bible."

"Yes; but there is something else."

"I don't know of anything else."

"There is the Church, you know; and the Reason."

"Do you mean the Presbyterian Church, mamma?"

"Well, not exactly. You see, the Presbyterian Church sometimes disapproves of my good friend Professor Barkis."

"But suppose you can't find God in the Bible or in the Church, then what do you do?"

"I am glad you have asked that question, my child. You can find God through the Reason, and become a representative Christian."

"What is the Reason, mamma?"

"Oh, I don't know exactly. It embraces the Metaphysical Categories."

. . . . . .

"I thought you said just now that the Bible was infallible."

"Only as a rule of faith and practice. It is not infallible when it contains fibs" (laughing to herself).

We have consistently refrained from taking sides in the theological debate raging about Prof. Briggs as a centre, and we do not now mean to consider directly the value of this latest argument of his opponents. It is said to meet with high favor among them, and to be thought by them a very convincing presentation of their case against him. We know nothing about that, and have no wish to examine their argument on its merits—conceding that it has any. But upon the method they have followed—a method most surprising, considering the persons and cause employing and endorsing it—it is entirely proper for us to comment.

The first thing to be remarked is, that this resort to burlesque in theological argument is had by those who have uniformly condemned it in others. Indeed, one of the most serious causes of offence which they found in Prof. Briggs's famous Inaugural Address was its unseemly levity in a certain part. He affirmed that the Bible was no better than a mass-book to stop a bullet, and not half as good as holy water for putting out a fire. Hands of holy horror rose on all sides at that deliverance, but one pair of them at least has now dropped, to lay hold of a pen and write in a vein beside which the most flippant saying of Prof. Briggs's becomes reverence itself. In fact, the whole tone of this pamphlet reminds us strikingly of some of Col. Ingersoll's parodies of the Westminster Confession. Those not very witty or delicate effusions have won for their author the reputation of a blasphemer among those very persons who now applaud a production conceived in precisely the same spirit.

They seem unaware that it is an edged tool they are grasping. If it is a question of reducing to the absurd, the undiluted Westminster is much more open to it than the views attacked in this pamphlet. The "Metaphysical Categories" and "Christian Consciousness" and "Institutional Christianity" are not very easy themes to crack jokes upon. The more racy language of the Catechism, in what it has to say about such subjects as "reprobation" and "elect infants" and the damnation of all the heathen, is far more capable of being burlesqued, and, especially when put into the mouth of a mother talking with her child, made to appear monstrous. The wit in that case might appear more ghastly, but it would certainly seem less labored than it does in 'The New Theology in the Nursery.' If the latter's method is to be accepted as a proper one in theological discussion, then there is no longer any reason to object to Carlyle's audacious characterization of the Westminster divines, or Heine's most crackling epigram against theology, or Burns's "Holy Willie's Prayer."

Leaving this question of consistency with those whom it concerns, we should say, for our own part, that a real sense of humor is one of the greatest needs of theologians. Luther's shaking sides and hearty laugh give his personality and words a warmth and carrying-power which one does not find in his severe contemporary of Geneva. Nor can there be any doubt that his type of character is steadily gaining the upper hand in the modern ministry. Some of the stiffest Calvinists the world has ever known have, of course, been fellows of infinite jest in private life. But nowadays Calvinists more and more venture on a smile in the pulpit itself. Whatever may be said about that and its propriety, we think that the growing tendency to light up the professionally solemn debates of theologians on their technical subjects by the introduction of a laugh is by no means a bad thing. Nothing else so quickly exposes absurdity or pretence, and often the real *dicere verum*, even in theology, has come from one *quamquam ridentem*.

THE POPE AND THE POOR.

THE Pope issued the Encyclical known as *Rerum Novarum* some months ago, taking up the cause of Labor, urging employers to be more benevolent, and workingmen to be more faithful and to respect property as of divine institution, and directing the Catholic clergy to occupy themselves more than heretofore with economical and social questions. It attracted very little attention either from Labor or from the clergy. It was read in all the Catholic churches, but we believe no attempt to act on it or under it has yet been made by priests or bishops in any Catholic country. There were two reasons for this. One was that it promulgated nothing new either in religion or in political economy. The morality of it was the old morality which has been preached, and to a greater or less extent practised, in all Christian countries ever since the emancipation of labor and the substitution of wages for stripes. Nobody who goes to church, or looks up to the Pope as the supreme Doctor on earth, found in it any new light on any of the troublesome social questions of the day.

The second reason was, that the clergy were unable to see how the study of political and social economy was to profit them in the discharge of their functions as Christian ministers. The duties of a Catholic priest are to teach religion and morality either from the pulpit or in the confessional, and to administer the sacraments. How is he to attack the labor question through either of these instrumentalities? He has nothing new to say about the relation of employer and employed. He cannot, without a complete

knowledge of the facts and of the business, declare which side is right in any particular labor dispute. Much less can he inflict ecclesiastical punishment on an employer for not paying more wages, or on a laborer for not laying more bricks or heaving more coal. Moreover, the labor question as a source of social disturbance may be said to exist only in cities, and, as a rule, the laborers who raise it there pay no attention to the authority of the Church, and the employers resent bitterly clerical interference. In the rural districts, in which the clergy are, in some countries, still powerful, there is no labor question. England may at first sight seem to be an exception, because there is there considerable discontent among the agricultural laborers, but it is not showing itself in quarrels with employers. It is showing itself in the quiet desertion of the country for the city by the able-bodied men; and the clergyman of the parish, as the representative of the old authoritative régime, is the person of all to whose advice the departing laborers pay least attention. Great discredit, too, has been brought on the clergy as social economists by the interference of a number of them, headed by Cardinal Manning, on behalf of the strikers at the London docks. It produced confusion worse confounded. The "reconciliation" it brought about lasted a month and made business impossible. The dock companies had to do at last what they ought to have done at first—settle their business in their own way, on principles of human nature.

Curiously enough, however, one of the hardest-headed economists in Europe, one of the least sentimental, M. Leroy-Beaulieu, the editor of the *Économiste Français*, considers the Encyclical a most important document, and devotes a long article in the last *Revue des Deux Mondes* to the discussion of it as the sign of a new era. What magnifies it in his eyes is, that it is an announcement on the part of the Pope that the Church has definitively broken with the Princes and Potentates with whom it has associated and acted for 1,200 years, and has recognized Democracy as the new power which is hereafter to govern the world, and with which, and not with thrones and dynasties, the Papacy must hereafter make concordats and treaties. This alliance fully effected, he thinks the Pope likely to a considerable extent to resume his old place as the teacher and arbitrator and Custos Morum of the Western world. It has been brought about mainly or in part by the way in which he has been treated in the matter of the temporal power by his brother rulers. The day the Italian troops were allowed to enter Rome through the Porta Pia, the Papacy dissolved its old alliance with the kings of the West and fell back on the poor laity, whose champion and protector and guide it is now to be.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu is very likely right in saying that the Papacy has adopted a new policy and is making terms with the Democracy, and that the Encyclical *Rerum Novarum* is a virtual repudiation of the Syllabus of Pius IX.; but how a man who looks at modern society as coolly as our Frenchman does, can believe that the Papacy can win back its old prestige by adopting the new Socialistic gospel as part and parcel of the old Christian Gospel, it is hard to see. What sustained the Papacy in the Middle Ages, and gave importance to the Pope's utterances, was the popular belief—not that of Kings and nobles only—that the history of the Papacy, as told by the Popes, was strictly and literally true; that the Pope, in short, owed his moral authority to the occurrence of certain undoubted events, part in Judea and part in Rome, in the first 500 years of the Christian era. Without this faith there never could have been any Pope at all. Without it the Pope cannot now last as an authority on any subject more than any other Christian minister.

Does modern Democracy hold this faith? Every one knows it does not. To the mass of the working classes in the great towns of Europe and America, the Pope's account of himself is, we venture to assert, looked on as either an amiable delusion or an absurd fable. The beliefs which built up the Papacy are, in fact, to-day almost as shadowy as the beliefs which built up the Roman Empire. The Pope is still surrounded with the respect due to a blameless life and a great tradition, but the willingness to take him as a guide in the transaction of mundane affairs is very like the loyalty which surrounds the Queen of England. It finds expression in the ceremonies, speeches, articles, poetry, and painting, of those who cultivate the sentimental side of life as a protest against the materialism of the age; but a serious proposal that the Pope should be allowed to settle the manner in which the products of labor and capital should be divided, would probably be received with laughter in every Trades Union in the world. And this is "the labor problem." There is and can be no other. The earth produces under human industry a certain amount of good things every year. The man who makes a rule of distribution which everybody concerned will accept and work under cheerfully, will have solved this problem. But who is this man? By what sign shall we know him? It is easy enough to bestow the blessing of the Church on Henry George and Karl Marx and Terence V. Powderly, but the acceptable rule of distribution is still wanting.

THOMAS PAINE AND MADAME BONNEVILLE.

New York, January 1, 1892.

In June, 1791, Thomas Paine founded the first Republican Society in Europe, and wrote its manifesto, which, on July 1, placarded Paris, being even nailed on the door of the National Assembly. Royalist rage swelled the Society to vast dimensions, and it was only some years later that Paine made known the fact that this formidable Club had consisted of five members. He did not mention their names, but two certainly were Condorcet and Achille Duchâtelet. There is reason to believe that the others were Brissot and Nicolas Bonneville. Bonneville, then in his thirty-first year, had written some striking poems, and translated into French parts of Shakspeare and several German stories. He may have translated into French Paine's republican appeal to France. He edited *La Bouche de Fer*, a journal which did much to defeat the scheme for making Marat dictator after the King's flight.

When the Reign of Terror was past, and Paine emerged from his long imprisonment, he and Bonneville were almost the only republicans of the "philosophical" school whom the guillotine had left. Bonneville was now editing the *Bien Informé*, and kept a sort of bookstore for progressive publications at his residence, 4 Rue du Théâtre-Français. Paine, though ill and feeble, occasionally wrote for Bonneville's journal, and when Monroe, at whose house he was nursed back into life, was recalled, the Bonnevilles invited him to take up his abode in their home. There he remained from 1797 to his return to America in 1802. It was not without remuneration, as Rickman, friend of all the parties, attests. The Bonnevilles had been married about three years, and their second child was named after Paine, his godfather. There was not much money among them, but they were attached to each other, and held the same political views. No doubt Bonneville was a member of the Society of Theophilanthropists which Paine founded in Paris. While Paine was here, Bonaparte, as yet professing republicanism, consulted him on a proposal for liberating the English and Irish people by a descent on England. Bonaparte told Paine that he slept with the 'Rights of Man' under his pillow, and that he (Paine) ought to have a statue of gold in every city; but he presently suppressed Bonneville's paper, that *littérateur* being thus reduced to utter poverty.

Nevertheless, these old comrades through the Reign of Terror clung together. The chief room in the humble house was given up to Paine, who in it wrote pamphlets and carried on his inventions. He had daily visitors, and means had to be adopted for defending him against the merely curious. But there were visitors worth seeing, among them Fulton, Walter Savage Landor, and Henry Redhead Yorke, of whom the latter two have left records of Paine's conversation. "A jolly-looking woman," in whom we recognize Mme. Bonneville, opened the door for Yorke, and "believed Mr. Paine was not at home," until she learned that the visitor was an old friend from England. Then she was all smiles. Paine's room, orderly for himself, was wild disorder to Yorke:

"Three shelves were filled with pasteboard boxes, each labelled after the manner of a Minister of Foreign Affairs, *Correspondance Américaine, Britannique, Française; Notices politiques; Le Citoyen Français, etc.* In one corner of the room stood several huge bars of iron and two large trunks; opposite the fireplace a board covered with pamphlets and journals, having more the appearance of a dresser in a scullery than a sideboard. Such was the wretched habitation of Thomas Paine, one of the founders of American Independence."

When Paine was about to return to America, he urged the Bonnevilles to go with him and take up their abode in this country. About a year after Paine's arrival here, Madame Bonneville did come with her three children (sons), her husband remaining in Paris. Paine supported them all and sent the boys to

good schools. At his death Margaret Brazier Bonneville was his chief legatee and an executor, her husband and children also receiving bequests.

Here were all the materials for scandal, and Paine's religious opponents could not be expected to forego such an exemplification of the practical tendencies of 'The Age of Reason.' The Federalists, just then collecting certificates of Jefferson's alleged laxities, were holding up "the two Toms" as illustrations of the French morals to be introduced in America. Paine wrote in the *American Citizen* a defence of Jefferson against such charges, little knowing that in the year of his death the editor of that paper, James Cheetham, would brand him in the same way. "Paine," wrote Cheetham, "brought with him from Paris, and from her husband in whose house he had lived, Margaret Brazier Bonneville and her three sons. *Thomas* has the features, countenance, and temper of Paine." Madame successfully sued Cheetham for slander. The trial was argued on June 19, 1810, and I am indebted to our industrious collector of *causes célèbres*, Mr. Edmund B. Wynn of Watertown, N. Y., for a perusal of Counsellor Sampson's tremendous invective, which caused Cheetham to claim protection of the Court and hint at a duel. The Recorder (Hoffman), a bitter foe of "the two Toms," summed up in Cheetham's favor, and when he was brought up for sentence highly commended his 'Life of Paine,' declaring that "it tended to serve the cause of religion." He imposed a fine of only $150, from which the costs were to be deducted.

Mme. Bonneville had eminent friends in court to testify to her character—Thomas Addis Emmett, Fulton, and ladies whose children she had taught French. The only important witness against her, William Carver, confessed that he used to take his wife to call on the plaintiff. It appeared that Carver, an Englishman in whose house Paine boarded for some months and was maltreated, had been taken out of Paine's will, which enraged him against the legatee. Probably when Cheetham saw the plaintiff, whose youthful appearance and refined manners are still remembered, he saw with the jury that any illicit relation between her and the prematurely aged invalid was preposterous. But his slander seems immortal, having found its way into important encyclopædias. That of McClintock and Strong, for instance, says: "One of the women he supported [in France] followed him to this country." Nay, long years after his mother's vindication, rumors followed the late Gen. Bonneville, and whispered that he was the illegitimate son of Thomas Paine.

The sentence of Cheetham had not explained why Nicolas Bonneville did not join his family in this country. On this point Paine's friendly biographers have been silent. He did come after Paine's death, and Washington Irving, in his account of Gen. Bonneville, has left us a picturesque description of the venerable Nicolas seated beneath the trees at the Battery, absorbed in his book. I have hitherto been of the opinion that Nicolas, after hearing from his wife that Paine had less means than they supposed, and having no hope of being able to support himself in America, concluded not to add himself to Paine's burdens, though he believed his pauperized family had claims on the man they had so long sheltered and nursed in Paris. But I have just come into possession of an unpublished letter written by Paine to Bonneville, which casts a ray of light on the subject. It is not dated, but the personal allusions make out the year to be 1807. The italics are in the original:

"My Dear Bonneville: I received your letter by Mr. Champlin, and also the letter for Mrs. Bonneville, and one from her sister. I have written to the American Minister in Paris, Mr. Armstrong, desiring him to interest himself to have your *surveillance* taken off *on condition of your coming to join your family in the United States.*

"This letter, with Mrs. Bonneville's, come together under cover to the American Minister from Mr. Madison, Secretary of State. As soon as you receive it I advise you to call on General Armstrong and inform him of the proper method to have your surveillance taken off. Mr. Champagny, who succeeds Talleyrand, is, I suppose, the same who was Minister of the Interior, from whom I received a handsome friendly letter respecting the Iron Bridge. I think you once went with me to see him.

"Call on Mr. Skipwith with my compliments. He will inform you what vessels sail for New York and where from. Bordeaux will be the best place to sail from. I believe Mr. Lee is American Consul at Bordeaux. When you arrive there, call on him with my compliments. You may contrive to arrive at New York in April or May. The passages in the spring are generally short—seldom more than five weeks, and often less.

"Present my respects to Mercier, Bernardin St. Pierre, Dupuis, Grégoire. When you come I intend publishing all my works, and those I have in manuscript, by subscription. They will make four or five volumes 4to, or five vols. 8vo, about 400 pages each.

"Yours in friendship,
"T. P."

Thus not only had Napoleon suppressed Bonneville's publications, but placed him under surveillance. This was not, indeed, the reason for his not sailing to America with his wife in 1803. A note of Madame Bonneville says he was then detained by "some affairs of great consequence; but foreseeing a new revolution, that would strike, even personally, many of the Republicans, it was resolved, soon after the departure of Mr. Paine for America, that I should go thither with my children, relying fully on the good faith of Mr. Paine, whose conduct in America justified that reliance." In those years radicals lived as they could. The wild political and social tempests of ten years had thrown thousands of families into such complications, and so familiarized revolutionists with situations and relations that would be misunderstood in peaceful communities, that it evidently did not occur to any of these parties that Madame's coming hither and her support by Paine might be a subject of gossip. She was at this time thirty-five and Paine sixty-six years of age. She sailed for America in the autumn of 1803, which was the time of the secret attempt by French Royalists in England to form an alliance with the Republican revolutionists in France against Bonaparte. This, perhaps, was the "revolution" foreseen by Bonneville, which made him anxious to get his family out of France. In the spring of 1804 hostilities became active between France and England. All Englishmen in France between eighteen and sixty years of age were arrested. Bonneville, being a fluent speaker of English and German, and always much sought by foreigners, was also an old friend of Gen. Moreau, afterwards tried for participation in the conspiracy against Bonaparte, and banished to America. It may have been then that Bonneville came under surveillance, and it would surely have continued through 1806, when Bonaparte was imperializing literature and religion. The above letter to Bonneville shows his circle, in which we find the learned free-thinker Dupuis and the indomitable Abbé Grégoire, a man whom Bonaparte especially feared. It was Grégoire who introduced Paine into the French Convention (September, 1792); he sympathized with Paine's plea for the life of Louis XVI., and remained his friend through life.

Of the three sons of Nicolas and Madame Bonneville, Louis seems to have returned to his father in France. Thomas entered the United States Navy in boyhood, and, it is said, was slain in the last war with England, after winning distinction by some exploit associated with a sword preserved by his elder brother, Gen. Benjamin Bonneville. Madame Bonneville finally left France in 1830, and passed the rest of her days near her remaining son, in St. Louis. Her tomb is there, in Bellefontaine Cemetery: "To my Mother, Margaret B., relict of Nicholas de Bonneville, Député de 1789, France. She departed this life October 30, 1846. Aged 79 years." Beside her tomb are those of Gen. Bonneville and his family. The General's epitaph is: "In Memory of Gen. B. L. E. Bonneville, U. S. A. Born April 14, 1796; died June 12, 1878, at Fort Smith, Ark."

"Here lies one who e noble deeds
Have not escaped the page of fame,
The generations y et unborn
Shall know the Records of his honored name."
"May he rest in Peace."

Although by some vexation caused the General about his mother's burial, as I am told, these graves are not in the Catholic cemetery, Mme. Bonneville, in her later years, became a devout Catholic, as was her son the General. It may have been due to that fact, and in part to fear of reviving a miserable scandal, that their lips were always sealed concerning Thomas Paine, to whom, however, the Bonnevilles owed their rescue from poverty and the early education of their children.

Moncure D. Conway.

Correspondence.

CUTTING BOTH WAYS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A notable illustration of the way in which forms come to substitute themselves for things is found in our modes of separation of Executive and Legislature. Instead of that which alone has any real significance, a just balance of executive and legislative *powers*, the separation has come to mean shutting up those who represent the Executive in one building or set of buildings, and those who represent the Legislature in another, with every precaution being taken against any public communication between them. The evil of this is apparent in two directions. In the first place, it turns the Legislature into a mob, by depriving it of that official guidance which is just as much Executive work as the administration of the Post-office and the Mint. Of this the examples are of daily occurrence. But, on the other hand, it shields the Executive from that public and enforced responsibility which is the only real safeguard against abuse. A perfect example of this is found in our relations with Chili.

Could there be anything in the world more monstrous or more disgraceful than that we should make war upon that unhappy country? After a long period of constitutional government which placed it at the head of South American republics, it has just been through a revolution, brought on by an unscrupulous adventurer seeking to establish despotism, which has shaken it to its foundations. It may suit a Napoleon or a Bismarck to take advantage of such a state of things to plunder his neighbors, but there is no evidence to show that the people

of the United States desire either glory or plunder to be had from crushing a weaker sister. Yet, because a so-called Minister and a naval captain choose to take fire at a supposed insult, which it is at least doubtful if they were not themselves instrumental in bringing about, and because there is a man at the head of the State Department whose whole connection with foreign affairs has been to "meddle and muddle," therefore we may at any moment, while neither Congress nor the country has any information as to the facts, be thrust into a situation from which, according to army and navy ideas of honor, there will be no issue short of war.

If the Secretary of State and the Secretary of the Navy had to stand up daily in Congress and encounter cross-examination from individual members, the country might learn something of the real proceedings of Minister Egan and Captain Schley, and so have a wider chance of escaping from this miserable pitfall.

G. B.

Boston, January 2, 1892.

THE HISTORICAL STUDY OF RELIGIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is perhaps no field of work which has yielded such fruitful results as has the new science of the historical study of religions. It is still in its infancy, for in its early growth it has had to fight its way against heavier odds than ever beset a young science. It has had to combat the prejudice of those who wrongly thought that it bore agnosticism and atheism in its train, and its own votaries too often impaired its scientific character by wild deductions and unfounded generalizations. In spite of all this, it has asserted itself. It has shown what an all-important factor it is in the study of anthropology and history. Its aim is simply an historical and thoroughly unprejudiced study of the forms of belief and of practice as shown in all the religious systems of the world; not only of the savage and half-civilized races, but also of those nations whose religious beliefs have been dominant factors in forming the civilization of our day. In France this new science has called forth a special organ, the *Revue de l'Histoire des Religions*, edited by the talented Jean Réville. In Holland and Belgium the Universities have separate chairs for its study. In England the Hibbert and Gifford lectureships have brought the subject prominently before the English-speaking world. Our museums are beginning to pay special attention to this work: the Musée Guimet in Paris—established in 1885 by the munificence of M. Émile Guimet, a Lyons manufacturer—is given up exclusively to an historical representation of religious ceremonials and ideas.

It is a matter for congratulation that here in America attention has also been directed to this study. In Boston and Cambridge a circle has been formed, under the direction of Prof. Toy, for the study of religions. In the University of Pennsylvania, a part of the lectures delivered under the auspices of the University Lecture Association are devoted to this subject. The University of the City of New York has a lectureship in comparative religions, and it is purposed by the Oriental section of the Brooklyn Institute to have a course of lectures this winter on the temples and forms of worship in the East. At the Plymouth School of Ethics last summer, representatives of different faiths were invited to present their systems before the school.

It has occurred to many who are interested in the work, that if a series of lectures—at once scientific and popular in form—were established here in America to present to the public the results of the scientific study of religions, it would go far towards interesting a large number of people in the subject. For this purpose a meeting was held here in the rooms of the Historical Society, pursuant to a call signed by Dr. Edward Bartlett, Dr. George Dana Boardman, Dr. Daniel G. Brinton, Prof. Morris Jastrow, Dr. William Pepper, Mrs. Sara Yorke Stevenson of Philadelphia, Prof. Paul Haupt of Baltimore, Prof. D. G. Lyon and Prof. C. H. Toy of Boston, Prof. Frederick W. Hooper of Brooklyn, Prof. W. R. Harper and Dr. Emil G. Hirsch of Chicago, Prof. C. F. Briggs, Dr. W. Hayes Ward, and Prof. John P. Peters of New York.

The general plan, as given to a special committee for a detailed report, contemplated a series of six lectures each year, to be delivered by the most eminent specialists in the different subjects—both American and European. In order to give these lectures as wide a prominence as possible, it is intended that they shall be delivered in Boston, New York, Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Chicago. In these different cities special committees or existing lecture associations are to be in charge. It is hoped that in Boston the Lowell Institute, in Brooklyn the Brooklyn Institute, in Philadelphia the Lecture Association of the University of Pennsylvania, in Baltimore the Peabody Institute, and in Chicago the new University will make all necessary arrangements. Some of the most eminent specialists have been corresponded with, and have shown great willingness to meet the wishes of the Committee. It is also intended to publish the lectures in book form; and, in time, perhaps we may have an American Series of Hibbert Lectures which shall be worthy of standing on the same shelf as those which bear the names of Thiele, Kuenen, Pfleiderer, Hatch, Sayce, and Max Müller.

R. G.

Philadelphia, December 30, 1891.

"ADVOCATE," THE VERBS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having chanced on a parcel of notes, long ago mislaid, I find that, taken with some recent memorandums, they enable me to supplement, on several points, and those not unimportant, the details given, under these words, in the *New English Dictionary*.

Advocate, as derived from the Latin participial stem *advocat-*, is there assigned two senses.

By possibility, however, it has been tentatively saddled with a third sense. This appears from the subjoined quotation, of the year 1592, occurring in Bp. Andrewes's *Sermons*, vol. v., p. 533 (ed. 1843), but, at least in its wording, of uncertain authorship:

"We are to think upon the name of God as of a heavy and weighty thing, that is not upon small occasion to be taken up and removed. We are not to account it as a feather that we may lightly toss up and down at our pleasure: and even so are we to esteem of the mercy of God. It is not to be *advocated* [signifying, if not misreported for, *invocated*, 'invoked'] upon every vain trifle. For that were to use God as we are wont to use our jugglers. 'Come on; let us see what you can do; shew us a miracle,' say they [? we]."

In the next place, as denoting 'call to a higher tribunal,' it does not exclusively belong to the phraseology of Scotch Law; and it was established considerably before 1629. Here are the proofs:

"For, in case the Pope, as God forbydde, shulde *advocate* the said cause," etc. Steven Gardyner (?1529), in Sir Henry Ellis's *Original Letters*, Third Series, vol. ii., p. 157 (ed. 1846).

"The Queen made her protestation, . . . alleging the cause to be *advocated* by the Pope's holiness." Dr. Nicholas Harpsfield, *Treatise on the Pretended Divorce of Henry VIII.* (*c.* 1555), p. 181 (Camden Society, 1878).

"Afterward, we having intelligence that the Vice-chancellor proceeded not to the execution of our said commission, we revoked the same, and *advocated* the said cause to our own examination." Abp. Parker and others (1569), in Abp. Parker's *Correspondence* (1853), p. 344.

I now pass to the verb *advocate* which was suggested by the substantive *advocate*.

That Milton, as adduced by Dr. Murray, used it intransitively in 1641 is questionable. But the Rev. Peter Heylyn certainly so used it in 1637:

"The Minister *advocates for* the Arians, and will not have them be the Authors of sitting at the holy Sacrament." *Antidotum Lincolniense*, Part iii., p. 34.

Also, in the last century, it was so used by De Foe:

"But, when I have thus far *advocated for* the enemies, I must be very free to state the crimes of this bloody war, by the events of it." *Memoirs of a Cavalier* (1720), p. 308 (ed. 1840).

To return to the quotation from Milton above referred to, "It had been *advocated* and moved for by," etc., rendered familiar by Archdeacon Todd and Dr. Richardson, Dr. Murray assumes that its "for" has a twofold connexion. Dr. Worcester, being of a different mind, follows Archdeacon Todd in connecting the "for" with "moved" only, and in taking "advocated" to be, consequently, transitive. It may be that he is right in so doing; but he ought not to have garbled Milton, making him write, "It has been *advocated by*," etc.

For the verb transitive, as now current, Dr. Murray's earliest quotation is from Edmund Burke, and is dated "? 1767," in correction of which we are to read "1782." Yet Burke's use was not wholly unknown in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries:

"Too inconsiderate headlong rashnesse this may be censured in me, in being thus prodigall in advantaging my adversaries; but my case is now smoothred secret, and, with light cost of rough cast rhetoricke, it may be tolerably playstered over, if, under the pardon and priviledge of incensed higher powers, it were lawfully indulgenst me freely to *advocate* my owne astrology." Thomas Nashe, *Lenten Stuffe* (1599), in the *Harleian Miscellany* (ed. 1808–1813), vol. vi., p. 146.

"Commest thou hither, fourthly, to *advocate* the cause of thy Clyent, who flyeth to thy learning, experience, and authority, for succour against his adversary, and commendeth his state and suit to thy care and trust?" Bp. Saunderson (1624), *Twelve Sermons* (1637), p. 175.

"It has been said that this word," namely, the *advocate* under consideration, "is an improvement on the English language, which has been discovered by the United States of North America, since their separation from Great Britain." So, perhaps about 1804, writes the Rev. Jonathan Boucher, who, however, does not particularize the person or persons by whom the opinion which he mentions was maintained, and, moreover,—though on wrong grounds, from mistaking the meaning of the older English and Scotch "*advocate* a cause,"—goes on to deny its tenability. Nevertheless, Archdeacon Todd, in 1814, at the same time that he misapprehends the signification of the phrase just cited, comments as follows on his

fellow-cleric: "Mr. Boucher has been misled in this literary concession which he has made to the Americans; for it is also an old English word, employed by one of our finest and most manly writers; and, if the Americans affect to plume themselves on *this pretended improvement of our language*, let them, as well as their abettors, withdraw the unfounded claim to discovery, in [*sic*] turning to the prose-writings of Milton." The disingenuousness of this is palpable, and so is its animus. For what "literary concession" has Mr. Boucher "made to the Americans"? And why should it be gratuitously intimated that "Americans affect to plume themselves," etc., especially since Archdeacon Todd might have informed himself that Dr. Franklin, thinking the verb *advocate* to be of American birth, condemned it in 1789? Besides this, the opinion recorded by Mr. Boucher was hardly a species of felony, or the like, that the epithet "abettors" should be applied to its upholders. Writing in 1816, Mr. John Pickering, while "not aware that the Americans did 'plume themselves' upon this word," *advocate*, pertinently observes that "they may justly claim the merit (if there is any in the case) of *reviving* it." Yet the Archdeacon, in 1827, saw fit to reproduce, without the slightest alteration, the passage which has here been animadverted on.

I would add that any one who enjoys access to a large library would satisfy a rational curiosity by producing anew, with dates attached, the quotations for the verb transitive *advocate* which are found in Mr. Pickering's *Vocabulary*, and in Dr. Webster's *Dictionary*, ed. 1848.

"Half the Anglo-Americans went over red-hot from the conventicle, the other half flagrant from Bridewell; the *tertium quid* was the roguery of the one side superinduced upon the hard vulgarity of the other." This summation of our forefathers, strictly accordant with orthodox British mythology, is from the pen of that highly imaginative Americanophobist, Robert Southey. And, as were, with him, our forefathers, so, by the logic of antipathy, were their descendants, down to the latest. No good was to originate from them. The English language, like everything else that they had to do with, they could only corrupt; and, among their supposed corruptions of it, the *advocate* which I am discussing is sneeringly introduced, by Southey, in one of his latest works, to exemplify, with the verb *test*, those greatly misunderstood phenomena, "Americanisms." Their demonstrated acceptableness was no counterpoise to the stigma of their fancied transatlantic nativity.

Inasmuch as Dr. Murray quotes, for this *advocate*, only a brace of authorities, Burke and William Taylor, prior to 1850, it seems worth while to show, by references to citations which I have at hand, that, throughout the greater part of the first half of our century, it was freely employed, and by writers of the highest respectability. Among such are, for instance, Coleridge (1800, 1818, 1824), Bentham (1807, 1821, 1823), Rev. Sydney Smith (1808, 1824), Lord Byron (1812), Bp. Bathurst (1812), Rev. G. S. Faber (1816, 1817, 1818, 1819, 1824, 1827), Thomas Love Peacock (1817), Rev. James Gilchrist (1817, 1826), Sir John Cam Hobhouse (1818), Rev. Thomas Belsham (1819), William Hazlitt (1819, 1825), Henry Matthews (1820), George Grote (1822), Rev. Dr. Christopher Wordsworth (1824), James Mill (1824), Albany W. Fonblanque (1825, 1827), John Stuart Mill (1825), Prof. H. H. Wilson (1827), Lord Macaulay (1829), Rev. Dr. Thomas Arnold (1829), Bp. Monk (1830), Rev. S. R. Maitland (1830), Rev. J. C. Hare (1832), Sir J. F. W. Herschel (1833), Bp. Thirlwall (1833, 1834), William Godwin (1834), Miss Harriet Martineau (1837), Bp. Samuel Wilberforce (1840), Rev. F. E. Paget (1842), Rev. William Palmer (1843), Rev. Dr. J. W. Donaldson (1847), Prof. F. W. Newman (1847), Cardinal Newman (1848).

Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND. December 10, 1891.

Notes.

THE third volume of Prof. McMaster's 'History of the United States' is issued by the Messrs. Appleton this week. It comes down to the beginning of the war of 1812.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready two new novels, 'Mrs. Dines's Jewels,' by W. Clark Russell, and 'The Baroness,' by Frances Mary Peard.

Saxon & Co., London, will bring out in March an English edition of Félix Régamey's 'Japon Pratique,' an explanation of the Japanese modes of working in wood, metal, lacquer, porcelain, and stuffs, accompanied by more than 100 designs.

The new two-volume edition of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is tasteful and handy, and may lay claim to the most truthful illustrations of the colored *dramatis personæ* yet made. These have been produced by Mr. E. W. Kemble, well known for his delineations of the negro race. They are mostly pen-drawings inserted in the text; but there are also more ambitious full-page wash-drawings, which as a whole, however, are not more successful. Mr. Kemble's art does not go much below the surface, and while he can imitate types, he cannot deal with character or passion. He has prudently confined himself mostly to his black subjects; his Eva is vague and disappointing enough. Perhaps a new edition does not demand a new portrait of the author, but we should be glad to see Richmond's absurdly idealized head of Mrs. Stowe permanently withdrawn from circulation.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, send us two more volumes in their comely series of "Laurel-Crowned Verse," viz., Tennyson's 'Idylls of the King' and Moore's 'Lalla Rookh.' The type employed in the 'Idylls' is small, but shows very clear in the excellent press-work.

The several papers on Ocean Steamships, since united in book form, are the main connecting link between vols. x. and xi. of *Scribner's Magazine*, which now lie bound on our table. Japan, too, has been a theme in both, with foretaste of Sir Edwin Arnold's 'Japonica.' For the rest we need hardly go over our monthly report, yet we will recall as among the more curious papers Prof. Dwight's on Right-handedness, and that illustrated with the highly interesting photographs from luminous objects.

Japan is also a topic in vol. xlii. of the *Century Magazine*, in the continued "artist's letters" of Mr. John La Farge. The Californian papers have gone on, and Mr. Kennan's Siberian have come to an end and are now before the public in another shape. The partnership between Mr. Cole and Mr. Stillman in illustrating the old masters is still undissolved. Most salient of the other features are the discussion of aerial navigation by Prof. Langley and Mr. Maxim, and Greeley's lecture (as it seems to have been) on Lincoln, to which we made reference last week.

It is not easy to summarize vol. xviii. of the *Overland Monthly*, but its distinction from our Eastern magazines lies in the attention which it properly bestows on Pacific Coast scenery and manners. Its "process" and other unpretentious illustrations are most abundant and most useful in this department.

The lasting value of the *Green Bag*, the "useless but entertaining magazine for lawyers" (Boston Book Co.), is as a biographical treasure-house. In the third volume the Supreme Courts of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Missouri, and Louisiana are treated historically, with the aid of numerous portraits; and there are besides sketches of James T. Brady, Lord Coleridge, Nathan Dane, D. D. Field, and many other legal luminaries both British and American. The list of portraits numbers 124. Mr. Irving Browne's rhymed and annotated statements of decisions are an unfailing source of amusement and instruction.

A tiny 'Abstract of New York State Laws Affecting the Rights and Property of Women,' compiled by Mrs. Mary L. Rice, has been prepared for the Women's Educational and Industrial Union of Buffalo, N. Y., and may be had in any quantity at a low price by addressing the secretary of the Protective Committee, Mrs. Adelbert Moot, No. 25 Niagara Square.

Dr. Constantine Stauder, a London teacher of Latin by colloquial methods, has conceived the idea of a tract illustrating the ease with which the language may be thus acquired. It is called 'Post Prandium: Pleasantries in Colloquial Latin,' and consists principally of pictorial humors from the American comic journals with the legends translated into Latin. As space allows, a little Latin drill is thrown in. The effect is droll, and "head masters of schools" may well feel disposed to order copies of this unconventional aid in teaching Latin. The publishers are David Nutt, London, and Westermann, New York.

From Westermann & Co. we receive also the new *Almanach de Gotha* for 1892. The four portraits are of minor yet not unimportant personages—the Queen Dowager and Regent of Holland, the new Grand Duke and Duchess of Luxembourg, and Charles, Prince of Isenberg-Birstein; the selection of this group having been determined by the death of the King of Holland, William III. In the ceaseless overhauling of this ancient annual, what is to be particularly noticed this year is the extension of the information as to consulates. In addition to the names and stations of consuls-general and consuls, the places at which vice-consuls and consular agents are established are completely given. In bulk, the *Almanach* is larger than ever before.

'My Lady Legend,' by Albert Segerstedt (D. Lothrop Co.), is a pretty collection of Swedish fairy tales, which have been cleverly translated into English by Anna von Rydingsvärd. Many of the stories bear a more or less close resemblance to Hans Christian Andersen's wonder tales, while others remind one of the English and German folk tales. The author is possessed of a great deal of quiet humor, some of which is unavoidably lost in the translation. The binding of the book deserves special notice: the colors are those of the Swedish flag, blue and yellow; in the upper corner is the Swedish coat of arms, and, in the lower, that of the translator, presumably.

The first part of Salomonsen's 'Scandinavian Encyclopædia,' a preliminary notice of which was published in these columns last summer, appeared some weeks ago, and will after January be followed regularly by two parts every

month. This part contains forty-eight well-printed two-column pages of reading matter, and two large illustrations, together with a number of small woodcuts, taken, most of them, from Meyer's German work. All the articles are signed, and among the names are some of the best known specialists in Denmark and Norway. In many cases the subject is divided between two writers, the one a Dane, the other a Norwegian, as with usury (*Aager*). The treatment of the letter A is especially full and satisfactory, its several functions being discussed separately. Its linguistic consideration is by the distinguished dialectician, P. K. Thorsen, who has contributed several other phonetic articles. Of special value are the descriptions of Danish and Norwegian towns, two of the former being accompanied by large charts in black and red. Their separate treatment, however, from the historical and the geographical standpoint, is undesirable, leading as it does to frequent repetitions. Among the distinctively Scandinavian articles may be mentioned Dr. Verner Dahlerup's account of the Aarkirkeby font, with an excellent reproduction from Prof. Wimmer's recent work. The majority of the Swedish biographical sketches are by Dr. Blomberg of Stockholm. While for foreign readers the work derives its chief interest and value from the full treatment of Scandinavian subjects not otherwise accessible, it is not by any means confined to these, but furnishes the latest information in all branches of knowledge.

We heartily welcome an adaptation of Prof. Behaghel's 'Die Deutsche Sprache,' which has just been published by Dr. Emil Trechmann of the University of Sydney, under the title 'A Short Historical Grammar of the German Language' (Macmillan). Behaghel's book is known as the most successful attempt hitherto made to give in small compass and in popular form the results of modern philological study as applied to German. It consists of an "Allgemeiner Teil," containing a rapid sketch of the principal changes, both external and internal, of the language from the Pre-Teutonic down to the New High German Period, and a "Besonderer Teil," dealing systematically with the present aspect of the language as affected by the former stages of its development. It is impossible here to give any idea of the wealth of information which this little book contains. Suffice it to say that there could be no better guide to a proper understanding of the burning questions of modern philology, such as the laws of accentuation, the principles of phonetic changes, the influence of analogy, etc., than is offered in this modest primer. Dr. Trechmann's adaptation is in the main well done. The larger space given to examples and the constant reference to English forms and usages are most welcome. The index, which is also an addition, would be more of an improvement if it had been done less hastily. We confess not to see the reason why the chapter on the influence of foreign languages upon German has been transferred from the historical to the systematic part.

The 'D. K. E. Catalogue' (New York: Council Publishing Co.), an octavo volume of over 1,700 pages, gives a complete list of the chapters and members of the fraternity from its foundation in 1844 to the present time. There are 35 active chapters and over 4,000 living members. A succinct biography of each member is given from the time he entered the fraternity, and tables are added showing the collegiate institutions mentioned in the catalogue, and the present geographical distribution of the membership. The book is thus a contribution to the history of college men, and its value would have been increased by tables giving the occupations of the members after leaving college. The professional distribution of college-bred men is a statistical point of no little interest, on which light may be thrown by the various society catalogues. Another point which might be touched on in them is the character of the exercises in the various chapters.

The *Electrical Engineer* begins with the new year a serial narrative of the work of Joseph Henry, by his daughter, Mary Henry, with annotations by Franklin Leonard Pope. It will incidentally vindicate for our countryman the discovery of magneto-electricity associated with the name of Faraday.

The Chicago *Open Court* for December 24, 1891, gives a shadowy "process" cut of the new monument erected over the grave of Theodore Parker in Florence. In the same number Mr. Theodore Stanton, the leader in this pious work, relates the steps taken to bring it about.

Mr. P. G. Hamerton concludes in the December *Portfolio* his series of papers on the "Present State of the Fine Arts in France," the last being on Engraving. The general result, in his opinion, is, that there is no lack of vitality in French art, but that it is "in a condition of the most complete anarchy, and is no more a school, in the sense of any common purpose, than the business association of individual artists in England can constitute a school." Doubtless we shall meet with this survey again in a volume, provided, we hope, with more adequate illustrations than the *Portfolio* has indulged in.

The first number of *Natura ed Arte* (Milan: Francesco Vallardi) has come to hand since our recent announcement of it. The illustrations are of ordinary quality, without exception of the single photogravure—a portrait of the King of Italy, whose praises are sung by A. de Gubernatis. This is the first of "illustri contemporanei." Raffaello Barbiera has a paper on the writings of Cesare Correnti; a letter from Malibran furnishes another; science and art are not neglected. Of greatest worth, perhaps, are the departments called reviews of travels, of "economia" (the state of the country), of agriculture, and of books; the last especially being promising. There is a political chronicle, and even the fashions are recorded. All this in 80 quarto pages.

Dr. Hans Meyer contributes to *Petermann's Mitteilungen* the various observations taken on his last journey from Mombassa to Mt. Kilimandjaro and return, together with notes upon them and a map. This route, though frequently travelled by Europeans, has never before been carefully surveyed. An interesting list of geographical names in Central Asia, with their situations, derivations, and definitions, is given by H. Vámbéry. In the introduction to it he remarks on the great confusion occasioned by the substitution by the Russians of *g* for *h* and *a* for *o*, as well as by the often intentionally misleading information given by the natives. A supplemental number contains a description, both scientific and historical, of the famous Adam's Bridge, the series of bold cliffs and sand-banks lying between the island of Ceylon and India, believed by the natives to have been built in five days by the Vánars for the passage of Rama.

—The January *Atlantic* is a brilliant number on the literary side; but perhaps, all things considered, the most noteworthy article it contains is an unsigned survey of "The Political Situation." This is an admirably condensed analysis of the state of parties, and in particular of the historical place of the Republican party, and the disintegration it suffered when its mission was accomplished. The author expresses his sentiments very freely with respect to reform and the attitude of the party towards it—indeed, the frankness with which he thrusts forward tariff reform into the front of current issues is, under the circumstances, very significant of the progress of the principle in Massachusetts; but the whole paper is likewise stamped with the spirit of the independent voter in Massachusetts, and is a very complete expression of the political view taken by Republicans of the educated class who have practically left their party. The writer does not favor a new organization, and gives very sound reasons against it, but he suggests a union of those voters who favor the principles of reform for work in Congressional districts, in which, of course, the independent voter has the most weight. Outside of this contribution, the most unexpected article is one by Emerson on "Boston," the flavor of which is distinctly old-fashioned, and strikingly shows how far away the age of Emerson already is in literary feeling. Mr. Henry James writes sympathetically, of course, but almost too subtly, of Lowell; the tone is personal, but not intimate, and the period is naturally that of the English mission and the later London days. He dwells most on Lowell's literary and scholarly phase, and especially on his militant Americanism; but as he does not attempt a critical portrait, neither does he succeed in making one. Some of the correspondence of John Stuart Mill, and a poetical view of the Southern cause in the civil war, are the only other noticeable pieces.

—*Harper's*, though not without features of interest, on British Columbia, the Chicago Exposition, and the London of the Restoration, is freshest in the paper of De Vogüé on what he calls "The Neo-Christian Movement in France," in which he reviews the meditative works of some young Frenchmen on the ideas, social and religious, of the present time. He finds in their books a reaction from both the Voltairean and the Positivist spirit, and thinks that the somewhat mystical and pseudo-Christian impressions they have formed herald a new movement, of which the future is as interesting as the rise was unexpected. He traces the origin of this new feeling partly to the melancholy consequent on the last war, partly to the analysis of the revolutionary illusion begun by Taine, and partly to the confession by Tolstoi of his experience under the ideals and conditions of modern life. The movement marks the resurgence of the Gothic spirit in our civilization in distinction from the Roman element—the spirit of St. Vincent de Paul, of Mirabeau, of Saint-Simon, in opposition to the limiting and rational Latin genius, which, concurrently with the former, has formed the French nation. Whatever be the justice of the writer's observations, the facts which he points out are significant, and have an illustrative bearing upon the idealistic tendency in other parts of the world, now suffering a unification, both of sentiment and of idea, unparalleled since the Roman Empire. A literary paper is furnished by Horatio Bridge, who relates the story of the college days of Hawthorne, and adds some anecdotes of his friendships which, if they throw no new light upon his genius, are interesting in his singularly barren biography. The important announcement is made that the magazine will publish immediately Lowell's six lectures on the Elizabethan dramatists.

—The *Century* devotes much space to the Jews, in two articles, one upon the Jewish question in general, the other on the Jews of New York. Another public question is treated of under the head of "The Discontent of the Farmer," with much ability and also breadth of view. Witchcraft gives Dr. Buckley opportunity for another of his remarkable papers on the border-land of human belief. He may startle the reader by the statement that "witchcraft is at the present time believed in by a majority of the citizens of the United States," but he justifies the words; and his survey of the latest legal chapters in the history of the delusion is a most convincing illustration of the slow change of popular opinions. Quite the most important paper, however, is the account of Custer's last battle by Capt. Godfrey, who was with Reno's command; the thrilling story is once more told from the point of view of those who were nearest to the unseen battle, and it seems likely that we have now reached the fullest detail of the fight which no one lived to describe; and it would appear from this sketch, and the appended comment of Gen. Fry, that the charge that Custer disobeyed orders must be finally dismissed. The portraits of the officers who died, which are given, lend a pathos to the article which every reader will feel.

—*Scribner's* has travel-sketches of Egypt, Bokhara, and Bayreuth, together with a paper on "Paris Theatres and Concerts," which may be classed with them. A literary paper containing some of Allston's correspondence is principally noticeable for two characteristic letters of Coleridge. Recorder Smyth writes of "Crime and the Law," and makes certain suggestions for legislative change in the line of that philanthropic treatment of crime which, though it has been recently much disparaged, cannot but advance under such experienced and well-supported advice. The remainder of the number does not call for comment. In the March number, we are told, will be published the last poem written by Lowell, and the only one of consequence left in manuscript. It is "On a Bust of General Grant."

—The publication by M. Henri Doniol of the documents in the French archives relating to the Treaty of 1783 supplies the last important link in the chain of evidence; for the only source of information yet unexamined is the Spanish archives, and Spain was ever a drag upon the diplomacy of the day, rarely an active factor. The 300 quarto pages of Mr. Doniol are full of information on the acts and characters of those who framed the peace; but the most positive contribution for American history is to be found in the papers relating to Rayneval's journey to London in September, 1782. Adams had long wished to lessen the influence of France in American affairs, fearing merely a change of masters; and in Jay, soured by his fruitless stay in Spain, and holding the French representative as partially responsible for his failure, he found a ready follower. Indeed, Jay's suspicions of the French Court increased so rapidly that they soon outstripped those of Adams, and he found a full confirmation of them in the intercepted despatch of Marbois, and in the sudden and secret mission of Rayneval to London in an early stage of the negotiations. It is upon these suspicions that the controversy over the Treaty of 1783 has raged. In his letter to Livingston of November 17, 1782—a studied presentation of his position some months after the events—Jay conveyed his suspicions, and, on the objects of Rayneval's mission, he "conjectured" that the French agent was (1) to inform Shelburne that the demands of America to be treated by Britain as independent previous to a treaty (Jay's own demands), were not approved by the French Court; that an acknowledgment of independence in an article of the treaty would be sufficient; (2) to sound Shelburne on a division of the fisheries between Great Britain and France, to the exclusion of all other Powers; (3) to keep America from the Mississippi, and so divide the Western Territory north of the Ohio, and (4) to make such verbal overtures as might test the sincerity of the wish for a general peace. In any case Jay thought the interests of America were to be sacrificed.

—Franklin refused to entertain Jay's views; Livingston argued against them; Sparks gave good evidence against their probability, and Lecky and Bancroft scout them. M. Doniol, in his clear and usually impartial narrative, gives the final testimony. He prints in full the instructions given to Rayneval, drawn by Vergennes himself, which were intended to sound Shelburne's attitude upon a general pacification, and so covered the interests of France and her Continental allies, as well as of America. In the same work M. Doniol summarizes Rayneval's minutes of his conversations with Shelburne and Grantham; but in the *Revue d'Histoire Diplomatique* he prints the minutes in full, comprising forty-six folio pages of MS. In the first interview, the complete independence of America was conceded, and without discussion; and in the two instances when the fisheries or boundaries were broached, the remarks were confined to the expression of a wish by Shelburne that the French King would not support the claims of the Americans, and a reply by Rayneval that the King would never give the weight of his authority to support unjust claims. Rayneval made one suggestion on the fisheries that might have figured in recent controversies, viz., that a simple rule for determining rights was to say that fish in the high sea was *res nullius;* off the coast, it belonged to the Power that held the coast. Apart from the few references to America that implied nothing but an interchange of individual opinions, given *officieusement*, the conversations related entirely to the East Indies, Africa, and the slave trade; Spain's demand for Gibraltar; Holland; and the suggested mediation by the courts of Vienna and St. Petersburg.

—Jay's suspicions, allowed free play by an attack of gout that rendered Franklin unable to take an active part, led to the completion of a treaty in such a manner as to give offence to France, assured Gibraltar to the English, and antagonized Spain. Further, the negotiations as conducted by Adams and Jay offer a curious commentary upon their mental processes. While denouncing France for secret methods, they completed and signed a treaty without communicating with their ally, in direct violation of their instructions, and with a secret article that might have renewed the war (for it was an insult to Spain), and that did prove an element of discord till the purchase of Louisiana. Franklin's tact and Vergennes's self-control and generosity smoothed over the matter. But when Adams and Jay are lauded as the makers of the Treaty of 1783, it will be well to recall that under it Adams could do little or nothing as Minister to St. James, and that in 1794 Jay himself was sent to negotiate a new treaty which should make good the defects of the old. As a diplomatic triumph the treaty was remarkable; but as a personal triumph it too strongly resembles the diplomatic "victories" of the man from Maine. In addition to the negotiations on the treaty, M. Doniol will make another valuable contribution to American history by printing the letters of Rochambeau.

—At the request of the family of the deceased Prof. Johannes Huber, the Munich publisher of 'Das Papstthum' (noticed in No. 1378 of the *Nation*) has issued a leaf to be substituted for pp. vii. and viii. of the preface of the present edition, stating with the greatest possible exactness the part taken by Prof. Huber in the collaboration of the first edition of the work. The original article, entitled "Der Papst and die Civiltà," which appeared in the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung* in March, 1869, Nos. 72–74, was written entirely by Döllinger. Huber proposed that this article should be enlarged and printed in the form of a pamphlet, and promised to aid in the revision. Döllinger accepted the suggestion, and in April Huber set to work alone, although under the constant supervision of Döllinger, who, however, a few weeks later, about Whitsuntide, again took his pen in hand and developed the projected pamphlet into the good-sized volume known as 'Janus,' which was finished towards the end of July. The work belongs, therefore, in conception wholly and in literary execution essentially to Döllinger, and it is perfectly just and proper that the title-page should bear his name only, although its "authors" are spoken of in the preface to the first edition, which appeared anonymously. We may add that of the papers originally printed in the *Allgemeine Zeitung*, the concluding number, 74, which treated of the doctrine of Papal infallibility since the sixteenth century, was not embodied in 'Janus,' but has now been published as a separate essay in the volume of 'Kleinere Schriften,' pp. 405–425 (Stuttgart: Cotta). The defence of 'Janus' against the attacks of Cardinal Hergenröther was written by Huber, and not seen by Döllinger until published.

WINSOR'S COLUMBUS.

Christopher Columbus, and How He Received and Imparted the Spirit of Discovery. By Justin Winsor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 8vo, pp. 674. 1891.

About half a century ago Carlyle, in his 'Past and Present,' apostrophized the discoverer of the New World in these glowing words: "Brave Sea-Captain, Norse Sea-King—Columbus, my hero, royalest Sea-King of all. . . . Thou shalt be a Great Man. Yes, my World-Soldier, . . . thou wilt have to be *greater* than the tumultuous, unmeasured world around thee." Irving and Prescott had already set the key-note to this pæan of praise, and in both worlds the consensus of opinion respecting Columbus had finally culminated in a strenuous, though hitherto ineffectual, effort on the part of a certain section of the Roman Catholic Church to bring about his canonization in recognition of his instrumentality in introducing Christianity into America. Some discordant notes, however, were heard amid this general chorus of commendation. With the progress of historical criticism, scholarly inquirers were found insisting that the portrait of the man had been drawn in altogether too high colors, and that it was essentially untrue. It was with some interest, therefore, that we looked for the conclusions upon this subject that had been reached by the last to enter upon this field of inquiry,

the scholarly librarian of Harvard, who has expanded the chapter upon "Columbus and His Discoveries," contained in his 'Narrative and Critical History of America,' into the comely volume now before us. We find Mr. Winsor decidedly ranging himself among the iconoclasts in his estimate of Columbus's character. The following is the portrait as he has painted it:

"Hardly a name in profane history is more august than his. Hardly another character in the world's record has made so little of its opportunities. His discovery was a blunder; his blunder was a new world; the New World is his monument! Its discoverer might have been its father; he proved to be its despoiler. He might have given its young days such a benignity as the world likes to associate with a maker; he left it a legacy of devastation and crime. He might have been an unselfish promoter of geographical science; he proved a rabid seeker for gold and a viceroyalty. He might have won converts to the fold of Christ by the kindness of his spirit; he gained the execrations of the good angels. He might, like Las Casas, have rebuked the fiendishness of his contemporaries; he set them an example of perverted belief. The triumph of Barcelona led down to the ignominy of Valladolid, with every step in the degradation palpable and resultant."

This will not be a popular position that our author has taken upon the threshold of the fourth centenary of the discovery of this continent, but we honor the courage which proclaims the convictions to which his unprejudiced investigations have conducted him. For our own part we believe that he is essentially correct in the opinion which he has formed in regard to the character of Columbus, and that this will be the final estimate in which he will be held by mankind.

Nor does Queen Isabella fare any better at our author's hands. He pronounces her to be "an unlovely woman at the best, an obstructor of Christian charity," and he quotes with approval Helps's statement that "there is hardly any great personage whose name and authority are found in connection with so much that is strikingly evil." He finds fault with Irving and Prescott for "making her confessors responsible for her acquiescence in the expulsion of the Jews and in the horrors of the Inquisition." The familiar story of her having offered to pawn her jewels to help defray the cost of the expedition, he agrees with Harrisse in regarding as a myth, since the exigencies of the war with the Moors had already required that sacrifice of her; and he thinks the advance of money was actually made by Santangel, from his private resources.

There will, doubtless, be a luxuriant crop of popular Columbus literature to welcome the commemoration of the great discovery—in fact, a brief sketch by the Rev. Edward E. Hale has already appeared at Chicago; but it will be hard, we think, to find a rival in thoroughness, scientific method, accuracy, and impartiality for the valuable monograph which Mr. Winsor has given to students of history. For it is to them that it specially addresses itself, although the general reader who wishes to discover what is the real truth about Columbus, need not find himself repelled even by the minute technical treatment of certain details, since this is always relieved by the vigorous and incisive style of the narrative.

Mr. Winsor does not profess to have discovered any new sources of information—indeed, this would seem to be almost impossible after the labor and research resulting in the long series of volumes upon Columbus that have come from the pen of M. Henri Harrisse, during the past twenty-five years. To these, and especially to his latest work, 'Christophe Colomb' (1884), ample acknowledgments are made for the stores of material therein contained, and it is clear that the present volume could never have been written without their help; but our author has displayed a truly independent spirit in drawing his conclusions, and in many regards he sharply criticises Harrisse's views. Nor would we be understood as intimating that he has depended upon Harrisse's labors only. The whole literature pertaining to the discovery of America is at his fingers' ends, and every source of information about it has been exhausted—embracing everything known or surmised that can be found in documentary or printed sources in regard to the origin, the birthplace, and the early life of Columbus, the growth of his ideas about the shape of the earth, and the grounds of his expectations of making further discoveries. All these are traced out to the farthest hint. Finally, in an appendix of 130 pages upon the "Geographical Results," Mr. Winsor has produced a masterly treatise upon the history of early cartography, in which branch of learning he is regarded as the leading authority. Every piece of testimony has been compared and sifted with untiring industry and practised skill, and the result is a model of faithful investigation into mooted questions and of clear setting forth of results attained.

Space will not admit of our dwelling upon the manner in which the familiar incidents of Columbus's life and the well-known facts of his different voyages have been handled, and we will confine ourselves to giving some account of our author's conclusions in regard to a few points, important or curious, about which there has been much discussion and great diversity of opinion.

There is a difference of at least twenty years between the various dates that have been assigned for the birth of Columbus, and some twenty or more towns or hamlets have contended for the glory of having been his birthplace. Mr. Winsor gives the names of all of these, with special details in regard to Savona and Calvi (in Corsica), but records his assent to the right of Genoa to the honor, in accordance with Columbus's own declaration in his will. His father, Domenico, a weaver, owned and lived at the house, still standing, No. 37 Vico Dritto Ponticello, and there, in all probability, Christopher was born, some time in the years 1445–'47, according to the conclusions of our author.

A chapter is devoted to the discussion of the question, "Was Columbus in the North?" as has been inferred from a statement to be found only in the life of Columbus by his illegitimate son, Ferdinand. Now, not only have the authenticity and trustworthiness of this biographical account been much questioned, of which only an Italian version is known, published in 1571, nearly a hundred years after the event, but the date assigned for the visit, 1477, is proved to be inconsistent with the known facts of Columbus's life, while the reference to the country visited is so vague and indefinite in regard to latitude as to be irreconcilable with what might be expected of an experienced navigator. But what renders the fact of an early voyage by Columbus to high northern latitudes highly improbable is that in 1492, when he was expatiating to his sovereigns upon the advantages of the harbors in the new islands he had discovered, he laid no claim for his ability to form a judgment regarding them to his ever having been farther north than England. So also, when the Spanish crown was contesting with his heirs his rights of discovery, no reference was made to these northern experiences, which would certainly have been cited in favor of the claims of the Crown. But even if he had made such a voyage as far as to Iceland, as has been so confidently asserted, it is only by inferences of a highly imaginative character that it can be supposed that he could have gained any information about the early voyages of the Northmen to Greenland and the American continent; and it is inconceivable that on his first voyage he should have laid his course southwest from the Canaries, if he had been prompted by information gained about lands lying in the northwest. Incidentally, Mr. Winsor is led to consider at some length the arguments in favor of the early Norse voyages to America, and his conclusion is that there is "no evidence beyond a strong probability that the Norse from Greenland crossed Davis' Straits and followed south the American coast." He scouts the attempts to identify the localities of their alleged sojourn, asserting that no archæological evidence of their presence here has ever been adduced.

All the world knows the thrilling narrative of that first voyage, as recorded in the abridgment of Columbus's journal preserved by Las Casas, but exactly where he made his landfall has been a very much debated question. The various opinions are all quoted and discussed, but our author allows that there "is just enough uncertainty and contradiction respecting the data and arguments applied in the solution of this question to render it probable that men will never quite agree upon which of the Bahamas it was." Three methods of identification have been followed: first, by plotting the outward track; second, by plotting the track between the landfall and Cuba, both forward and backward; third, by applying the descriptions given of the island first seen. San Salvador, or Cat Island, the most northerly of the group, was the one originally regarded as corresponding to what the discoverer called Guanahani. This was accepted by Irving on the authority of a careful study of the problem by Capt. Alexander Slidell Mackenzie of the United States Navy. The late Capt. G. V. Fox, Assistant Secretary of our Navy, after an elaborate survey and discussion of the question for the United States Coast Survey, decided in favor of Samana, and this conclusion has the qualified approval of Harrisse. But Mr. Winsor gives in his adhesion to the claim of Watling's Island, as best answering to the description and as supported by the weight of modern authority. Muñoz, Capt. Becher of the Royal Navy, Oscar Peschel, Navarrete, the late Mr. Major of the British Museum, and Clements R. Markham, are all of this opinion, which is sustained in a recent very elaborate study of the problem, in 1884, by Lieut. J. B. Murdoch of the United States Navy. A carefully drawn chart (after Ruge) is furnished, on which all the various courses suggested are laid down, with the different landfalls resulting from them.

Not until eighteen years after the great discovery do we find the first allusion made to it in English literature, in a translation, by Alexander Barclay, of Sebastian Brandt's 'Ship of Fools,' published in 1509. We will quote as a curiosity the uncouth lines referring to it, in which it will be noticed that no mention whatsoever is made of Columbus:

"For nowe of late hath large lande and grounde
Ben founde by maryners and crafty gouernours,
The whiche londes were neuer knowen nor founde
Before our tyme by our predecessours;
And hereafter shall by our successours
Parchaunce mo be founde, wherein men dwell
Of whome we never before this same harde tell.
Ferdinandus, that late was kynge of Spayne,
Of londe and people hath founde plenty and store,
Of whome the bydynge to us was uncertayne
No Christen men of them harde tell before."

What was the form in which Columbus originally communicated the intelligence of his success is one of the puzzles of bibliography. Several varieties of the text of a letter, in Spanish, making the announcement exist in manuscript, but no one of them is in his own handwriting, nor is it conceded that any preserves his exact language. One is addressed to Luis de Santangel, the Treasurer of Aragon, and another, essentially the same in its contents, to Gabriel Sanchez. Of the former an edition in small quarto was printed in 1493, but only one copy of it has ever been discovered. This was formerly preserved in the Ambrosian Library, at Milan, but it has disappeared from there. Recently the discovery of two other printed editions of this Santangel letter has been announced, each in a single copy, one in quarto, the other in folio. The quarto copy was sold in this city within the past year for $4,300, but Mr. Winsor remarks of it, "There can be scarce a doubt that it is a modern fabrication." The folio copy is said to be held by Mr. Quaritch, in London, at the price of £1,600. But what is commonly known and cited by scholars as "Columbus's First Letter" is a translation into Latin of the letter addressed to Sanchez, made by Leander de Cosco, probably at Barcelona, on April 29, 1493. Of this, within a twelvemonth, four editions were printed in Rome, three in Paris, and one in Antwerp. As to which of these little black-letter quartos or octavos is the *editio princeps* there has been an immense amount of learned discussion, and Mr. Winsor hesitates to pronounce judgment between them, saying: "There is just enough of uncertainty and obscurity as to date and printers to lure bibliographers and critics of typography into research and controversy, and hardly any two of them agree in assigning the same order of publication to the several issues." Of all these eight editions there are only about thirty copies known, of which some ten or more are in this country. The attention of the American public has of late been attracted to this literary rarity by the large prices that have recently been paid at public auction in this city for copies of different editions. These have ranged from the $4,300 given for the Spanish copy, as we have stated, to $2,900 paid at the Burton sale by the Boston Public Library for a copy of the Cosco Latin translation; and $1,500 paid at the sale of the Ives Collection for a copy of each of two different editions of the same text. As only five or six of the thirty copies known are ever likely to come upon the market, these prices cannot be considered as excessive. We have already called attention to the praiseworthy attempt of the Trustees of the Boston Public Library to popularize this interesting literary curiosity by publishing a handsome facsimile of their copy, with a translation, which can be purchased at a very moderate price.

Into the vexed question as to the present resting-place of the remains of Columbus, about which there exists a considerable body of controversial literature, Mr. Winsor does not enter at any great length. In 1541 the remains were transferred from Spain to Santo Domingo, shortly after the completion of the cathedral there, in which they were placed. The exact spot of the interment was not made matter of record at the time, and the traditional site in consequence has been drawn into dispute. When the Treaty of Basle gave the Santo Domingo end of the island to France, the Spanish authorities, in 1796, transferred the remains to Havana, with much pomp and ceremony. But in 1877, in making some repairs in the cathedral at Santo Domingo, certain discoveries induced the bishop of that see to claim that it was not the remains of Columbus, but of his son Diego, that had been removed. This has been denied by the Academy of History at Madrid, and accusations of fraudulent tampering with the inscriptions upon the box containing the relics have been brought against the bishop. Mr. Winsor expresses no decided opinion, contenting himself with saying: "The question has probably been thrown into the category of doubt, though the case as presented in favor of Santo Domingo has some recognizably weak points, which the advocates of the other side have made the most of, and to the satisfaction, perhaps, of the most careful inquirers."

The volume is most generously embellished with pictorial illustrations of every sort, but is especially rich in maps and portraits. It is even hospitable enough to allow space for the likeness, in a fifteenth-century costume, of Ptolemy, the illustrious Greek geographer and mathematician, of whom Prof. De Morgan says "we know absolutely nothing but his date, A. D. 139." Naturally a great liberality is displayed towards the portraits of Columbus himself, of which nine out of the sixteen upon Irving's list had been previously given in the 'Narrative and Critical History of America.' Seven of these are here reproduced, although our author confesses that there is "none that can be proved beyond question the result of any sitting or even of any acquaintance." None of them at all resembles the description of his person given by contemporaries. Our author expresses no preference for any, although he states that the so-called Yañez portrait as regarded by the late Duke of Veragua as the most authentic likeness of his ancestor. He makes no reference to the picture recently discovered in Venice, bearing the signature of Lorenzo Lotto, of which some account was given in the *Nation* of December 26, 1889. We should be pleased to have learned Mr. Winsor's opinion in regard to its genuineness and value, as it is said to resemble the Yañez portrait in many particulars, with some difference in the costume.

It would be agreeable to linger longer over numerous other interesting points treated by our author, but we refrain, simply commending most heartily to our readers this valuable and beautiful volume, upon which the publishers have lavished all the resources of their art.

BLADES'S PENTATEUCH OF PRINTING.

The Pentateuch of Printing, with a Chapter on Judges. By William Blades. With a Memoir of the Author and list of his works, by Talbot B. Reed. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1891. Demy 4to, pp. xxvii, 117.

To announce a new book by William Blades is to arrest the attention of every lover of old books. His 'William Caxton' of 1861 was a model of intelligent research and of candid criticism, in which nothing of value was left unsaid. Similar commendation must be given to many of his minor productions, but the book before us is a grave exception. Although beautifully printed, freely illustrated, and, despite its fanciful title, logically arranged, it gives no new information, nor does it present all the old facts that are really needed in an epitome of typographic history. We have "Genesis," the beginning of printing; "Exodus," the promulgation of the art of typography; "Leviticus," the rules or methods of the early printers; "Numbers," brief notices of some of the early masters; "Deuteronomy," a review of the typographical achievements of the nineteenth century; closing with the chapter on "Judges," which is an insufficient mention of the leading authorities. The plan is comprehensive enough, but it has not been fully developed, for Mr. Blades's death must have left much of the work undone. What we have is, as his editor admits, an incomplete work, possibly little more than the skeleton of the book intended. Mr. Reed assures us that he has not transcended the lawful line of the editor; only in minor matters has he filled the gaps which were needed to make the proper connections. The chief deviations are a short memoir of Blades, and a careful collection of his valuable contributions to periodicals. One lays down the book with a regret that the author had not been spared to give to it the thoroughness of treatment that characterized his previous works.

The object of the 'Pentateuch' is to present in a compact form the sifted evidences concerning the invention of printing. There is need of such a work. All the authoritative treatises on the subject are bulky, and many of them have much irrelevant matter; but the ordinary reader is most repelled by the uncritical spirit and general bad temper of the authors. With few exceptions the authors dispute more than explain. One-half of them maintain that typographic printing was first done in Holland, probably by Coster; the other half, that it was first done at Strassburg or Mentz, by Gutenberg. Protesting against the quarrelsome spirit of previous writers, Blades attempts to give "fair and impartial criticism, based on acknowledged facts and historical evidence."

Unfortunately, in a previous book he had avowed his belief in the priority of Dutch typography, but he was careful not to assent to the dubious legend of Coster as the inventor. His doubts were wise. In 1869 Dr. Van der Linde put this legend of Coster into a crucible of criticism and reduced it to ashes; but his needless gibes at the easy credulity of the Costerians made antagonists of many fair-minded believers in a probable priority of Dutch printing. Blades was of the number who took the higher ground that the legend of Coster was unimportant; that there were evidences enough without this story of a prior practice of printing in Holland. Dr. Hessels, the translator into English of the 'Haarlem Legend,' went further. He attacked Dr. Van der Linde and the documentary evidence on which some of the claims of Gutenberg are based, with great ability, but in a bitter and intolerant spirit, which makes the inquirer doubt his judicial competency.

In this book, Blades attempts to reconcile the disputants by the assumption that there were two schools of typography: (1) a Dutch school, that made rude types and printed petty books, which school was the outgrowth of a long-continued practice of block-printing in Holland; (2) a German school, that made good types and fully developed the ruder Dutch method. In support of this assumption he says there are "forty-seven different books, or fragments of books, printed with eight different fonts of type, all Dutch in origin, all without any name, date, or place, nearly all discovered in the bindings of manuscript or printed books, thirty-three of them on vellum and four of them printed on one side only. What can we do with this interesting regiment of incunabula? To make them later than, or even con-

temporaneous with, the earliest dated books seems impossible."

Why impossible? Two of these books allude to men and events of the years 1457 and 1458. Not one fragment has been found in any book bound before 1467. There is no direct evidence that they were made before the Bible of forty-two lines. The rudeness of these eight fonts of type is not good evidence of their priority. That they may have been made, as has been alleged, from punches of wood, matrices of lead, and moulds of sand, proves nothing as to their age, for these rude implements have been occasionally used by type-founders ever since for the making of large types. Didot says ('Essai sur la typographie,' p. 607) that he had used them, and his description of their use gives us the clearest and, indeed, the only acceptable explanation of their peculiar faults. One of the forty-seven books, probably the worst as to its type-founding—the 'Abecedarium'—shows typographic peculiarities which are unmistakably of the last quarter of the fifteenth century. So far from showing the earliest processes of typography, these books show its early degradation. They seem to be the work of a contemporary block-book printer who attempted an imitation of the good method of a master, from an imperfect knowledge of its processes, and with intent to evade its conditions and cheapen its tools.

Of direct historical evidence, Blades presents very little, for there is little to give. The story of early printing at Haarlem, which was first told in print in 1561, is hearsay and of small value. The earliest and clearest expert testimony concerning the invention is that of Ulric Zell, a printer, who gives this testimony in the 'Chronicle of Cologne' of 1499:

"This highly valuable art was discovered first of all in Germany, at Mentz, and it took place about the year 1440, and from this time until the year 1450 the art and what is connected with it was being investigated. In this year 1450 they began to print, and the first book they printed was the Bible in Latin. . . . Although the art, as has been said, was discovered at Mentz (in the manner as it is now generally used), yet the first prefiguration was found in Holland, in the Donatuses which were printed there before that time. And from these Donatuses the beginning of the art was taken, and it was invented in a manner much more masterly and subtile, and became more and more ingenious. . . . The first inventor of printing was a citizen of Mentz, born at Strassburg, and named Junker Johan Gutenberg. There are some confident persons who say that books had been printed already before, but this is not true, for we find in no country were books printed at that time."—*Hessels's translation.*

The last and most important sentence is not quoted by Blades in the 'Pentateuch.' Van der Linde says that these suggestive Donatuses were xylographic; Blades says they were typographic. Is this of first importance? Is it not more important to know the nature of this new, masterly, and subtile invention which surpassed the Dutch method? It must have been something more than the copying of a rude method of making and using combined letters as types that moved Zell to call the new art a valuable invention. Even if it could be proved that the unknown printer of the forty-seven books made types before 1440, his priority would not materially affect the merit of the invention at Mentz. The unknown Dutch printer did not practise "the art as it is now used." He printed petty books only; he founded no school; he left no successor. His peculiar form of printing was barren as to results, and died with him. It did not have merit enough to attract disciples, nor vitality enough to live. The printing done in Holland after 1473 was done by the process and by the disciples of the Mentz school.

Hessels says that there is no positive proof that Gutenberg invented anything. It is not necessary here to consider this doubt as to the person. It is enough to say that "the art as it is now used" did appear for the first time, as Zell stated, at Mentz, about or soon after 1450, and that it produced great books of excellent workmanship. Blades says we know very little of the tools or processes of the Mentz printers. This is true. The writers who attempted to describe the new tools of type-making had to coin new words for new things, and the new words were not exact. Their descriptions might have been clearer, but they made no mistake in calling the new art a grand invention. They clearly understood, and some of them plainly said, that its great feature was the new art of type-making. Here it may be noted that the early method of type-making, so far as we know, has not been changed from that day to this. This first method was the only method: it was so thorough and scientific that no successor pretended to claim improvement.

The theory of Blades that typography as we have it was not an invention, but a gradual and imperceptible development at the hands of many experimenters, is a severe strain on the imagination. To accept this theory, we have to believe that one printer made types of wood and another of cut or cast metal; one man made a mould of sand, and another of brass; one used punches of wood, another matrices of lead; and so the work went on until it was proved by repeated experiment that the punch of steel, the matrix of copper, and the mould of brass or steel, were the proper implements. How these experiments could be made by many block printers or by searchers after typography before 1450 without leaving any trace behind them—how one man could appropriate the fruits of this labor and drive his predecessors or rivals out of the field and into oblivion—does not appear.

Blades is certainly reckless in his assertion that the believers in the invention at Mentz hold that the processes of typography as we have it came to the inventor by "sudden enlightenment." On the contrary, they accept the statement of Zell that the inventor "investigated" the problem for ten years. That he knew all the methods of contemporaneous block-printers and of other seekers after typography is probable, but it does not follow that he adopted their methods, or that he was largely indebted to them for his success.

Documents recently found in Avignon furnish a pointed illustration. They show that in 1444 one Procope Valdfoghel, a goldsmith of Prague, was teaching to eager pupils in that city a new method of "artificial writing." The mention of lead, tin, copper, iron, of "forms" (moulds), and of engraved letters, which were necessary for the production of this artificial writing, proves that Valdfoghel knew how to make movable types, but there is no evidence that he or his pupils did any practical work. His process, or his invention, if it may be so called, antedates that of Gutenberg, but what good did it do? It is possible that the inventor of printing at Mentz knew of Valdfoghel's methods, and perhaps of others equally unsuccessful; but it is not at all probable that the art which produced the Bible of forty-two lines came from a new combination of unsuccessful processes. It is much more reasonable to assume that, while the inventor thoroughly sifted the knowledge he acquired from others, he added to this knowledge more than he found.

RUSKIN'S ART TEACHING.

The Art Teaching of John Ruskin. By W. G. Collingwood, M.A., late scholar of University College, Oxford. London: Percival & Co.; New York: Macmillan.

NOTHING could well be more infelicitous than the idea of codifying the dicta of Mr. Ruskin into a system of art-teaching. He never taught art; he tried to teach drawing, and failed either to teach or to appreciate the supreme quality in drawing, and his own work never rose above the rank of earnest and patient amateur design, with a very incorrect eye both for color and form, though the feeling for both was very keen. We read his books for their poetic form of thought, their passionate love of nature, and the exalted humanitarian and spiritual aspiration running through them; for diction, for pathos, for philosophy, not always sound, but always sincere; and not least, for a pathetic personality which gives its tone to all he says on the most trivial subject. It would be difficult to say which of his definitions (rather, perhaps, appreciations) of art are the most or least accurate, for he gave expression to so many and so different that there are few views of art which he has not in one or another way taken at various times. But what may be said confidently, and what will be admitted as the general opinion of experts whose knowledge of the matter is most intimate, *i. e.*, the general body of artists of all nations, is that his doctrines, taken in the broadest comprehensiveness, are absolutely inapplicable to art. He has said numerous wise and witty things about art, and has shown a keen perception of certain forms of it, but the vital and essential qualities of it he never grasped. He continually confounded art with the uses of art, never got rid of the early misconception that it had some relation to religion or morality, or was secondary to nature; he invariably estimated artists primarily by their treatment of detail, which is only one, and not the most important, element in a work of art; and he set up his peculiar sympathies with it for the standard of dignity, if not of excellence. It is impossible to accept his notions of art as the basis of any system of teaching, for they lead to nothing but confusion or mindless representation of nature, which he again repudiates, though it is the most logical result of his precepts, and the only one his direct teaching ever developed.

But art is only the text of his preaching, and what he says is often in no relation to the text, nor the worse for not being. He was, Mr. Collingwood says, "intended for the Church," and he passed his life in the pulpit, if not in that of the Church. What the author has attempted to do is, then, the collecting of the texts which Ruskin set for himself to preach from, apparently ignorant that it is as an artist in words and not as a teacher of the graphic arts that Ruskin stands for us in the front rank of his contemporaries. His books will be as interesting when the arts they treat of are extinct; and the best proof that it is the eloquence and not the doctrine that gives him his place is that, when translated into another language, his ideas have never made their way. The bare statement of his doctrines which Mr. Collingwood gives, with the apparent conviction that he is putting forth a gospel of art, is sufficient to show us that Ruskin was not an art teacher. And even in drawing he never understood the secret of teaching what is most important for a young artist to know, the power and meaning of style, or the signification of

conventionalism in art—for all true art has its conventions, sometimes of the school, and sometimes of the individual; conventions of color, conventions of form, drawing, composition, and subject. When his 'Elements of Drawing' came out, we happened to show a copy to one of the best draughtsmen in America, and he returned it with the remark, "Ruskin should not have printed that; we know now what he does *not* know." No more futile book of instruction in drawing, we are inclined to say, was ever put forth. He seems, according to Mr. Collingwood, to have learned later its futility, but not the reasons of it. Nor does Mr. Collingwood understand it better. He says, for instance: "The conception of Ruskin as a mere literary stylist and dilettante in Art is an error; there are few writers whose opinions are founded on so thorough an examination of the subject"—a curious non-sequitur, as if the much studying a subject were any substitute for natural capacity to comprehend it, or an antidote for radical errors in the theory of the study of it. To say of Ruskin that he is a "mere literary stylist" is an exaggeration of what is to be said of him, but that he is a "dilettante in art" is no error, but the very fact. He delighted greatly, it is true; but more than a "dilettante," *i. e.*, an amateur, he never was or could have been.

The compiler is frank enough to admit that Ruskin changed his views of art as he grew older; the pity is that he had not waited for his views to ripen before he sent them out to the world; but Mr. Collingwood gives one passage with approval from the 'Aratra Pentelici' which must be taken as the matured and approved doctrine:

"All second-rate artists will tell you that the object of Fine Art is not resemblance, but some kind of abstraction more refined than reality. Put that out of your head at once. The object of the great Resemblant Arts is, and always has been, to resemble; and to resemble as closely as possible. It is the function of a good portrait to set the man before you in habit as he lived, and I would we had a few more that did so. It is the function of a good landscape to set the scene before you in its reality; to make you think, if it may be, the clouds are flying and the streams foaming. It is the function of the best sculptor—the true Dædalus—to make stillness look like breathing, and marble look like flesh."

It is difficult to concentrate more fallacy in so few words. Most second-rate artists follow Nature as closely as is possible, and the more closely their work resembles her, the more successful they are. They adhere to facts because they have no power of abstraction, and facts are very different from truth, which is what the greater artist aims at. No landscape painter the world ever saw, besides Turner, so little resembled nature, in the sense here implied, as he did; but probably none ever told so much truth. No statue looks so like breathing as a good piece of wax-work, than which nothing else is so far from art. The "Resemblant Art" is a pure assumption in nomenclature, meant to hide the incorrectness of the deduction and the inconsistency of the logic. The object of "Resemblant Art" is of course to resemble; the assumption that resemblant art is great art, or that there is any interdependence between the closeness of resemblance and the greatness of the art, even in a portrait, is utterly gratuitous—there is none. The greatest portrait-painter, as artist, is not the man whose portraits most resemble the original, as we see in every Academy exhibition. We recognize Titian as the greatest of portrait-painters, though we do not know whether or not one of his portraits was as like the original as one of Mr. Brown Jones Robinson who lives round the corner. A portrait that deceives you into believing that some one is looking at you out of the frame it is in, is always a vulgar piece of art, and is only possible as the work of a "second-rate" artist.

"There is, however," we are told, "a sort of art which does not thus deal with Facts; it is not necessarily imitative or representative, being occupied in the actual production of beautiful form and color; and this is Decorative or Abstract Art." Here again is pure fallacy; the art in this sort is the same as the art in the other, so far as it is art; it consists in the treatment of its material and the appeal which it makes to the mind. All art is decorative, but all art is not representative or imitative, and this multiplication of kinds of art only shows that Ruskin did not reach the central idea of art in his definitions or analyses, and that is the reason why he was continually making paradoxes and conflicting definitions. It is difficult to make a partial statement on the subject which we shall not find more or less indicated in some part of his works, and it is always possible to find in some other part a distinct contradiction of it; he gives nowhere the central truth by which we can reconcile his contradictions. Even in his nomenclature is continual fallacy, as when he talks of the rank of the arts—Symbolic, Imitative, Imaginative, etc., etc.; and Mr. Collingwood, in his attempts to reduce the Ruskinian system to a logical shape, only succeeds in making the matter more perplexing. Thus, he summarizes the idea of Ruskin in, "A great master is one who has great scholars, but Michaelangelo and Raphael, Titian, Veronese, and Tintoret entirely failed to teach their art"; therefore, they were not great masters. But a great master may chance not to find pupils able to follow him; does it follow that he is not a great master? The fact is, however, that Titian had several pupils who were admirable painters; Michaelangelo, one, Scalza, who was a very able sculptor; and if Giulio Romano was not to Mr. Ruskin's or our taste, he was a very powerful painter, who failed in sincerity, not in instruction.

Ruskin has said many things that are hardly to be denied; among these is the saying that "sound criticism of art is impossible to young men." But the book of all he has ever written which has produced the greatest effect on the public mind with relation to its art tendencies is the 'Modern Painters,' begun when he was twenty-two, and the later volumes of which, written years afterwards, have never produced a considerable modification of the judgments imposed by the first, which was that which established his position as a critic.

A reprint of Ruskin with the fine writing left out is a plum-pudding with no fruit, perplexing, contradictory, exasperating, and without a *raison d'être;* and this is Mr. Collingwood's 'Art Teaching of John Ruskin,' made worse by attempts to harmonize and make methodical that which in Ruskin was one of his highest fascinations for his reader—the wayward, capricious eloquence of erratic genius, astray in the garden of Nature, winged and free as *Ariel* after *Prospero's* wand was broken. To break him to common sense or rule is to put *Ariel* in harness; it cannot, fortunately, be done.

The Battle of Gettysburg, 1863. By Samuel Adams Drake. Boston: Lee & Shepard. Sq. 16mo, pp. 178.

Mr. Drake's effort has been to prepare a popular version of the story of the great battle of the first three days of July, 1863. He makes no reference to authorities, but tells the tale currently, fluently, with well-arranged grouping of incidents and with literary skill. The historical merit of the work must be gauged by the faithfulness with which the author adheres to the facts which are established by the concurrence of the best authorities. The greater the literary merit, the greater will be the mischief done to the truth of history if the facts are perverted. The besetting temptation in popular writing is to heighten color and contrast by making much of dramatic incidents. The stock anecdotes of history are notoriously unreliable, yet the weakest of them are reproduced in popular works with the regularity of stage "gags."

In all the larger elements of the story of Gettysburg, Mr. Drake's narrative is faithful to the accepted facts, and well combines a lively style with adherence to truth. There are some points, however, in which, by accepting a version ill supported, or by incorrect conclusions as to matters of conjecture, he has fallen into error, and, so far, given his assistance to building up mythical features in the history of the battle. He describes Lee as going in person to Ewell, on the evening of the 1st of July, to see if the latter, whose corps was the extreme left of the Confederate Army and enveloped Cemetery Hill, could not carry this important point. A long conversation is reported, in which the plan is debated, the discussion ending in Lee's deciding to make his attack next day by Longstreet's corps on the extreme right of the Confederates. Lee is represented as adding, "but he is so slow," speaking as if the admission were made in spite of himself.

We here are assisting at the growth of a myth. Lee did not visit Ewell at all that day or evening, and there was, of course, no such conversation. The reports of Lee and Ewell, the circumstantial account given by Longstreet, and that of Col. Long, who personally accompanied Lee as a member of his staff that afternoon, are the authoritative evidence on the subject, and they disprove the theory of such a meeting. Col. Long's memoir of Lee is not friendly to Longstreet, but gives no suggestion of any statement by Lee that Longstreet was generally "slow," but only that Lee was impatient on the 2d of July (the second day of the battle also) that Longstreet's corps did not get earlier into action. All that Lee is even then reported to have said means no more than Wellington's impatience at Blücher's delay at Waterloo. In each case nothing more was probably meant than that the delay was unfortunate, though the causes of it may have been inevitable. By the suggestion, however, that, in Lee's opinion, Longstreet was habitually slow, the reader is led to judge that a well-laid plan was thus foredoomed to disaster, and by inserting it in an imaginary conversation with Ewell on the preceding evening, an apparent definiteness is given to a dramatic incident likely to stick in the memory.

Another little touch which it is a pity to spoil is Lee's "shaking his clinched fist at Cemetery Hill," after the fighting of the second day was over, when he announced, in spite of Longstreet's remonstrances, his determination to assault again on the morrow, as was done in Pickett's fatal charge. The truth of history requires the correction that it was Lord Marmion who shook his fist at Tantallon's towers, and not Lee at imaginary ramparts in front of Meade's thin lines. Besides, it was not Lee's style.

To continue this ruthless erasure of pretty conceits, Longstreet is pictured, when giving

the signal to Pickett to lead forward his division, as turning away under the mastery of his emotions after he gave the silent nod. Why not complete the scene, after the manner of Racine or Boileau, by making the tears stream through his fingers crossed upon his face? Longstreet, no doubt, says that he indicated his unwillingness to give the order by the silence of his signal, but he rode forward to a commanding point, where he might lose nothing of the sight, and, dismounting, sat on a fence watching every phase in the struggle, discussing it with Col. Freemantle, the English visitor, directing the movements of the artillery, and fulfilling his duties as responsible commander on that part of the field. The "turning away" is in the romantic style, but intelligent people are learning to like reality better.

On the national side Gen. Sickles is made the scapegoat. His occupation of the advanced line along the Emmittsburg road has been so often criticised that Mr. Drake cannot be blamed for taking the unfavorable view of it; but why blacken the shadows in the drawing by saying that "Yesterday he had not been able to convince himself that it would be right to move his corps out of line even that he might go to the aid of his immediate chief, and when his doing so would have saved the day"? Certainly, if there has been general assent to anything in the story of Gettysburg, it has been that Sickles on "yesterday" (the first day) had been preëminent above others for marching to the sound of the cannon without stickling as to technical orders. It is a queer inversion of justice when the man most free from blame on that score is the only one mentioned as faulty. The reason is a literary one. The picture will not be strong enough without it. As Longstreet's "slowness" was a trait to heighten the color there, so Sickles's "wavering" must be used here. Accumulating evidence has been reopening the question whether Sickles even erred in occupying the Emmittsburg road, as candid persons will be likely to admit who read the paper by Col. Rafferty in the lately published proceedings of the Loyal Legion.

It is a most wholesome thing in the literary progress of our time that moderation and self-restraint in historical writing are more and more demanded. The historian is called upon to tell what is known, not what is conjectured. He is required above all to be absolutely faithful to his materials, and to discriminate between those that are trustworthy and those that are not. If history, to be true, must be dull, the truth is still demanded, though there is a growing opinion that it will not be dull when the acts and motives of men in great epochs are so fully examined that we may make them live before us as real persons, with their own nature, and not some ideal one that does not fit them.

Egypt under the Pharaohs: A History derived entirely from the Monuments. By Heinrich Brugsch-Bey. A new edition condensed and thoroughly revised by M. Brodrick. With maps, plans, and illustrations. London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891. 8vo, pp. xxviii, 469.

The chief advantage and improvement in the present form of this volume, apart from the reduced price, is in the fact that the amount of letter-press is one-half less than in the two-volume second edition of eleven years ago. The editor informs us that he has attempted to retain all the facts, but to tell the story in fewer words. Such condensation is commendable, and by no means difficult; but as some of the views of the original writer have been quietly suppressed and others substituted, we are necessarily left in some doubt as to the degree of authenticity which attaches to the book as a whole. There is no intimation that the condensation is in any way authorized. Upon the whole, however, the book thus far may be considered as an improvement upon its predecessors.

That for which Brugsch is best known in some minds is the theory of the route of the exodus which he has advocated, and which many suppose that he originated, though it was really propounded and published more than a generation before he was born. The identifications upon which this theory rested were set forth at length in the body of the 'History,' and the whole expanded in an appendix. Since Naville's excavations at Maskhutah, by which he identified Pithom, Succoth, and Heroöpolis, Brugsch and his followers have been compelled to abandon their former view. Consequently, the whole presentation of the subject should have been radically modified. But besides dropping the appendix referred to, the work of condensation has gone on in utter disregard of the new facts in the case. This is an extreme instance of the mechanical character of the work done by the editor.

Some additions of greater or less importance have been made to the volume. One of these is a list of the principal Egyptian kings with their cartouches. The addition is of value, but the effect of the hieroglyphic writing is far from pleasant, as it is in the solid black character made familiar in the dictionary which Birch furnished for the fifth volume of the English translation of Bunsen's 'Egypt's Place in Universal History.' The volume also contains some new maps. One of these, "Sketch Map of Dynasties," is a useful addition. The "Map of Lower Egypt" is inferior in execution to the old one in the former edition of the 'History,' while as an indication of our present knowledge of sites and localities in the Delta it is of little value on account of its composite character. It is made up in part from the old map and in part from the results of the excavations of Naville and Petrie under the auspices of the Egypt Exploration Fund. The result is a hodge-podge, self-contradictory, misleading, and in part untrue. The case is similar to that cited in the preceding paragraph. Disregarding the results of Naville's excavations, which established the *identity of location* of the cities there mentioned, we find Succoth indicated, as in the old map, just east of Tanis near the edge of Lake Menzaleh, and also, following Naville, at a point just west of Lake Timsah in the Wadi Tumilat, midway of the Isthmus. Heroöpolis, on the other hand, is placed a short distance northeast of Suez near the present head of the Red Sea, just as it was in the former map. In this Brugsch, without regard to the view now common and gaining in acceptance, that in early times the northerly extent of the sea was greater than at present, followed an erroneous interpretation of the words of Strabo, according to whom the western branch of the Red Sea was called the Gulf of Heroöpolis. Thus instead of correcting this blunder, the editor has simply perpetuated it. Similarly and most absurdly the Khetam or fortress of Succoth is located near Pelusium, just where Brugsch put it. The land of Goshen is pushed too far to the north and is on the wrong branch of the Nile. No notice is taken of Naukratis, though the discovery of its site is one of the most important of the past decade. There can be little wonder that it is found impossible to say much in praise of this singular piece of cartography. The editor has also added a list of the nomes, or districts, in which he gives the names in their Egyptian (transliterated) and Greek forms. In the former there are three gross errors in the use of a single letter, *t'* (pronounced *tz*, not *ch*,-p. viii.), which is substituted for *th*. For this blunder Brugsch is not responsible. Tables giving the Egyptian calendar and a list of "values and prices" from about 1000 B. C. are reprinted from the old plates, but without the notes which the former editor deemed necessary. The index has also undergone a very vigorous condensation. In place of seventy-four columns we now have only twenty-six. Far more entries are necessary to make this part of the book satisfactory. One looks in vain for many points of interest, and even the names of some of the kings cannot be found.

The vice of the former edition is apparent in this also, in that we frequently find positive statements of geographical fact where it is impossible to go beyond conjecture. Exploration and excavation, the camera, the measuring tape, and diligent study of inscription and papyrus will all be needed for many a year to come, before we shall be in a position to state certainly for fact all that our author asserts most calmly and confidently.

The Use and Abuse of Money. By W. Cunningham, D.D. [University Extension Manuals.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

Dr. Cunningham has an engaging style, and he has chosen an interesting subject. It is to be presumed, we suppose, from the series in which his book appears, that it is intended for somewhat uncultivated and immature minds, and it is therefore not proper to criticise it on account of its repetitions and restatements, since these may render it more easily assimilable. It is not all books, as Bacon assures us, that require to be "chewed and inwardly digested." But this reason does not seem to be of a kind to justify the introduction of a disquisition upon the "hypothetical" and the "empirical" methods in political economy. Dr. Cunningham complains that this science is based upon the assumption of the "facts of human nature and of the physical world," whereas the facts of human nature are continually changing. We need not dispute this assertion, but we do not find it easy to conceive a science of political economy that is not based upon the facts of human nature; and Dr. Cunningham encounters the same difficulty, for he immediately proceeds to give an investigation of these facts as an illustration of the "empirical" method. We cannot but regard it as unfortunate that he should not have explicitly referred to the fundamental truths relating to the method of social science so lucidly expounded by Mill in his 'Logic.'

Nor does it seem to us wise, as the aim of the book is primarily a moral one, to attempt to supersede the accepted use of the term capital. Dr. Cunningham adopts this course because he considers that "as we talk about it at the present day" a man's capital is understood to be a fund of wealth from which he expects to get an income. "This is what is meant by the word in ordinary conversation," he says, and at once proceeds to condemn the established definition on the ground that it may "suffice for popular talk," but must be discarded "if we wish for scientific accuracy." According to the author, it follows from this definition of

capital that it can exist only where money is generally known, that without habitual commerce and the use of a medium of exchange it cannot be formed, that it may be engaged in commerce or regularly employed for lending in lands where it is never used in connection with agriculture or industry, and that there are some societies in which there is no capital at all. It follows also, we may add, that a gambler who stakes his money on a turn of the cards is a capitalist. With reference to the origin of capital, Dr. Cunningham declares that the chief motive for saving is the desire to have a reserve fund, and that accumulation might continue unchecked even if the rate of interest were merely nominal. These propositions incline us to the opinion that the method of political economy employed by the author should be called rather conjectural than empirical, and we are confirmed in this opinion by the statements that agricultural communities have no roads or other means of communication, and that the farmer can by no means make the process of production more rapid.

In spite of defects like these, much that Dr. Cunningham has to say about capital is instructive and interesting. He argues calmly but forcibly against the views represented by Marx, and is extremely guarded in his judgments of the sins and omissions of capitalists. In fact, we have never seen a better exposition of the evils of regarding the motes in our brothers' eyes than is given in his chapter on social ideals. We may, he observes, frame our ideal for man in terms of his surroundings, or we may frame it in terms that concern him. To picture possible surroundings is simply to let the imagination run riot, for these surroundings, if once realized, could be maintained only by the diligence and self-restraint of men. Hence, ideals of personal character are the only practical ones, for the externals will be added unto these. Those who make their ideal an external one are prone to look for its realization not to their own action, but to that of others; whereas "if our ideal is framed in terms of personal motive, we shall begin by seeing that our own motives are right, and we shall be disinclined to waste our time in criticising the conduct of those who are in other circumstances than ours, and of whose motives and shortcomings we cannot judge." We cordially commend this volume to the consideration of those of our bishops and other clergy who have been led astray by the doctrine that Socialism and Christianity are the same thing.

My Personal Experiences in Equatorial Africa as Medical Officer of the Emin Pasha Relief Expedition. By Thos. Heazle Parke. With map and numerous illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891. Pp. xxvii., 526, 8vo.

Mr. Stanley's choice of a medical officer for his last expedition was singularly fortunate. Surgeon Parke, though a young man, had already had much professional experience in Africa, having amid other duties served with distinction in the campaign against Arabi Pasha and in the Nile Expedition for the relief of Khartum. More valuable, possibly, than this experience, both to himself and his companions, was a temperament which enabled him to bear the greatest trials with equanimity and good humor. His journal, though full of the most painful details of sufferings, is strikingly free from complaints. A prey for months together to fever and inanition, living in huts swarming with vermin, and in close and constant contact with people of inconceivably repulsive habits and rotting away with disease, his cheerfulness never wholly forsakes him. To this sunny disposition was joined a remarkably self-sacrificing devotion to those under his care, according to their unanimous testimony, from Mr. Stanley himself to Emin Pasha, whose first conscious word after his well-nigh fatal fall at Bagamoyo was a call for "Parke."

The most interesting part of his work, which is mainly an unaltered transcript of his notebooks, is that relating to the experiences in the great forest. These are told far more vividly in his simple narrative, written from day to day, than in Mr. Stanley's labored description. Dr. Parke's is, in fact, the only account of the sufferings of the men at Ipoto and Fort Bodo, the most distressing episode in the history of the expedition, with the exception of that of the rear column. At the former place he was for three months the virtual prisoner of a band of the "cannibal slaves of slaves" of Arab slave-hunters. It would be difficult in all the annals of human suffering to surpass the horrors of this situation, the details of which are only too faithfully given in the diary. Here more than half of the Zanzibari carriers left with him perished from starvation, disease, and cannibalism, while he and his only white companion, Capt. Nelson, were brought again and again to the brink of the grave by their hardships. Only less dreadful were the six months spent at Fort Bodo waiting for the arrival of the rear column, where the forced inaction was not the least of the trials of which fever, hunger, and filthy surroundings were the chief elements.

Apart from his record of these wretched days and of his professional attempts to alleviate the misery of his companions, Dr. Parke's book contains little worthy of especial note. He carefully avoids entering into any of the controversies aroused by 'In Darkest Africa,' though he is in substantial accord with Mr. Stanley in all important points. There are comparatively few references to native life and customs, or to the natural history of the country traversed. The individuals, however, with whom he had personally to do, are often well described. Especially interesting is his account of the pigmy woman whose freedom he bought "for a handful of beans, twelve cups of rice, and six cups of corn," and who served him for more than a year with the greatest devotion, both as a nurse in his frequent fevers and as a food-provider in the forest. Emin Pasha is precisely the same interesting, though inexplicable and trying, personage with whom Stanley and Jephson have made us familiar, a strange mixture of strength and weakness, but singularly winning withal. The most striking figure is, of course, Mr. Stanley himself, and Dr. Parke gives in some respects a stronger impression of his wonderful capacity as a leader than any previous writer. In his closing pages he pays a remarkable tribute to him, evidently sincere and frankly truthful, which we regret that we have not the space to quote in full.

There are numerous little graphic touches in the journal which lighten its somewhat monotonous and often dismal record of hardships, and not a few fine descriptive passages, as for instance the account of the arrival of the rear column at Fort Bodo and the execution of the deserter Rehan. The special contributions to science consist of accounts of the various diseases from which the expedition suffered, and their treatment, and chapters on bacteriology and the arrow-poison of the dwarfs, the ingredients of which were revealed to him by his pigmy attendant. The illustrations of the volume are rather poor, with some few exceptions, such as the two charming sketches of children by Mrs. Stanley.

The Lily of the Arno; or, Florence, Past and Present. By Virginia W. Johnson. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

"The world does not require so much to be informed as to be reminded," is the motto Miss Virginia Johnson has chosen for her 'Lily of the Arno,' and she seems to have very faithfully adhered to her text by giving her work the form of a personal narrative of impressions received during a sufficiently long stay in Florence. Those who have carried away bright memories of the City of Flowers will find much to charm them in the handsome volume bearing the scarlet Florentine lily on its face. It is full of vivid descriptions of living, moving Florentines of to-day at their work and at their play, of their feast days and fast days. Most of these impressionist pictures are seen by our author from her window in the street of the watermelon (del Cocomero), now called Via Ricasoli, leading from the Piazza of St. Mark to the Cathedral. The window is situated, therefore, in a closely populated part of the city, from which characteristic habits of neighbors can be observed—the vegetable woman across the way, the vender of wood and charcoal occupying a cellar in the palace wall, the dealer in old books in a small shop beyond, and an antiquarian opposite. These neighbors, with their belongings, serve to give local color and to illustrate the manner of life of the poorer classes, their children, their cats and other tame pets.

With genuine enthusiasm for the past, Miss Johnson's days are spent in churches, galleries, museums. She never fails to blend with her descriptions of works of art or ancient monuments their histories, the anecdotes or romances connected with them. Vasari seems to be the source of information from which she has chiefly drawn her lives of the Florentine artists, for she repeats many of the tales about them long ago shown to be fables—for instance, that of Fra Filippo Lippi and the abduction of the nun Spinetta Buti, considered by modern critics a base calumny; or again, what she says of Botticelli, that he left off painting after the burning of Savonarola, and would have starved in old age but for the bounty of the Medici. These inaccuracies are hardly pardonable even in a work which simply skims history, biography, romance, and legend as they concern the subject written of. Moreover, throughout these pages there is a painful lack of clearness of style: the book abounds in passages of incoherent and overloaded diction, as in the case of the Campanile of Giotto:

"To the more modest artistic tourist, red guide-book in hand, this revelation of the beautiful must ever be the wayside sacrament of Canon Kingsley, to be treasured in remembrance for the remainder of life; sharing the reveries of the pipe in some tranquil German town; gleaming swiftly in a displaced photograph on the table during the long winter night of Scandinavia; checking for a moment the rapid current of Western life, as if a spray of Dante's purple black lilies were held across the path of the American in guise of magician's wand."

There is an abuse of "fine writing" throughout—an accumulation of adjectives, a wearisome repetition of questions never meant to be answered. It is as if the author had jotted down all her thoughts in a note-book and had translated them, without any particular order or method, into the most involved language the

English tongue is capable of. Speaking of ancient customs still prevalent (page 17), Miss Johnson says:

"Does the father and bread-winner of the family sicken of fever in the autumn, imbibed from the mouldy well of the court adjacent to his cobbler's stall, or the son, an apprentice to the trade of mosaic-worker, whose nights are devoted to strolling about the streets, twanging guitar and mandolin, in company with other youth, and slender, sallow daughter, clad in flimsy gown for the Sunday walk along the Arno bank to the cascine in the piercing *tramontane* wind, suffer a lung congestion—the frequent *mal di petto?* There is the hospital ready to receive them, founded by worthy Folco Portinari, father of Dante's Beatrice, at the suggestion of his servant, Monna Tessa, whose presence in ward and cloister seems to still smile benevolently on each new comer to her precincts."

There is much repetition. The book would have gained had it been judiciously pruned. It struck us that cats had been continually turning up in every part of the book, and we find on consulting the index that they have been written of no less than fifteen times. The illustrations of the chief buildings throughout the work are in collotype.

One Summer in Hawaii. By Helen Mather. 12mo. Cassell Publishing Co. 1891.

THE fascination of Hawaii for tourists is pretty well proved by the long sequence of books which describe the wanderings of pleasure-seekers and of commercial or scientific tourists who have set foot of recent years upon those pleasant shores. The present volume is the latest recital of a leisurely traveller who was advised to "take a run down to the islands," and thought the trip would be like going down from New York to Coney Island; but whose good intentions were not dashed by learning that one had to "run down" two thousand miles into the Pacific to be landed at Honolulu. Mrs. Mather's trip, made during the summer of 1890, included visits to the islands of Oahu and the capital, Honolulu; to Maui and its great extinct crater of Haleakala; and on Hawaii, an island as large as the State of Connecticut, to the active crater of Kilauea, and to the beautiful bay and village of Hilo.

This ground our writer covers with steps that may be followed with ease and pleasure; and her record has fewer errors in the drawing than is usual in a summer tourist's book. We note one inaccurate description—that of the surf-players who ride in upon the front of the billows; and the cut that accompanies the text is equally misleading. But the descriptions of Honolulu and of the Pali are especially vivid; and many pleasant glimpses are given of the late King, Kalakaua, with whom Mrs. Mather exchanged courtesies. The most amusing thing in the book is the account of a practical joke which Kalakaua played, in a lighter mood, upon one of his guests. The visitor was gambolling in the surf at Waikiki, quite in the South-Sea fashion, with a group of Hawaiian nymphs, when the King struck despair to his heart by sending him word of the sudden arrival upon the scene of his wife. A figure, fierce as Megæra, appeared upon a distant balcony; Kalakaua hurried away to act as peacemaker; and after a particularly *mauvais quart d'heure* of suspense, the jealous wife on the balcony turned out to be a stuffed dummy, prepared to personate the indignant spouse. The story has a pleasantly recognizable note for those who were acquainted with the genial King; for Kalakaua was a laughter-loving as well as a capable sovereign.

Mrs. Mather has illustrated her very readable volume with vignette woodcuts and with "process" photographs, which give some idea of the exquisite beauty of town and country in these islands. The book is handsomely printed, and the typographical errors are at a minimum. The whole forms a bright picture of Hawaii as it is to-day, and of its rapidly changing and developing society. The author calls attention to a fact that is too little borne in mind by seekers for health or pleasure. The Hawaiian climate is sub-tropical, not torrid. The islands, bathed in an ocean current that never varies much from 70° Fahrenheit, are wholly exempt from excessive heat and from violent winds. For the combined attractions of climate, scenery, and good society, it would be hard to name another region, in the tropics or out of them, that should outdo this paradise of temperate sunshine.

The New World and the New Book: An Address delivered before the Nineteenth Century Club of New York City, January 15, 1891; with kindred essays. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1891.

THE kinship which binds these essays together must be sought for in the declaration of our independence. The various papers make a chapter in our glorification. Their burden is that we are no longer colonial, and have long ceased to be so, though we are slow in recognizing the fact. This text is illustrated with much interesting information and spirited comment. There is hardly any phase of the long-vexed proposition which one does not come upon first or last in these pages, and that American must be deeply tinged with the English drop in his blood who does not end their perusal with a feeling of satisfaction, not to say complacency, which does not suffer, however, if it be touched with something akin to humor. It would appear, to adopt the author's simile, that Robinson Crusoe has pretty well furnished himself from the "wreck," and is now in a position to apply to the Old World the remedy for its ills which Carlyle once suggested for the unhappy state of Ireland. The only use which the author seems to find for Europe is to furnish delegates for that Congress of the world's literature which, in his judgment, should still hold in its hands the final verdict of excellence; but, on the other hand, this Congress seems to exist only that America should have a place in it. Whether these things are so will, of course, still continue to be questioned, but whoever would furnish himself with happy instances, brilliant paradox, clever flank movements, and similar resources of the controversial conversationalist, will find Col. Higginson's book an arsenal all in perfect condition for immediate warfare on the Anglomaniac who is unfortunate enough to encounter him.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adam, James. The Nuptial Number of Plato; its Solution and Significance. London: C. J. Clay & Sons: New York; Macmillan. $1.10.
Allen, Grant. The Duchess of Powysland. Boston: Benj. R. Tucker. 35 cents.
Almanach de Gotha, 1892. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Browning, Oscar. Dante: His Life and Writings. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Browning, Oscar. Goethe: His Life and Writings. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.: New York Macmillan. 90 cents.
Byars, W. M. The Tempting of the King. St. Louis C. W. Alban & Co.
Carus, Paul. Homilies of Science. Chicago: The *Open Court* Publishing Co. $1.50.
Castlemon, H. True to His Colors. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Chambers's Encyclopædia. New ed. Vol. VIII. Peasant to Roumilia. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Clarke, Rev. J. F. The Lord's Prayer: Last Eight Discourses. Boston: American Unitarian Association.
Collins, J. C. The Study of English Literature. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Cunningham, Sir H. S. Earl Canning. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Dobson, Austin. Goldsmith's Citizen of the World. [The Temple Library.] 2 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Florence, W. J. The Gentleman's Hand-Book on Poker. George Routledge & Sons.
Ford, W. C. The Writings of George Washington. Vol. XII, 1790—1794. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Gordon, H. L. The Feast of the Virgins, and Other Poems. Chicago: Laird & Lee. $1.50.
Graham, P. A. Nature in Books: Some Studies in Biography. London: Methuen & Co.
Gunsaulus, Rev. F. W. Phillias, and Other Poems. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Habberton, John. The Chautauquans. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.25.
Hervey, M. H. Dark Days in Chile: An Account of the Revolution of 1891. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Macmillan. $3.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 14, 1892.

The Week.

SECRETARY BLAINE on Thursday sent notes to the diplomatic representatives of Austria-Hungary, Colombia, Hayti, Nicaragua, Honduras, Spain (for the Philippine Islands), and Venezuela, informing them that the President considered the duties imposed by their respective Governments on certain products of the United States "reciprocally unequal and unreasonable," in view of the admission by the United States, free of duty, of sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides; and that unless this reciprocal inequality and unreason was removed before the 15th of March next, the President would on that day issue his proclamation suspending the free introduction of sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, etc., from those countries, and imposing on them the duties prescribed by section 3 of the McKinley Bill. This section puts—under these circumstances—on all sugar below 13 Dutch standard in color, seven-tenths of one cent per pound; on all sugars above 13 and under 16 Dutch standard, one and three-eighths cents per pound; on all sugars above 16 and under 20, one and five-eighths cents per pound; on all sugars above 20, two cents per pound; on molasses, four cents a gallon; on coffee, three cents per pound; on tea, ten cents per pound; and on hides, one and a half cents per pound. It will be observed that these duties have to be paid by American consumers. They will be added to the price of sugar, tea, coffee, shoes and other leather goods. In other words, they will be fines inflicted on American citizens by Presidential proclamation, in order to punish certain citizens of foreign countries for "being reciprocally unjust and unreasonable." It would be hard to surpass this in absurdity. We do not believe it ever has been surpassed in absurdity. Its perpetration is made possible by the long habit, on which the whole protectionist system is built up, of regarding the products of human industry not as things to be consumed, but as things to sell, and the privilege of selling as far transcending in importance the privilege of eating, drinking, and wearing. This vicarious punishment inflicted on Americans for sins committed by foreigners, taken in connection with the gospel of dearness preached by the President and Messrs. Reed, Lodge, McKinley & Co. in the last year, makes a Republican political economy the most fatuous and interesting jumble of modern times.

We have no idea, however, that American consumers and manufacturers will submit to be punished by proclamation for offences committed by Venezuelans, Colombians, Haytians, Nicaraguans, Hondurans, and other "dagoes." The leather men of New England are not in the mood just now for allowing the Republican philosophers to play the fool at their expense. "There are judges in Berlin," as the Potsdam miller told Frederick, and the right of the President to lay taxes on his own countrymen in order to plague bad people in other countries is now being contested in the courts. The taxes deserve to be known as "Harrison's taxes." The President will be entitled to all the credit or shame of them, because the Act lays on his judgment alone, against all Constitutional precedent, the responsibility of imposing them. The very phrase which does this indicates the muddled state of mind of the drafters of the law. No man can be "reciprocally unequal and unreasonable" all by himself. The word "reciprocally" indicates that there is and must be another man who is exchanging inequality and unreason with him. Who is the reciprocating rascal in this case?

Judge-Advocate Remy is conducting an investigation into the Valparaiso outrage, at San Francisco, where the *Baltimore* now is. It is, of course, entirely *ex parte*. Nobody represents at it the Chilian authorities, police, or mob, and the Judge-Advocate conducts it alone. Its character may be judged of from the report of Medical Inspector Cook of the *Baltimore*, who, reporting on the case of Riggan, one of the crew, who was killed, after describing the wounds, says that one was inflicted by a rifle-ball, and that "the liberty party were assaulted in at least six different localities simultaneously," and "the work was apparently premeditated." A doctor who can make an induction of this kind from a post-mortem examination must be so clever a man that to leave him in the position of a navy surgeon is a crime against humanity. From a post-mortem examination of the other man who was killed, Coalheaver Turnbull, the same doctor reached the conclusion that "the attack was apparently premeditated, and inspired by hostility which a portion of the Chilian people entertain towards Americans." There is, however, in spite of these absurdities, nothing improper in the investigation, unless it is set up diplomatically as a reason for disregarding the findings of the Chilian court. There is some danger that something of this sort may be done. There is an evident disposition to treat the proceedings in the Chilian courts as worthy of respect if they are in accordance with, but farcical if they differ from, the evidence given here by the crew of the *Baltimore*. We have nothing from Chili as yet but the result of the secret preliminary investigation, equivalent to our investigation by the Grand Jury, and the presentation of indictments by the Public Prosecutor. The case has still to be tried by the "Judge of Crimes." If he finds that the assault was an unprovoked one, was made in three different directions by a large mob headed by Chilian police and soldiers, all will be well. But we fear if he finds that the police and soldiers did not head it, and that nobody was guilty except those who were indicted, there will be great reluctance at Washington to accept the decision as final, even if accompanied with an apology.

There is said to be a violent difference between the President and Mr. Blaine on this subject, Mr. Blaine inclining to peace and moderation, and the President longing to use the Army and Navy, and being very indifferent to the contrast between the Chilian proceedings in this matter and ours in the New Orleans massacre. If the President continues warlike, too, he is likely to get the support of the whole Republican press; the interest of the party in getting plenty of money to spend on the Navy during the next nine months being very strong, and the naval officers being very eager to try their new ships, and the issue of the war being certain. Then there is nothing like a war for increasing "sales" and making a market for sensations. Moreover, a vigorous effort is now being made to get England into the affair by showing that England is interested in exciting Chilian hostility to us, and that if we conquered Chili, we should root out British commerce in that quarter, and sell a great deal to the Chilians and buy nothing. The continued absence of any recognition of any principles of international law or morality applicable to the affair continues. Nobody would suspect from reading the newspapers that there was any rule governing the intercourse of nations except force, or that there was any way of deciding international disputes, except the submission of the little nation to the big one, after a count of guns and ships. We seem to be as free, judging from our press, in the use of our strength as Barbary pirates or Buccaneers. There was a paragraph in Sunday's *Tribune* ridiculing "the namby-pamby patriots" who "are disturbed by Washington despatches in relation to naval preparations," and whose "pusillanimity on foreign policy" is immeasurable, which might have been written by an Algerine corsair to somebody trying to dissuade him from going on a cruise. "The type," says this silly but ferocious marine ruffian,

> "of a naval cruiser which would suit them is a toy model to be launched in a private bath-tub; and if there were a tiny American flag at the masthead they would take the precaution of locking the bath-room door and pulling down the window shades."

The House of Representatives rejected by a decisive majority the resolution of the Senate appropriating $100,000 to pay the cost of freight on contributions of food to the famine-stricken people of Russia. With every desire to help those poor people and other poor people in Japan, Mexico, and elsewhere, we still think that the House has acted rightly, both from the constitutional and the economical point of view. Congress is not in the habit of appropriating money for the relief of even our own people, and, although a resolution like that which passed the Senate is not unprecedented, yet it is more honored in the breach than in the observance. Mr. John De Witt Warner hit the nail on the head when he said that the best way to relieve the poor people in Russia was to sell the food contributions here and cable the money to Russia. That is a practical, prompt, and effective way to help the needy. Loading ships and sending them across the Atlantic, through the Mediterranean, the Bosphorus, and the Black Sea, makes a spectacle indeed, and may possibly incite other people to follow the example of the donors, but it may well be doubted whether the dollar so contributed will go as far as a dollar in money put into the hands of Count Tolstoi, for example. There is no lack of food in Russia. In fact, there is an excess in certain parts and a deficiency in others. What is wanted is money to buy the excess and distribute it to those who have none.

Congressman Dockery was well within the facts last week when he said in the House that it was clear from Secretary Foster's reports that $65,000,000 of the appropriations for the last fiscal year and the first half of this had gone unpaid. Indeed, he might have put the case much more strongly. In the six months ending December 31 the Treasury expenditures were $86,000,000 less than the amount called for by existing laws—$176,018,751, against appropriations at the rate of $262,500,000 in the half year. It ill becomes the party which has brought the Treasury into such straits to make fun of even the pettiest economy practised by a Democratic House. Whatever the affluent Republican editors may say, Secretary Foster will welcome every dollar that can be saved for him. The revenue from customs runs on at disappointingly low figures, having amounted to $85,722,000 in the past six months, as compared with $124,240,000 in the same part of 1890. At this rate, Mr. Foster's estimate for the entire fiscal year will turn out $14,000,000 too great. This would make a pretty big hole in his estimated surplus of $24,000,000, even if that were not figured out on the absurd basis of expenses put at no more than $409,000,000; in the *Tribune* itself he might have learned that the appropriations for the current fiscal year are $116,000,000 greater than that sum.

Senator Morgan of Alabama brought the Nicaragua Canal forward as an object of national concern last week by a resolution directing the Committee on Foreign Relations to make an investigation into its present condition and prospects, financial and other. The Committee is also to consider and report what in its opinion the interests of the United States may require in respect of said canal. Probably the Committee will report in favor of the bill that was before the Senate last year, or with some amendment giving a larger bonus to the present shareholders; but it is not at all likely that such a bill will pass Congress at this session. There is too much money in it. Certainly, the Democrats had best be wary how they vote the credit of the United States, to the extent of $100,000,000, into the hands of their political opponents just before a Presidential election. There is much to be said in favor of the Nicaragua Canal and in favor of the Government's control over it, but it will not "get away" in the course of the next nine or ten months, and the intervening time may be profitably spent in investigation.

Since Senator Teller has taken the initiative in moving for a new international monetary conference, we may assume that the resolution he has offered, or something equivalent to it, will pass both houses of Congress. Mr. Teller is the head and front of the Republican silver faction. He is in general agreement, on the money question, with Mr. Bland, who is the head and front of the Democratic silver faction. They represent sufficient strength in both Senate and House to pass the resolution, and it is not likely that they will meet with any resistance except possibly among Republicans like Senator Sherman, who would like to keep the silver debate hot during the Presidential campaign. The first thought that occurs to a careful observer of the silver craze in its different stages is that the call for international action comes now from the free coinage men, whereas heretofore they either have been opposed to it or have sneered at it. Their maxim hitherto has been the famous one of Stanley Matthews: "What have we to do with Abroad?" They have looked upon international conferences as dodges to gain time. They have also considered our assent and participation in such conferences as a kind of sanction of the idea that free coinage by separate action would be unwise if not futile. An international conference, moreover, always implies an international ratio, which must be fixed by a majority vote, and may not happen to be our ratio of 16 to 1. But if our ratio were not agreeable to the majority, what would become of the "dollar of the fathers"? Who would be able after that to denounce the rascals who stealthily and secretly deprived us of this revered coin in 1873?

President Harrison's nomination of Judge Lindsay of Kentucky as one of the Inter-State Commerce Commission is remarkable for the fact that the announcement was a surprise to the appointee, inasmuch as he had been in no sense an applicant for the office. His admirable fitness for the place is conceded by both parties, so that it was really a case where the office sought the man. This is coming to be a rare thing in our politics. Witness the recent scramble of a dozen Kansas politicians for the Senate seat left vacant by Mr. Plumb's death, and the necessity laid upon Mr. Sherman of going to Columbus, opening "headquarters," and working for himself with all his might, in order to secure a reëlection to the Senate. Judge Lindsay must be a dreadfully "old-fashioned" sort of a man.

Mr. Cleveland's speech to the Business Men's Democratic Club on Friday night was chiefly remarkable for his vigorous denunciation of "shifty schemes," "insincere professions," "political manœuvring," "political riddles," "conundrums," and "doubtful phrases." He reminded all those who are expecting to win the next Presidential election by the art of intrigue and feats of hermeneutics, that however enjoyable and successful these processes may be in the little circles which carry them on, the day comes when the party must "meet face to face the voters of the land," and these voters demand "a plain and simple statement of political purpose." In other words, no man can be juggled into the Presidential chair, except in the way in which the Republicans won it in 1876—a performance which the Democrats cannot hope to repeat. Any Democrat who wins this year must rely on his principles, and must be able to state these principles in language which the plain people can understand. How splendidly the Republicans, for instance, got along among themselves in the House with their explanation of the way the McKinley Bill was going to benefit the country by making all the dear things cheap, and all the cheap things dear, and by putting the blessing of dearness within every poor man's reach; but what rags and tatters were made of their theories when the tricksters who compounded them came face to face with the voters at the polls. What a different person, for instance, ex-Speaker Reed appeared to the human eye on the 5th of November, 1890, from what he appeared on the 4th of November in the same year. What a different aspect all his little dodges, quips, and quirks wore. Into what thin air Lodge's dialectics were dissolved. We trust our Democratic metaphysicians will ponder this, and be wise in time.

Mr. Springer gave the Club the very comforting assurance that we shall have no free-coinage bill from this Congress, nor any silver bill which all parts of the country will not be willing to accept; which is the same as saying that we shall

have no silver bill at all. He was equally emphatic and equally comforting in assuring us that no attempt will be made to pass a new tariff bill. Any party which now attempts a complete revision of the tariff is doomed to defeat. Both Democrats and Republicans have made the experiment, and we know with what result. The monstrosities of the McKinley Bill must be attacked in detail, one monstrosity at a time. In this way the country will have the benefit of comparing the respective merits of cheapness and dearness on a small scale. If, for instance, the removal of the wool and clothing duties should cheapen coats, trousers, and blankets to the masses, each man would be able to ascertain by observation of himself, his children, and his neighbors, whether cheap clothing has, as President Harrison and McKinley have alleged, a deteriorating effect on the character of the wearer. If the general experience showed that cheap clothing was really injurious to morals, the restoration of the duties would be easy, and would create no serious industrial disturbance.

When the Democrats got control of the Ohio Legislature, they gerrymandered the State so flagrantly that they secured 14 of the 21 Congressmen at the next election. Now that the Republicans are again in power, some of them want to give the Democrats a dose of their own medicine, and a scheme has been brought forward which would redistrict the State so as to give the Republicans 17 of the 21. But Gov. McKinley has signalized his accession by an earnest protest against such injustice. He characterizes in proper terms the abuse of power committed by the Democrats, but he warns his own party against passing any sort of a measure except one that is fair all around. He says: "Make the districts so fair in their relation to the political divisions of our people that they will stand until a new census shall be taken. Make them so impartial that no future Legislature will dare disturb them until a new census and a new Congressional apportionment will make a change imperative. The districts should be made so as to give the party majority in the State a majority of Representatives, and so arranged that, if the party majority shall change, the Representative majority shall also change." This is the kind of talk that is needed to put a stop to the abuse. It does no good to "arraign" the other party for a gerrymander, and then seize the first opportunity that offers to make a worse one.

The Brazilian despatch the other day, announcing the discontinuance of the existing requirement of consular certification to invoices of imported goods, attracted little attention, although it is really a highly significant step. Under the reciprocity agreement with this country, care had to be taken, of course, that goods nominally coming from the United States and claiming lower rates of duty should have a proper consular guarantee; and, in fact, a plan for securing it was made a part of the agreement. Then it occurred to Fonseca that it would be only fair to extend the same plan of consular certification to imports from all countries, and accordingly he issued a decree on November 21, only a few days before the collapse of his Dictatorship, putting in force for Brazil a very close copy of the McKinley Administrative Bill. The dissatisfaction it caused among merchants engaged in the foreign trade was great, and found general expression as soon as mouths were unmuzzled by Fonseca's fall, and it was not long before the new Government listened to the complaints and rescinded the objectionable measure. Of course the old conditions remain for exports from our country, but with other nations Brazil has declared that she wishes to trade without vexing administrative hindrances.

The "Chadourne incident," which M. Ribot has brought on himself by resenting the expulsion of a French newspaper correspondent from Bulgaria, has reached a stage which makes the French Government a little ridiculous. The French expel newspaper correspondents themselves, as do all the European Powers except England. They have expelled an English correspondent, who was also a member of Parliament, named Cunningham, within a year; so they could not complain of the expulsion of Chadourne on its merits. The point they made was that, Bulgaria being a vassal of the Porte, French citizens living on her soil were covered by the capitulations just as if they lived in Constantinople. Accordingly, when Bulgaria refused any satisfaction, they appealed to the Sultan to discipline the vassal, but the Sultan has grown very wary about meddling in Christian rows. He was not going to offend Germany and Russia by obliging France. Russia, too, showed little interest in the matter, and England and Germany were openly vexed at what seemed a disturbance of the peace. So there was nothing left for M. Ribot but to "break off diplomatic intercourse" with the vassal. This has been done, but nobody seems to care, and least of all the Bulgarians. The moral seems to be that it is very foolish, as the world is now constituted, for any one who has dignity to look after, to make a great fuss over a wrong for which he knows of no remedy.

General Lesczynski, who was a year ago commander of the Ninth German Army Corps, publishes, in the January number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, an article on the military situation in Germany, which the *Mémorial Diplomatique* summarizes in its last issue from advance sheets. The writer, of course, speaks with an authority which his national prepossessions do not seriously lessen. He puts the German Army at the head of the military forces of Europe, owing to its uniformity of training, to the personal character of the officers, and the facilities for filling their places after losses in war afforded by the existence of a highly educated middle class such as no other country possesses. The importance of this last consideration may be estimated from the fact that in the Franco-German war of 1870, which lasted only nine months, the Germans lost over 6,000 officers, which Count von Moltke in his history of the war pronounced irremediable. It was doubtless irremediable as regarded the immediate supply of officers as good as those who had fallen; but the high order of instruction which all classes of Germans receive, and the military spirit with which the whole population is now imbued, would make such a loss far less serious in Germany than in any other European country.

Gen. Lesczynski ridicules the fears excited by the much-talked-of concentration of Russian troops on the German frontier. He says this concentration is a source of danger to Russia rather than to Germany. These troops could not take the field without calling up the reserves, and the difficulty of transporting the reserves to those distant points would be very great, and they would have to pass over long lines of railroad, which would greatly tempt and be very accessible to the German cavalry. As to the French Army, he acknowledges its present excellence in strength and armament and discipline, but says the German organization is more solid, and he counts on a revolution in Paris after any reverse in the field. He eulogizes the Austrian Army, and that of Rumania, but, curiously enough, speaks slightingly of that of Italy, the main use of which, he intimates, would be the detaining of a large French force from the seat of war on the Rhine and on the Polish frontier, where the real contest would be fought out. This, coming from such a source, is cold comfort for the Italians, who have made so many sacrifices for the Triple Alliance. But nothing but a victory over a European force will ever give the Italians a good military reputation after Lissa and Custozza. Both battles, one on sea and one on land, were lost through bad generalship. The defeat at Custozza, where the Italians took the field alone against an Austrian force for the first time after Novara, was particularly provoking, for the behavior of the troops was excellent. But they had to debouch from the hills on a plain, in the presence of the enemy, who swept away the heads of the columns with his splendid cavalry as fast as they showed themselves, and the battle was lost before more than half the Italian force could get into action.

THE DEMOCRATIC HOUSE AND WAR WITH CHILI.

THERE are grave issues pending between the Government at Washington and Chili. That we all know. But neither Congress nor the country can accurately know the cause, occasion, character, and responsibility till all that has been done and said by officials on both sides has been published by one or the other house of Congress, and until the appropriate committee of one or the other house has investigated and reported. The efforts industriously made to promote a "snap judgment" by either Congress or the country, and before the facts have been thus officially placed before the people, are not quite commendable. An illustration is to be seen in the following, found in the Washington correspondence of the *Herald:*

"So conservative a man as Mr. McCreary of Kentucky, a legislator of long experience, who has served for years on the House Foreign Affairs Committee, and who was the Chairman of the Committee in the Fiftieth Congress, said to me to-day: 'The war spirit is very general throughout the country. It is not confined to the young men who have come upon the scene since 1861. I find it quite as prevalent among the soldiers of the North and South who served in the Union and Confederate armies. A million of these men would respond to a call to arms. There would be no trouble about the number of men. The only embarrassment would be whom to select.'"

We all know Mr. McCreary. He has frequently appeared in interviews tending to uphold the plans and contentions of Secretary Blaine. He has been for many years a member of the Foreign Affairs Committee of the House, but was never Chairman excepting during a few weeks after Mr. Belmont became Minister at Madrid. He was not made Chairman by Speaker Crisp, but Mr. Blount, a sound, careful lawyer and experienced member of the Committee, was placed at its head. If one asks himself what Mr. McCreary, a Kentuckian, can, while sitting in Washington, know of the feelings concerning a war with Chili entertained by Northern soldiers who were in the civil war nearly thirty years ago, he will come to a pretty clear perception of the motive and value of Mr. McCreary's opinion, and the propriety of expressing it before he has, as Committeeman, heard or read what the Chilian facts are.

Every cautious and fairly intelligent man will now try to keep it clearly in mind that the present issue between the United States and Chili is complicated by Secretary Blaine's doings, just ten years ago, in the war between Chili and Peru, and by his fad in 1889 that the Irish vote could be won for himself and the Republican party by sending Egan to Chili, under circumstances most irritating to England and to her friends in Chili, whether in or out of diplomacy. Secretary Blaine must be judged in the present complication somewhat by his previous conduct in the State Department, at least until the facts are all spread out and Congress has made all needed inquiry. What did he do in the Chilian-Peruvian war, even after Arthur became President?

One of the questions of December, 1881, was this: Why did Chili suppress the Calderon Government, which the United States had recognized? In order to ascertain, Secretary Blaine sent a special mission to Chili, consisting of Mr. Trescot and Mr. Walker Blaine, and instructed them, on December 1, 1881, to suspend diplomatic intercourse with Chili if she avowed her motive to have been "in consequence of the recognition by the United States." The instructions to Trescot were aptly framed to authorize him to decide in regard to the motives and explanations put forth by Chili, and so to pass on the question of breaking off diplomatic relations between Washington and Santiago. Neither Congress nor the country knew in 1881 of those instructions to Trescot. President Arthur was hoodwinked and did not correctly appreciate their significance.

In the middle of December of 1881, Mr. Blaine retired from the State Department to make room for Mr. Frelinghuysen and Mr. Bancroft Davis. The doings of Mr. Blaine could after that be thoroughly investigated, and it was discovered that Mr. Trescot had gone to Chili with power to bring on a situation calculated and intended to lead to a war between the United States and Chili, and to put our Congress in a condition wherein it must declare or accept war. During the Christmas holidays of 1881, very early and very late work, by day and by night, was done in the State Department by Mr. Blaine's successor, with the result that immediately after New Year's of 1882 President Arthur was by Secretary Frelinghuysen and Senator Edmunds confronted with the fact that, by the authority given to Mr. Trescot, war with Chili was in sight unless Chili explained the Calderon episode and made promises concerning the Cochet and the Landreau claims satisfactory to Mr. Trescot under the note to him from Mr. Blaine of December 16, 1881. When President Arthur appreciated the situation, he ordered that a cable be sent to Mr. Trescot countermanding, in effect, the Blaine instructions of December 1 and 16, which cable was sent on January 3, 1882. Trescot was told that the Calderon incident could be treated in Washington, which was done by an explicit declaration, promptly made by the Chilian Minister at Washington, that the arrest of Calderon was not intended as an affront to the United States.

It was probably the eviction of Mr. Blaine from the State Department in 1881 that kept off a war scare then, and possibly actual war, which might have swept England in. One plainly discerns in the Chili-Peru episode of ten years ago that Mr. Blaine and Mr. Trescot (now in control of the State Department as in 1881) will bear watching, even although ten years more of age may have chastened both somewhat.

Of course a great deal depends not merely on the official instructions given to Egan, but on the temper which he is *privately* told to display in Chili. Egan can, if so ordered, easily nag Chilians into saying very nasty things of us. The official notes will, when laid before Congress, be necessarily tinged by the intentions of Blaine and Egan, whether to create and keep alive a muss or throw a wet blanket over explosive incidents. It is the business and duty of the House Foreign Affairs Committee and the Democratic House to explore carefully the conduct of Blaine, Tracy, and Egan in dealing with Chili, and tell the country what they find. Obviously, what the Republican leaders are seeking is to make, through Chili, a cuttle-fish emission whereby the doings of the Billion Congress can be obscured. Ten years ago Mr. Blaine's magnetic diplomacy in Chili was arrested by the peremptory interposition of President Arthur. The Democratic House can render a like invaluable service now.

THE CONNECTICUT DECISION.

IT will simplify the many complexities of the Connecticut contest just ended in the courts if we remember that the constitutional questions have focussed almost entirely on the single point of the power of the State Legislature to investigate and change the election returns made by the town moderators to the Secretary of State. The Democrats have contended that under the Constitution of the State the returns of the moderators — barring fraud — were final, that the election ended with their certification of the November vote, and that the legislative function was clerical and arithmetical. The Republican plea, on the other hand, has been that when the State Constitution says that the General Assembly shall, "after examination, declare the person whom they shall find to be legally chosen," it means also an inquisitive and judicial process as to the returns, and that the final declaration forms an integral and essential part of the Governor's title. This divergence of constitutional interpretation has marked the wide and deep line of cleavage between the two parties ever since the bitter and scandalous contest began one year ago. The briefs of the counsel for Morris and Bulkeley and the hopes of the people of Connecticut have centred upon a settlement of this fiercely disputed point.

The unanimous decision of the Supreme Court—which we are bound to hold good Connecticut law—does answer this question, but it answers in terms more abstract than practical in their results. It asserts that the Legislature has the inquisitive power, but that its exercise must be limited to the first and second days of the legislative session. It follows, with the present defect in the State laws relating to elections, that the moderators' returns from some 200 Connecticut voting-places must be "examined," questions of law and of fact decided, and the result "declared," all within the brief compass of two days. To do such a thing fully and fairly in so short a time is obviously often physically and morally impossible for a legislative body;

so that the court asserts as a legislative power under the Connecticut Constitution a thing which other words of the Constitution nullify in practice. The remedy under the court's finding is such a set of election statutes as will test the law and the facts in the interval of two months between the election and the Legislature's meeting. But even then, as the sub-findings must be reviewed by the Legislature before it makes the "declaration," and as the declaration is held by the court to be essential to a Governor's title, there seems to be unlimited scope for disputes of the two houses. It manifestly puts it in the power of either house refusing to "declare," to force, for a time at least, a hold-over set of State officers, precisely as the Republican House has done this year. In such a plight does the antique Connecticut Constitution, as interpreted by the highest and final tribunal of a New England commonwealth, leave the State.

The case of Bulkeley is one directly to the point. The court holds, or at least strongly implies, that the Republican House, in the absence of sufficient statutes bearing on the election returns, ought to have accepted them on their face and "declared" Morris elected. But it did not do so, and it let the second day of the session go by without a declaration. Hence the court holds that the Legislature has lost all purview of the case. It is, as we may say, *functus officio* so far as the State offices are concerned. It follows, and the court so declares, that Bulkeley is not only Governor *de facto*—which has been generally conceded—but Governor *de jure* also, which hardly anybody has believed either in Connecticut or outside of it. Such is the extreme to which the "two-day limitation" of the State Constitution compels the court, and it is undoubtedly good Connecticut ruling. It may be added, by the way, that it seems to leave in a curious position Comptroller Staub, who was not "declared" by the Connecticut House until some five weeks later than the first day of the session, and thus falls far outside of the two-day limit. How the Republican policy has also overreached itself and "killed" Merwin is obvious.

Coming to broader principles of the case, the court, quoting the legal maxim of a remedy for every wrong, concedes the evils of the present situation in Connecticut, and intimates that Judge Morris has such a remedy in establishing title by proceedings begun before the Superior Court of the State. Here again we find one of those not uncommon examples where sound law conflicts with facts and the utilities. The Superior Court of Connecticut is an inferior tribunal of general jurisdiction in each county. It takes about two years, or the whole term of a Governor, for an unimpeded case to pass through it to a Supreme Court decision—longer, if one side resorts to tactics of delay. Moreover, the Connecticut Supreme Court has held, over and over again, with the greatest emphasis, that its own jurisdiction relates only to points of law, thus leaving the inferior court in the assumed case to try questions of fact coming to it from perhaps two hundred voting-places in the State. The inadequacy in practice of such a lower tribunal to pass upon a vast array of questions in a suit involving title to the highest State offices is seen in the mere statement, and adds its testimony to the abstract and technical quality of last week's decision.

But at one point the decision is exceedingly clear. It establishes firmly Gov. Bulkeley's title, and demands from good citizens of the State recognition of the fact. Gov. Bulkeley has plotted to hold over in his office; he has wrought grievous shame to the good name of the State; he has vulgarized his office; he is the first violator of the secret-ballot law of the State, and he has united the unscrupulousness of a Hill with the audacity of Ben Butler. Still, he is Connecticut's Governor. The duty of the Democrats is clear and imperative. They should bow to the unanimous decision of the court, and their Senate should proceed straightway with legislative business. If rascality is for the time triumphant over them, and if their moss-grown Constitution has come to satirize republican government, the remedy is at the polls, and at the polls only. In the larger and wiser view of political events, it is from just such strict constructions of a bad Constitution as the Connecticut court has given, that the popular impulse to change the organic law is derived. Certainly, the disgraceful episodes of the last year in Connecticut have advanced that change by years.

OHIO'S REPUBLICAN TAMMANY.

THE victory of John Sherman in the caucus of Republican legislators at Columbus last week is a matter for national congratulation. Mr. Sherman is the most eminent man in public life to-day, and, despite all his faults and weaknesses, comes nearer than any one else now left to the measure of a statesman. Though he will be almost seventy when his present term ends in 1893, he is still in vigorous physical condition, and gives promise of being able to render as efficient service during his next term as at any previous time during a public career which has already kept him continuously in office at Washington—as Representative, Senator, Secretary of the Treasury, and then Senator again—for nearly forty years. It would have been nothing short of a national misfortune if the Republicans of Ohio had failed to return him to the Senate, in favor of one of the most notorious blatherskites in American politics.

But the most significant feature of this contest at Columbus is not the fact that Senator Sherman won: it is the narrowness of his escape from defeat. In caucus, to be sure, he secured 53 votes to ex-Gov. Foraker's 38, but the issue was really decided when the Sherman candidate for Speaker beat Foraker's man by only four votes. The members who had been waiting to see which side would win thereupon went over to Sherman, but if the Foraker candidate for Speaker had received three votes more than he got, and the Sherman man three less, Foraker would in all probability have carried the Senatorial caucus. So narrow was the escape from defeat in a Republican legislative caucus of the most eminent Republican in the State, whose return to the Senate was desired by the great majority of his party and advocated by three-fourths or four-fifths of the Republican newspapers.

How did Sherman come so near to failure and Foraker so near to success? The question is fully answered in a remarkable review of the Senatorial controversy which has just been published by Gen. H. V. Boynton, the veteran Washington correspondent, whose sturdy Republicanism, high personal character, and intimate knowledge of Ohio politics entitle him to speak with authority. The explanation is found in the existence of "a Republican Tammany organization in Hamilton County [Cincinnati]," which Gen. Boynton characterizes as "of a lower order of political morality and worse than any similar organization in either party anywhere else in the United States." "The boss of this Cincinnati Tammany," he says, "is George Cox, an illiterate saloon-keeper of one of the most notorious dives in the most notorious part of the city, known as 'Dead Man's Corner' because of the many murders committed in and about it. It has had a gambling-house attachment and a department devoted to even viler uses." It was while running this saloon that Cox entered politics, and he soon became a power in city affairs. A fellow-feeling drew Cox and Foraker together when the latter came to the front in State politics ten years ago, and they have been hand-and-glove ever since. When Foraker became Governor, he appointed Cox to the lucrative sinecure of coal-oil inspector, and the saloon-keeper went through the form, so familiar in this city, of nominally putting the establishment out of his own hands and into the hands of his former barkeeper. It is this man Cox who was "the acknowledged leader of the Foraker forces, and without his countenance the Governor would have had no chance of success." The second in command in this Republican Tammany is a confidence-man, who deals in bogus remedies for the cure of consumption—a person who has no standing among Cincinnati physicians, and who advertises only at a distance, manufacturing his worthless stuff by the barrel for sixteen cents a quart, and selling it to gullible invalids all over the country at five dollars a quart. He, too, early became a favorite of Foraker's, and was appointed to office by the Governor.

So absolute has become Cox's control that Gen. Boynton declares it to be "now impossible for any aspirant to be nominated by the County Republican Conven-

tion in the city unless he first seeks out the local boss and pays him spot cash"—save where it happens that he deems it discreet to allow a few representatives of decent politics to go on the ticket to allay the suspicions of the body of honest voters. The way in which Cox "set up the pins" for his pal Foraker is thus described:

"In the last campaign the candidates as a body, from those aspiring to the Legislature to those seeking judicial nominations, were obliged to visit this boss at his headquarters and pay in advance. The sums ranged from $200 up to $2,000. As an example, the cash price paid for nomination as Sheriff was $2,000, and immediately after the election the boss coolly demanded that he be allowed to name sixteen out of the twenty-one appointments in the Sheriff's office. Every man on the Hamilton County Republican Legislative ticket, without an exception, was selected in advance by this boss, George Cox. Doubtless this will seem amazing, but it is true, without a qualification."

This is the way it was done: Shortly before the convention, Cox called on the Postmaster and Collector (both Sherman men) with a list of five names as his personal choice for the Legislative ticket, and asked them to select eight from another list of sixteen, all of whom were represented by him, and believed by the Postmaster and Collector, to be for Sherman, this concession being due to the unquestioned fact that the Republicans of the city were overwhelmingly for Sherman and against Foraker. Eight names were accordingly selected from the sixteen, but the thing turned out to be a confidence game on Cox's part. "Every man of the sixteen, as is now known, had made his pecuniary and political peace with Cox, and the latter had taken a pledge from each one in advance that, in case of nomination and election, he would do such a favor for Cox as the latter might name. So strong was this pledge that those who knew of it among Cox's press supporters made bold to announce, in double leads, the morning after the election, and before a man of those elected had been consulted, that the Hamilton County delegation was solid for Foraker for Senator, to succeed John Sherman." The announcement was universally denounced as false, but was speedily found to be true. "This capture through false pretences and a confidence game," says Gen. Boynton, "made it possible for Gov. Foraker to open a public campaign to oust Mr. Sherman from the Senate. Without this solid delegation of one more than one-quarter of the Republican vote in the Legislature necessary to a caucus nomination, there would have been no possible chance of success."

Such is politics to-day in one of our chief cities and in one of the largest States of the Union: an illiterate saloon-keeper absolutely controls the municipality, and almost succeeds in controlling the Legislature, in order to turn out from the United States Senate its most eminent member! Unhappily it is not a unique case. Many another large city can match it in its chief features, and many a smaller one as far as circumstances allow imitation. Cox is a Republican in Cincinnati, but he would be a Democrat in New York, and he would be here as loyal a supporter of "Dave" Hill and as bitter an opponent of Grover Cleveland as in Ohio he is the backer of Foraker and the "knifer" of Sherman. The significance of Cox is as a type of the men who are to-day the most powerful class in the government of this country—the bosses of our great cities.

CHEATS AND CHEATING.

THE history of the Republican party since 1874 is probably the most solemn warning ever given to the world against the policy of trying to keep power by employing cheats to cheat. The party was never so strong as when it elected Grant in 1868 and reëlected him in 1872, but it lost control of Congress in 1874 simply because, vivid as were still the memories of the war, voters saw, or thought they saw, that the Administration was surrounded and controlled by cheats. It suffered a still deadlier blow in 1876, when "the gentleman" from the *Times* office got Mr. Chandler to telegraph to the Louisiana Returning Board to prepare to cheat, and it never recovered at all from the cheat by which Mr. Hayes obtained the Presidency. On the day he was inaugurated, in spite of the convenient disguise afforded by the Electoral Commission, the whole country felt that something was gone from the party which could never come back, and that thing was character. The popular belief in its sincerity and simplicity and high aims and unselfish purposes, which had during the previous sixteen years clothed it with almost arbitrary power, died on that day. It was able to elect Garfield in 1880, by becoming a tariff party and promising to make plenty of money for everybody who voted for it; but it was never again able to promise to make Americans proud of their country by standing for purity and justice. In 1884 it lost the Presidency for the first time by going one step further and nominating a man who, rightly or wrongly, was suspected not only of having the support of cheats, but of being a cheat himself. It got back the Presidency in 1888, as almost everybody now admits, by venality on an enormous scale, under the leadership of a man accused not only of buying votes, but of robbing the Treasury of his own State; and it used its slender majority in Congress to accomplish so much cheating and bullying that in 1890 it was almost swept out of the House by a torrent of popular indignation.

Is it possible to mistake the meaning of all this? Is there in all history a plainer political lesson? Does it not show, as many another such lesson has shown, that ill-gotten power cannot be permanent? Power may be acquired by theft, or fraud, or murder, but it can be kept only by honest arts. The "Something not ourselves which makes for righteousness," is, in politics as in business, always on the track of the villain, and sees to it that peace shall not come to him. For even dishonest communities expect their rulers to be honest, just as even dishonest jurors are ready to punish theft and fraud.

Is there, therefore, anything more astonishing in politics than the present attitude of a portion of the Democratic party in this State? They have just seen a party which had a thousand claims on popular attachment and confidence such as the Democrats cannot pretend to — which is associated permanently with the heroic period of American history—cast out of power, utterly discredited, for persistent lying and cheating, for employing knaves to acquire by force or fraud things which did not belong to it, and for elevating, or trying to elevate, to places of dignity and authority men whose word could not be relied on, and who owed both fame and fortune to ways which they would be ashamed to acknowledge. Nevertheless, these Democrats are now, in the Presidential year, with Republican sins fresh in the popular mind, with the leading Republican rogues paraded, as it were, for their inspection with placards on their breasts describing their offences, actually entering, with great glee, on a campaign of similar frauds, and putting laurels on the brow of the man who concocted and carried them out.

They know very well how closely the country is divided between the two parties, how small a thing may turn the scale next fall. They know that the Republicans are sure of 183 votes in the Electoral College, the Democrats of only 176; that there are five doubtful States; that the Republicans can win with Indiana, Iowa, and Massachusetts, and do without New York; that the Democrats cannot win with New York alone; that even if they carry New York, they must carry also Indiana; that if they do not carry New York, they must carry Indiana, Iowa, Connecticut, and Massachusetts. They know that the public conscience is not dead in any of these States; that their majority in them is at best very small, and that there is in none of them a Tammany Society. They know that it is difficult or impossible to make a sorry rogue like Hill, without eloquence, without "magnetism," without social or political credit, specially attractive even to knaves, unless they have directly profited by his frauds; that outside this State he must be odious to tens of thousands who still cling to the old political morality, and "believe that righteousness exalteth a nation," and who have a patriotic care for the character of public men. They know that they will not have a vote to spare in any State. And yet they are tumbling over each other in their eagerness to do honor to this poor trickster, as if he were the inventor of a new patent process for seizing the Presidency or the Legislature; as if his secret were not known in all

the jails in the country by tens of thousands of less fortunate practitioners. They remind one forcibly of Macaulay's story of that unfortunate Brahmin who bought a mangy sheep for sacrifice, refused to believe the friends who pointed out to him the animal's unsoundness, and insisted on offering the beast to the gods, who promptly smote him with disease in all his joints.

UNIFORM RAILWAY CLASSIFICATION.

THE railways of the United States have been forced by similarity of geographical and traffic conditions to divide themselves into groups, each group having, among other things, a classification of freight peculiar to itself. There can be no question that these group classifications hinder the free exchange of articles by reason of the differing rules and rates in cases of shipments which must cross the imaginary group boundary. There is no commercial reason why an Eastern manufacturer should not sell his product in Kansas; but if, in order to do so, he begins a calculation to see whether the selling price there will allow a profit, he finds that the arbitrary change in the railway classification, say at Chicago, leaves the actual transportation charge through to Kansas in doubt to such a degree as to be a real hindrance to the freedom of trade. Under these conditions, felt to be burdensome by the merchants in all large cities, there has arisen a demand for a classification of freight and of rules which shall be uniform throughout the country. Under the spur of the Inter-State Commission, a committee of railroad men a year or more ago after much labor devised such a uniform classification, but it failed of adoption by the roads between Chicago and the Atlantic seaboard. The annual report of the Inter-State Commission, just made to Congress, asks for an amendment to the law which shall require carriers to adopt uniformity within a fixed time. As the National Board of Trade Convention a few weeks hence will doubtless discuss this question, and as a bill may be introduced in Congress making a uniform classification of shipments compulsory upon our railways, it is well that the merchants of the States east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio Rivers should know what is involved in this demand which they are openly or tacitly endorsing.

We must remember that arranging into classes the different articles carried is not an end in itself, but a means towards determining the sum to be collected. Uniformity of classification involves a corresponding uniformity of charge; this is often forgotten. We should like, of course, to see clearness in our printed tariffs, but are we willing to pay higher charges on our manufactures for the privilege? This is the real question at issue. What is a proper rate on a given shipment must be determined by the commercial and transportation conditions under which the merchandise is carried; these conditions vary greatly in different sections of our country, and the variance is one of the principal reasons for the separation of railways into groups. Thus, the Pittsburgh or New England iron masters must sell their product in Chicago in competition with large furnaces or factories on the spot, and in competition also with Southern rivals who reach the Chicago market by other roads. The selling price in Chicago is thus limited, and so is the freight charge which can be collected on shipments to that market. On the other hand, on nails from Chicago to Arizona can be imposed what is a fair rate of itself, the consumer there paying the Chicago price plus the freight charge. The heavy traffic east of Chicago and the comparatively light traffic into Arizona make reasonable a low rate in the first instance and a high one in the second. A part of this larger charge on the Arizona shipment is covered by a higher rate, class for class, than is usual on the trunk lines, but a very important part is arranged by putting the same article in a higher class. This principle works itself out in other ways. Cotton must be carried on low classification in the South, but it does not follow that the same low class would be always fair to Northern lines. Instances of this can easily be found in all trades.

Without carrying these illustrations to a wearisome extent, let us turn to the effect of compulsory uniformity. The classification (that is to say, the rate) is high in one section and low in another. Uniformity must mean a compromise. A compromise would mean that the higher charge would be reduced, while the lower one would be advanced. As the tariffs in use on the trunk lines east of Chicago are the lowest in the United States, it follows that, in the event of uniform classification, the rates charged to and from the Atlantic seaboard would be advanced. The question involved is, therefore, simply whether Eastern producers, for the sake of an abstract theory of uniformity or for a little more ease in doing business, are willing to sacrifice their profits. It will be remembered that in the summer of 1890, when the classification question was debated by the trunk lines, it was discovered that every change in Eastern freights under the proposed uniform classification would have been an advance. When this was clearly seen to be the practical outcome, the Trunk-Line Committee declined to adopt the proposed plan. In this decision, and in any further discussion, the Eastern railways should have the hearty support of the shipping and travelling public.

It has not escaped observation that the conditions of transportation on our Western railways are gradually approaching those under which the older roads are operated. Western rates are constantly declining as population and traffic increase, and as there is increased competition between old factories and those newly established in the remoter States. Thus uniformity of classification and of rates is in process of accomplishment because really contingent upon uniformity of trade conditions; nor can we hurry its approach except at the expense of the older communities. It is, however, true that there exist to-day in some instances unnecessary and arbitrary differences between the classifications in use; differences which it is not only proper but right to abolish. But correction of errors in individual cases is one thing, while compulsory classification throughout the list is quite another. The language of the Inter-State Commission is cautious: "It is shown by the deliberate statements of experts in the employment of the carriers that a much nearer approach to uniformity than now exists is practicable"—an opinion which few dispute. But to make such a statement the basis for practical compulsion in the matter of uniform charges on all articles throughout the country, regardless of varying circumstances, is a serious mistake, the ill effects of which the shippers of the East would be the first to feel.

A LABOR CHURCH.

A NOVEL experiment in the evangelization of the poor is reported from Manchester, England. The Rev. John Trevor, who spent some time as assistant minister in London, and who is now in charge of a Free Church in Manchester, recently set going an institution which he himself calls a "Labor Church." The motives and aims back of the effort may be gathered from a circular which Mr. Trevor distributed last July. In that he said:

> "Those who have been most active in promoting popular services, and the various social enterprises now considered essential to active church life, appear to admit with sorrow that very few indeed of the workers themselves are attracted to any religious organization, or give practical assistance to the work done for their own class. Men and women everywhere are willing to come and listen to smart addresses and good music, and, undoubtedly, many are benefited by what they hear. But they are not organized, they do not work, they will accept no responsibility, they do not give financial support to the movement. Everything is done for them, and they are simply willing to be catered for. . . .
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> "The next step forward in developing religious life, and improving social conditions in our land, must be to bring religion into practical harmony with the workingmen who are really alive and in earnest about the elevation of their class. If these men are manifesting little interest in the churches, and in the social work they are doing, it is because the preponderating bulk of religious influence in our country is still opposed to their advancement, and also because, even when religion does appear to take their part, it is usually in such a mild manner that it becomes questionable to them whether active opposition would not be preferable."

Mr. Trevor then asked: "Cannot religion be presented in such a form that it shall become a real power and inspiration in the lives of these earnest and clear-headed workingmen? Cannot a religious organization be formed which, while supporting them in their daily life and social work, shall in turn be cordially supported

by them?" It was in the hope of solving that problem that he set about establishing his "Labor Church," which is now holding regular meetings in a public hall in Manchester, and is said to be flourishing. He says that his church is to "include what, for want of a better name, may be called the Labor Program, with a distinct recognition of God's government of the world, and of the need, in every sphere of life, to obey the laws He has revealed to us." And in an account of his work which he contributed to a London paper, he showed what his "Labor Program" means, by affirming:

> "The true representative of the labor movement is John Burns, standing in the prisoners' dock after the Trafalgar Square riots; Ben Tillett, preaching at the dock gates the glad tidings of the tanner; or the poor Socialist, standing on an old wooden chair in the rain, shouting himself hoarse to catch a few stragglers.
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> "These are the men who represent God's power in the world. . . . Many of them are called atheists, infidels, self-seeking agitators, agents of the Evil One, stirring up strife on which they may grow fat. And some of these brave men, denounced by the official representatives of God, deny the God in whose name they are denounced, and submit, without retort, to be called atheists."

We call attention to this unique experiment, and to the methods on which it is conducted, not for the sake of its own importance, which does not appear to be great as yet, but on account of its marking the extreme of a tendency which has long been observable in the churches. We mean the tendency to make concession after concession in order to win back to the churches the alienated working classes. Here is the origin of the modern variations in methods of church work and appeal, in cities especially, which are known as "popular services," "carrying the Gospel to the masses," and so on. The motto has been to become all things to all men if by any means workingmen may be got to go to church. So that it is but a logical extension of a common principle for the Manchester pastor to set up a branch for Socialistic propaganda, in which a minimum amount of theistic belief is included, and call it a "church." Probably the agitators whom he is able to bring to his side are shrewd enough to be indifferent to the name as long as they get the thing. If they could get influential supporters for their views of the labor question, and an advantageous and unwonted platform from which to urge their favorite remedies for social ills, they would doubtless be willing to be known either as Jews, Turks, or Christians, and would acquiesce as readily in having their organization called a "Labor Synagogue" or "Labor Mosque" as in naming it a "Labor Church."

The Manchester experiment ought to serve a useful purpose in showing exactly on what terms a union can be effected between the Socialists of the Democratic Federation and the Christian Church. The former give up nothing, and the latter everything —except religious passion and enthusiasm, which it is at perfect liberty to transfer to the new "Gospel of Labor." Matthew Arnold's definition of religion as "morality touched with emotion," would soon have to be made over if the "Labor Church" were to have its way, so that it would read: "Religion is Socialism held as passionate faith instead of reasoned conviction." It seems evident that the Manchester Socialists have greatly the advantage. They have positive views and know precisely what they want. On the other hand, Mr. Trevor and his sympathizers cling only to a vague theism as absolutely indispensable, and are sure simply that they want somehow to put an end to the estrangement between the workingmen and the Church. When two parties thus circumstanced come to an agreement, it is not doubtful on which side the substance will be found and on which the shadow.

On the other hand, this clear showing of the conditions on which alone a "Labor Church" is possible should serve to reinforce the very best forms of work among laboring people which the Church is adopting to-day. We have recently referred to these. Springing from Christian motives, in most cases, and conducted in a Christian spirit, they yet put distinctly Christian teaching into the background, and give their strength to education, in a broad sense, and social reform. The social and debating clubs of the University Settlements, for example, are far better places to come to grapple with Socialism and the labor movement than any so-called church, which must practically concede all the claims of Socialists before it can join forces with them. We have no doubt that a great deal more good is done in some of those clubs in London, where Oxford and Cambridge graduates and professors discuss Socialism with its advocates, than can be looked for in a "church" where Socialism acquires religious sanctions. In the club the social question can be discussed on its merits, and whatever truth there may be in Socialistic doctrine can be argued out and accepted without either giving it the artificial aid of religious enthusiasm, or, on the other hand, loading down a religious system with harmful theories of society.

"SUFFERING PARIS."

PARIS, December 23, 1891.

A GLOOMY title, 'Paris qui souffre,' but not a bad one, for two works by M. Adolphe Guillot, a police magistrate of Paris and one of our criminalists. One of these two volumes is a curious monograph on the Morgue, the other is a description of the 'Prisons and Prisoners of Paris.'

I am an old Parisian (it is not necessary to be born in Paris to be a Parisian), but I must confess that I have never entered the Morgue. I have often wandered on the shores of the Seine, and admired the beautiful and suggestive view which you have when you come before Notre Dame. Behind the splendid cathedral, on a sort of little promontory of the island on which it is built, is a low building; it is the Morgue, the temple of suicide. The church is sometimes empty; the Morgue always has visitors. Men and women enter into it, some led by a morbid curiosity, others, alas! by the fear and the hope of discovering some relation or friend.

M. Firmin Maillard was the first who wrote an historical study on the origin of the Morgue, in 1860. He could not find out exactly when first a place was chosen for the deposit and exhibition of the corpses of unknown persons, found in the streets or in the river. We know by the registers of the Grand Châtelet, which have been kept since 1651, that these corpses were exposed in it, and afterwards buried by the Sisters of St. Catherine. The Châtelet was first a fortified castle in the city; it afterwards became its judicial centre and gave its name to a prison; it was essentially a municipal prison, where all the men arrested in the streets of Paris were first taken. The Sisters of St. Catherine, commonly called Catherinettes, were very popular; their statutes obliged them to receive all poor women for the night, and to feed them for three successive days.

Where did the name Morgue come from? We see it appear first in the Academy's Dictionary in 1718; Voltaire uses it in a letter to M. de Thibouville in 1777; Littré finds its origin in a word of Languedoc, *morga*, which signifies face. The word *morgue* is used also to describe a proud and haughty demeanor: we say familiarly, "La morgue espagnole." Is there a relation between the two senses of the word Morgue? In his 'Répertoire de Jurisprudence' of 1768, Denisart says: "The *basse geôle*, which is in the court of the Grand Châtelet, where are exposed the corpses of those who are not recognized or claimed immediately, is called Morgue from the verb *morguer*, which, in one of its significations, means to look fixedly, as people do before a dead body which they cannot recognize." In our old French, *geôle* was employed more often than prison; it now applies only to the House of Detention. We call it *greffe*, the place where the prisoners are visited and inscribed (*écroués*), and we have kept the word morgue only for the place of exhibition of the dead.

The Morgue has been one of the cradles of what we call "legal medicine." The Châtelet had its surgeons who made official reports on the bodies which bore marks of violence. These surgeons were not functionaries; at the present moment all the bodies brought to the Morgue are examined by a doctor, and he has to send a report to the *parquet* (the public prosecutor). If there is no sign of crime, the *parquet* authorizes burial; when a crime is suspected, a police magistrate takes charge of the affair, and authorizes an autopsy. As soon as this is made, the doctor sends his report to the magistrate. The doctors of the Morgue have no right to use the bodies, either for their lectures, or for "legal medicine," or for their own scientific researches, except when the bodies are not claimed and have been unrecognized, or when the families, after having recognized them, have not claimed them. The Penal Code of 1810 specifies, in article 14, that the bodies even of criminals who have suffered capital punishment shall be delivered to their families if claimed, on condition that they be buried without ostentation. We have even gone further: for some time unclaimed bodies of criminals who had been guillotined were given over immediately to professors of physiology in the Collège de France, who submitted them to various experiments. Now the criminal himself can decide whether or no this shall take place; we allow him the right not to become an object of scientific inquiry, and to

have an ordinary burial, even if he is completely abandoned by his family.

The bodies exposed at the Morgue can be legally subjected to an autopsy if they have remained unrecognized after an exposure of from ten to fifteen days; practically this does not take place, as it is feared that the families are not always warned in time and that this delay is not long enough. The only bodies thus treated are those which have been recognized, but unclaimed by the families, or those of the persons who have been murdered. Lectures on "legal medicine" take place regularly at the Morgue, and there is now a real clinic where young experts are trained in all the branches of medicine which touch on suicide and crime. Dr. Brouardel has organized this service as well as he could with the means placed at his disposal.

There is some question of reconstructing the Morgue on a larger scale; and in view of this the question of public exposure has been much discussed. M. Guillot pronounces against it. He says:

"For a long time, the public exposure of criminals has been abolished. The time is near, I hope, when executions will take place inside of the prisons. The spectacle of the Morgue is no better; it familiarizes people with the sight of blood and with contempt for human life. Let us at least turn away the children who come there to satisfy a precocious curiosity; let us shut the door on this indiscreet crowd, on these women with shameless eyes, these men who are on the search for an emotion or a crime. Let the doors be open only to those who are brought there by a clear interest; to them the Morgue will transform itself; we call as witnesses those who have seen it only when the public is gone, and when silence reigns; then it takes on an air of majesty, and becomes almost a holy place."

It was certainly an original idea to write a book on the Morgue, and to pay so much attention to the temple of death, of criminal or voluntary death, in this city of Paris, which has the well-deserved reputation of being addicted to pleasure. But there are men and women in Paris who give almost all of life to philanthropy; they do it noiselessly, in a true Christian spirit, and this same spirit will be found in 'The Prisons and Prisoners of Paris,' by M. Guillot. Permanent contact with criminals has not hardened him; it has inspired him with a sentiment of profound pity and compassion. Not that this pity goes so far as to excuse crime or to attempt to diminish human responsibility. M. Guillot does not belong to the modern criminalist school, which has invented the "criminal man," the man born for crime, absolutely irresponsible, led by hereditary and irresistible instincts. M. Guillot believes in hereditary instincts, in their influence, in the influence of education and of the surrounding medium; he believes also in human liberty.

His work is a minute description of the ancient and the modern prisons of Paris. The most ancient prison was the Roman dungeon, which Gregory of Tours describes under the name of *carcer Glaucini*. Saint Denys was shut up in it by order of the Roman Governor; it became afterwards the chapel of a little church. Under Louis XVI., Paris had eight principal prisons—the Grand and the Petit Châtelet, the Conciergerie, For-l'Évêque, the Magdelonettes, Sainte-Pélagie, La Force, the Temple, La Salpétrière, Bicêtre, Saint-Lazare, the Bastille. Many of these prisons have been minutely described; the memoirs of the Revolution have rendered some of them famous. Balzac in one of his novels has led us through all the doors and passages of the Conciergerie. The prisoners who were in the Châtelet on the 2d of September, 1792, were all massacred. The Châtelet itself exists no more, and there remains no trace of it. As for the Conciergerie, it still forms one of the most beautiful features in the valley of the Seine, near the Palais de Justice and the Sainte-Chapelle. Three of its old towers still exist — the Tower of Cæsar, the Silver Tower (Tour d'Argent, so called, probably, because in Saint-Louis's time it was inhabited by his mother, Queen Blanche), and the Tower called Bon-Bec. The Magdelonettes have been demolished in recent years, and have been replaced by the prison, "de la Santé." Sainte-Pélagie has been described by Mme. Roland, who left it to go to the scaffold. Saint-Lazare is a dark and gloomy building, which was at first built for the unfortunates who were attacked with leprosy. The Kings and Queens often visited it, and made it their last station before being carried to the Church of Saint-Denis. The Abbé of Saint-Lazare was an ecclesiastical lord of the first rank. This prison is now at the same time a prison and a hospital exclusively for women. For-l'Évêque became famous, as it always received the comedians arrested in virtue of a *lettre de cachet*. Mlle. Clairon remained in it five days, and received in it the homage of her numerous admirers. This prison has been demolished. La Force was opened only in 1782 as a prison; it was a part of the ancient Hôtel Saint-Pol, which belonged to Charles, King of Naples and Sicily, a brother of Saint Louis, and afterwards to the Dukes of La Force. "La Petite Force" was annexed to "La Force"; it was the Hôtel de Brienne, and was intended chiefly for the class of women who in the last century were called *femmes du monde*, and who would not in our time be called even "du demi-monde." Poor Mme. de Lamballe was shut up with these unfortunates and cut up by the populace. During the September massacres the blood flowed in torrents in the prison of La Force. This prison was shut up only in 1850; the 700 prisoners who were in it at the time were transferred to the new prison of Mazas, which shows its high walls near the terminus of the Lyons-Marseilles Railway. The name of Bicêtre comes from an Englishman (Winchester) who had a castle on the spot in the sixteenth century. Bicêtre is called by Mercier, in his 'Tableau de Paris,' the ulcer of Paris; it has ceased to be a prison and is now only a hospital. The Bastille was the State Prison; it is needless to say under what circumstances it was demolished. The Temple received Louis XVI. within its walls, and thus gained an eternal celebrity; it was demolished in 1811, and prisoners guilty of high treason have ever since been sent to the dungeons of Vincennes.

The genesis of crime fills the greater part of the work of M. Guillot: he shows us the roads to the prison, as well as the prisons themselves; the personal, domestic, and social causes of the demoralization of men and women in a great capital, the destruction of family ties, the corruption engendered by bad examples, by poverty, by the competition of labor, by the organization of huge shops, by the *hôtels garnis*, the cafés, the brasseries, the races. He analyzes at length the effects of alcoholism; he has a curious chapter on the crimes which go now under the name of *passionels*, and criticises the leniency of the jury and its responsibility. There is, in fact, not a line in his work which is not instructive and suggestive.

IN SICILIAN SULPHUR MINES.

CALTANISETTA, Dec. 12, 1891.

ALL the descriptions penned by philanthropists, sensationalists, and Socialists of the sulphur mines of Sicily, and the work of children therein, which seemed sheer exaggeration when read in northern Italy or abroad, fall far short of the reality, which the pen of Dante could not portray. Not the slavery of the negroes in its worst aspect, not the sweating of the whites as we know it in London and in all great cities, can compare in any least degree with the inhuman system of child torture openly and continuously practised in all the sulphur mines of the island, and especially in the central Province of Caltanisetta and the adjoining Province of Girgenti, bordering on the sea. This last week I have spent chiefly in and around the mines and in the mining-district, as a penance for the pleasant tour through the Provinces of Trapani and Palermo, where the progress everywhere manifest, the healthy aspect of the country population, fill one with exultation, and dissipate the gloomy doubts which often assail one as to the benefits of liberty and civilization.

Nor does your first arrival at Caltanisetta dispel these illusions. The town is built up the hilly slope, has some fine buildings old and new; the population, as you see it in the daytime, looks sturdy and healthy. Butchers' shops are plentiful, the fish market may vie with Palermo for the fine soles and enormous red mullet that come from Terra Nuova direct by rail; the fruit and vegetables, artichokes and *finocchi*, the oranges, lemons, and mandarins, the figs and almonds and big loaves of well-baked wheaten bread exposed for sale, seem to promise that here is "bread and work for all." But wait till eventime; go up to the top of the city, and, while chatting with the women who are preparing the evening meal of lentils or dried horse beans in dirty, airless, stinking hovels, watch for the first arrival of the *carusi*. Note the first batch of children, varying in age from six to ten, who work on the top of and about the mines, and who, if too young to be put to work at all, bear as yet no traces of it on their bright, impish, dirty faces or thin, half-naked bodies; wait for the next batch of lads, varying from twelve to fifteen or seventeen years of age. The smaller and younger still retain the form and features of human beings, though their eyes are red and bleared and their skin sallow and thick; but the older they are, the more marked the result of hours and days and months and years of toil in the subterraneous caverns and galleries of the sulphur mines. All, or nearly all, have a hump on the left shoulder-blade; many a hacking cough; all are listless, taciturn, unless aroused to anger—then woe to the offender or even the bystander: out flies the long, slim, sharp knife, regulation size, if indeed the ever-ready revolver does not do swifter and deadlier work. Wait as you will, the stream pours on and in; hundreds and thousands of *solfatari* walk to and from their work, two, four, even six miles each day, preferring this additional fatigue to eating and sleeping in the pestiferous atmosphere of the sulphur mines.

When the price of sulphur is high, as at present, from fifty to sixty thousand men and children are employed in extracting and bringing to the surface the sulphur in its natural state, *i. e.*, mixed with the calcareous, clayey, or chalky soil; so it may be calculated that four times the number exist on the product of their toil. The proportion of the mineral to the soil varies from 8 to 40 per cent., the medium being 24 per cent., as the poorest mines are worked only at intervals and abandoned when prices fall. But the natural wealth of

the mines adds nothing to the earnings of the *caruso* (literally a "boy," but now a term applied to all the toilers who bring the raw material to the surface of the pit). The mines all or nearly all belong to wealthy proprietors of the soil, of the old feudal estates; and though now the *feudi* are abolished, the *ex-feudi*, as they are called, still remain in the same families. When a proprietor of the soil possesses, or believes that he possesses, a sulphur mine (the indications are various and of interest only to experts and owners), he is bound to inform the authorities and pay a small sum (about $25) for the right of working the mine. Here his duties end and his rights begin. Few proprietors work their own mines. They seek or are sought by a *gabelloto*, who hires the mine for four, nine, or even eighteen years. All the expenses of exploration, sinking pits, constructing galleries, etc., are assumed by the *gabelloto*, or contractor, who pays the proprietor so many loaves or *balate* of sulphur, which his own agent selects and carries off. The proprietor keeps a staff of agents to look after his interests; to see that so many galleries, arches, columns are constructed and kept in due repair, so that, at the expiration of the lease, the proprietor may find all in due order, and be able to make better terms with the next contractor. Some are obliged to construct galleries for draining off the water, and *calcaroni* or furnaces; and the very agents of the owner are often paid by the contractor, who is also expected to pay the taxes—the land and income tax which the present Government exacts relentlessly. Hence the owner risks nothing, "not the shadow of a cent." Rarely does the first contractor make ends meet; he fails and is ruined, but the owner has his mine in working order and finds plenty of *gabelloti* who compete with each other in their tenders.

The *gabelloto*, when once the mine is in working order, has to find his miners, and as he rarely has sufficient capital for his enterprise, he trades on borrowed money at exorbitant interest. The *sborsante*, who only lends when the sulphur is actually found, so that he can fall upon it and secure repayment, lives in the city, and from banks or individuals can obtain money at a low interest, which the *gabelloto* never can. Then he has to seek one or more *capomastri*, or miners who have gone through all the stages of the "art," have been *carusi* and *picconieri*, and who, though few of them can read or write, have such absolute material and empirical knowledge of the operations and of the special mine in which they have worked from babyhood, as may put to shame the engineers, directors, etc., who issue from the technical schools, institutes, and universities. The plan or map of the mine they carry in their heads, and from long experience know the habits and customs of the workmen, over whom they have extraordinary influence, as they never arrive at the post of *capomastro* unless endowed with intelligence, energy, courage, and, comparatively speaking, probity. Their duties are various—chiefly to direct the choice of the gallery to be worked, to superintend the erection of columns, the filling up of exhausted passages, and the superintendence of the *picconiere*, or actual miner, who, with his pickaxe from which he takes his name, brings down the material, or bores the rock for blasting. This *picconiere* is a notable personage in the mining hierarchy. He also must be robust, intelligent, and able to command and control his subalterns, the wretched *carusi;* and the fact that he has been a *caruso* himself seems only to make him harder and sterner in his dealings with the crew. The *picconiere* refuses always and absolutely to work by the day, even at the highest wages. Down in the bowels of the earth, naked and dripping with sweat, he wields his pickaxe for six, eight, ten, even twelve hours—as long as his strength holds out. The depth of the mines varies from mine to mine, and in the same mine from plane to plane. Maybe the first gallery is at 150 metres below the mouth of the pit; 50 feet lower another gallery, again, and again, the lowest 300 metres often. The heat is so intense that only those used to it can stand it. Each miner or *picconiere* has so many *carusi*—boys of twelve, men up to sixty—who transport the material either to the cars or to boxes on wheels, or to the mouth of the pit. These cars run on inclined planes, but "lifts" are now introduced in some of the largest mines, and only where there are such contrivances can a stranger descend.

We have visited two mines during the past week, each time arriving at the surface with fervent resolve never again to seek such sickening sights. It is not the physical inconvenience that hurts, but the horror of the spectacle. Where these slides, or lifts, are used, you may, if you do not descend, leave the mines with the conviction that all the process is carried on by this rough sort of machinery; but it is not so. The boxes go down only about a third or half the depth of the mine; and from the bottom up to the level where the cars land, the children or men bring up the material in sacks, baskets, or even the huge blocks on their backs, in loads of 10, 20, 50, even 80 and 100 kilos per journey. Up the steep, slimy, slippery steps or paths they go, scarcely daring to rest a second, every one in three carrying a stinking oil-lamp stuck on his head, sweating, panting, moaning with a peculiar and specially heart-rending groan till he reaches the "magazine," or depot, flings down his load, then turns, and with lightning speed dashes down again—some of the little ones out of whose bodies life has not yet been crushed actually singing, capering with the sheer joy of the momentary relief from pain. Ten, eleven journeys these "bearers" make per day, and, if the distances are short, twenty, and even thirty.

The worst feature of the case is that the children are farmed out by their own fathers and often their own mothers to the *picconieri;* hence their life-long slavery begins at ten years. The toil is such that when the mines are all at work, as at present, the *picconieri* have difficulty in finding sufficient *carusi* to carry up the material; and as they are paid by the job—so much for each "box" (*cassa*)—this is a serious matter. A family is "in want"; the father or mother seeks a *picconiere* and gets a loan of five, ten, even twenty dollars, and pledges the boy to work it out. The debt goes on increasing, for the miners and their families never save a cent, and when the *picconiere* sweats unmercifully, often the *caruso* will seek another, saying, "Give me such and such a sum to pay off so and so, and I will come to you." It is a point of honor for no *picconiere* of the same mine to take the *caruso* of another. When one does so, they "have it out" on Saturday or Sunday, and hence the frequent scenes of bloodshed that occur. When the *caruso*, come to man's estate, gets so over head and ears in debt that the miner sweats him without payment, he absconds, leaves the province for another mining district, and there begins again. The miner goes to the home of his indebted *caruso*, and, failing to find him, reports *perhaps;* but neither the police nor the mining population assists his researches, and this fear of losing the "bearer" of his treasure is the only check on the brutality of the *picconiere*.

Crime of every sort, and especially the unnamable vice, goes on in these mines. The *camorra* of course thrives, nor can any police regulations avail. In olden times the mines were the resort of brigands and *renitenti* and deserters; now the brigands are extinct. Old Mr. Rose, the last Englishman carried off by the band of Leone, farms his mines in peace at Lercara, and has the reputation of being a very humane part proprietor, part *gabelloto*. Conscripts no longer shirk the levy, deserters are rarer still, though the mining districts furnish very few soldiers, the most being rejected as "deformed," *i. e.*, hunch-backed, or half-blind, or bow-legged. But crime and criminals thrive; and as no books are kept, and workmen come and go at will, or with the connivance of the *picconieri*, here they find safe hiding-places, and miners, like dead men, "tell no tales."

As yet we have spoken only of the mines where the material is brought up at least half way on trucks; but if the visitor who has come to the surface of one of these insists on the fact that in near spots the *carusi* do all the business, he will succeed in being taken there, and on a rough waste at the pit's mouth will see one after another the naked, sweating toilers reach the surface, bending under their load—the groaning, not dissimilar to the death-rattle, audible and continuous long before you *see* the scarcely human creatures who issue from the mouth of hell. It is said that the children are used gently and by degrees to the toil and danger; and in fact it is one of the duties of the *capomastro* to see that each new comer descends only a certain depth, carries only a certain weight, and is assisted by a more experienced *caruso* to the surface. But only the other day a boy, barely of the prescribed age, sold by his mother to the *picconiere*, too heavily laden and not guided at all, rolled down the almost perpendicular steep, and, crushed under his load, was taken out, after his first journey, a mangled corpse, to his last home, which is but another pit. Note another fact. In a mining district some two miles from Caltanisetta, where there are seven important mines, in each of which the workers vary from 100 to 1,000, there is not a single doctor or surgeon on the spot. Sufferers (and they are numerous) taken ill or injured in the mines, and brought to the surface by their comrades, have to be taken into the town *on foot*, to be cared for or to die. As a rule, catastrophes are rare, yet they do happen when the mines are not properly ventilated or the airshaft is obstructed. One happened some years since in the very mine we descended yesterday. Fifty corpses were taken out, forty died on the surface, other thirty were saved by the courage and coolness of the *capomastro* (Gagliardi by name), who has the gold medal and ten children, not one of whom is he bringing up to his direful, dangerous trade.

Need I say that miners chiefly figure on the list of delinquents, and especially as homicides? Girgenti stands first on the list—50 per 100,000; Caltanisetta, 35, as against 2, 3, 5, 8 in other non-mining districts. The prisons are the very worst I have ever visited—which is saying much. One of them is actually in the same building as the elementary and secondary schools; male and female prisoners, condemned and those arrested and awaiting their trial, all huddled together, with crime for school and the worst species of camorrists for school-

masters. I was able to visit all the cells and to speak with the prisoners. Asking for what fault each was arrested, the murderers answered frankly, "Homicide"; the thieves looked ashamed; those imprisoned "for crime against morality," indifferent or cynical. Numbers are there for participation in strikes. For one strike at Monte d'Oro there is a father, his wife, and two sons, his brother, and nephew, with wife and infant, born in prison. I mean to reach the history and mystery of that strike. No one was hurt or killed; no intimidation was used, as the entire family of miners struck for higher wages, and because the box, according to them, was bigger than it ought to be (as here the money is paid by size and not by weight). They burnt the *cassa*, and threatened the Mayor, who is also interested in the mine; did not disperse at the order of the carbineers, and some say threw stones. The punishment has been mitigated "by royal decree," but has twenty-one months still to run. A worse strike took place at Favara, in the province of Girgenti, where the cause was the truck system and tally shops—an infamous system grafted on a shameless institution. The men clamored to be paid in money, not in bad flour and paper shoes, at high prices. The employers combined and refused; the men and women set fire to the Casino dei Signori, the gentlemen's club, and in the scuffle killed a carbineer. Here the penalty will be thirty years at the galleys.

In a mine some twenty miles from Caltanisetta, conducted by a French company, the *capomastro* was murdered last month in the mine and a shot fired at the French engineer. The firer, a lad of twenty, was arrested and is condemned to twenty years at the galleys. The rest are still on trial. Here cause and consequence follow in rapid succession. On Saturday the miners all knock off work at twelve, and Saturday afternoon and Sunday they spend chiefly in the public houses, drinking the cheap, strong wines of the country, and adjusting their quarrels. Their earnings vary. The miner makes from three to four lire a day, the *caruso* from one to two lire. The latter rarely see their money, but the *picconieri*, after giving their wives (whom, by the way, they never ill treat, even in drink) sufficient for next week's food (*bread* at breakfast and dinner, soup of paste and vegetables in the evening), drink up all the rest.

Attempts have been made by benevolent citizens not interested in mining gains to better their condition. Evening schools are opened, and it is wonderful how many tired, wretched children frequent them. Mutual aid societies, for pay during illness and for burial expenses, you find here and there, but these are poultices on cancer, and nothing more. Here we want missionaries—a Mazzini, a Lloyd Garrison, Mrs. Fry, Lucretia Mott, the Rochdale pioneers—to get hold of the children, of their mothers; to stir up public opinion until, while the "sacred rights of property" are respected, the sacred rights of humanity shall not be openly, flagrantly, brutally violated. Here, indeed, the young men who spout at clubs and twaddle in newspapers might find a grand field for labor; find an "ideal" which they complain is wanting to their generation. Communal, provincial, State authorities are called upon by these "reformers" to mend all; but they can do next to nothing until the mining populations combine to will an altered state of things—not by partial, useless, and lawless strikes, seeing they save not a farthing for the time when they are out of work, but by bringing their wants and wills, their sufferings and their wrongs, to bear on the absentee proprietors and the sweaters, etc. The time will come, is coming; but now one can only exclaim, with wrung heart and harrowed soul, "How long, oh Italy! how long!" J. W. M.

Correspondence.

THE CONFLICT OF THE FUTURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Gov. Russell has justified the efforts which the people of Massachusetts made last autumn in his behalf. In his inaugural address he has strongly and clearly developed the idea which he started last year, and which has been the keynote of his administration—the false position of, and the want of responsible power in, the chief executive. He points out that, with the confirmation of appointments and removals by the Council, there are practically ten Governors instead of one; that there are twenty-five State commissions and more than 100 trustees of public institutions.

"Experience has shown as practical results of such a system:

"First—That neither the Governor nor the people through him have any adequate power over the executive departments, of which he is the head, but his power is practically limited to suggestions, advice, and appointments to fill vacancies.

"Second—That over many of the departments and executive offices there is no power of control in any one.

"Third—That the power of removal, and so of control, usually requires for its exercise a formal trial upon specific charges, and proof of absolute malfeasance in office.

"Fourth—That an officer of an important public department accused of official misconduct which, in the opinion of the Governor, requires his removal, may remain in office without the confidence and against the will of his executive chief.

"Fifth—That a member of an important commission may hold his office indefinitely after his term has expired, without appointment and without the approval of the Governor.

"Sixth—That nominees of the Governor, beyond criticism and objection, may be refused confirmation for the sole and declared purpose of holding in office men whose term of office has expired.

"Seventh—That with the present limitations upon the power of removal, the power to confirm can always be used for this purpose, and successfully in every case of an expired term."

It is true that he does not touch upon the root and basis of the whole evil, the fact that executive unity and subordination are destroyed by the separate election of the chief officers of the State; but his vision seems to be obscured in this respect by the Democratic maxim that the people have the right to elect their officers, not seeing that in the executive branch this is fatal not only to efficiency, but to a working possibility as well as to all responsibility, and that the true way for the people to exercise control is to elect one head and make him responsible for his subordinates.

The Governor halts, also, in his proposal for remedy. Instead of boldly demanding the abolition of the Council and the power of appointment for the Governor of the chief officers of the State, and through them of their subordinates—one man in every place—and thus paving the way for the ultimate abolition of the commissions and boards of trustees, Gov. Russell modestly limits himself to a request for the power of removal of officials, leaving the confirmation of appointments to the Council, and, besides this, the whole jumble of commissions and trustees, with various terms of office. The demand is so small that, even if it were granted, it would make hardly a perceptible difference in his position.

But it will not be granted. The people of this country are accustomed to the party conflicts of Republicans and Democrats, but they have not waked up to the fact that there is an "irrepressible conflict" between Executive and Legislature; that the Legislature has absorbed practically all the power, and used it to reduce all government to anarchy, of which the ultimate result is civil war and, beyond that, despotism. The Legislature will no more grant Gov. Russell's demand than they would the rest, and their simple mode of defeating him is to pay no attention to his recommendations, or, what is the same thing, refer them to a committee, so that after a year or two the obnoxious incumbent may glide out of office with no result beyond the satisfaction of expressing his opinions. The struggle is an unequal one between a single man, who can retain office but for a short period, and a numerous body, which, however its members may change, remains animated by the same corporate spirit.

How the people, by whose aid alone any successful result can be obtained, can be made to understand the question, and to put forth their strength in relation to it, is a problem by no means easy of solution. But if we consider that the difficulty is the same with the government of forty-four States as well as that of the nation, although at Washington it is in a different stage, then I say that Gov. Russell deserves the gratitude of the whole United States for having had the courage, in defiance of tradition and of the spirit of the Legislature, to state squarely the issue upon which more than any other the future of government in this country depends.

If the people of the United States should see the point, and give him that reward which would do most to stimulate him and other Governors to move on in the same direction, I can only say that my respect for popular government and universal suffrage, standing already at a very high point, would be enormously increased. Gamaliel Bradford.

Boston, January 9, 1892.

PARTY AN END IN ITSELF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: No better illustration can be found of the humiliating principles which are now dominating the quondam great Republican party of Massachusetts than is furnished by the speech of Mr. W. E. Barrett at Brockton the other night. This is a time peculiarly favorable to the honest, straightforward discussion of political problems. In the lull which fills the interval between the squall just past and the heavy storm to come, candid and sincere opinions are given which it is impossible to obtain at any other time. Consequently, the words of a leader are looked upon as carrying a special weight and significance. According to the advice of the Honorable Speaker of our House of Representatives, the lofty aim and purpose of the party with the "grand old past" should henceforth be to "inculcate in the minds of the voters the belief that the Republican party is an organization . . . determined at all events to form itself into a great political army, not for one election, not for one decade, but for generations." And a little further on he declares that if only the Republican party has clung to the principle of popular sovereignty, "then it is an organization not meant for one crisis or for one generation, but to be strengthened and perfected, no matter under what

leader or what may be the temporary questions which present themselves." It is this policy of putting the cart before the horse, party before principle, that has repelled from the Republican party a host of conscience voters since 1884. In our last State campaign, circulars were sent among Republican voters asking their opinion as to the issues on which the coming campaign should be fought! I cannot imagine a more shameful confession of utter lack of honest purpose. To Mr. Barrett belongs the glory of first coming out squarely and openly for conducting future campaigns upon no issue whatever.

Obtuseness has never characterized the voters of Massachusetts, and one or two more speeches like the one under discussion will open their eyes to the fact that their politics is being run "for selfish political ends, or for no end at all." Yours respectfully,

R. W. W.

Boston, January 5, 1892.

THE ADVENT OF THE AUSTRALIAN BALLOT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article in the January *Forum* on the Australian Ballot reminds me that before it is too late I should put in my claim as first inventor, or, in other words, claim the authorship of the first "Australian Ballot Law" in the United States. The Kentucky act to amend the election laws for the city of Louisville was passed on the 18th of February, 1888. The skeleton of the act was read by me, with comments upon its main features, at a meeting of the "Conversation Club," one of the two leading literary societies of Louisville, in October, 1887. Mr. Arthur Wallace had been elected to the Legislature from Louisville in August of that year, and had resolved to put through a radical measure of reform. He knew that I took an interest in the subject, and that I had some experience in framing municipal laws. I was then Assistant City Attorney, and drawing charter amendments was in the line of my duty. But this particular amendment was not of the kind which the authorities would request me to frame; in fact, the men most powerful in the city councils were bitterly opposed to it.

In conference with Mr. Wallace, I drew up the bill substantially as it passed, yielding those points to him, of course, which he insisted on; all but the new criminal clauses, in which, knowing the laxity of our punitive justice, I felt very little interest. Mr. Wallace, by giving up all and every private object, and concentrating his endeavors solely on this great object of reform, succeeded, with the aid of the country members, in getting the bill passed, and I believe it antedates the Massachusetts Act of 1888. It applied only to this city; our Constitution, as it then stood, demanded viva-voce voting in all State and county elections.

Our bill was framed mainly on the British Act of 1872. The candidates were to be grouped in alphabetic order, and about this there was no room for choice, as it was not usual then to have party nominations. Of course, there were no pasters and no permission to use unofficial ballots. The only provision for illiterates was the distribution on the eve of election of a facsimile ballot, on which the illiterate might, by inquiry among his friends, learn how to vote. The Court of Appeals having intimated that this is not enough, the law has since been amended by authorizing the clerk of the polls to make a dot against the name indicated by the illiterate voter, who may afterwards put his cross either there or elsewhere as he chooses. The act has a corrupt-practices clause; that is, a single attempt at bribery or intimidation which can be brought home to the candidate, avoids his certificate, suit being brought for that purpose before the common-law court by any five citizens. A contest is also to be decided by the court, not as heretofore by the Council.

The new Constitution extends the "secret official ballot" and the principle of the "corrupt-practices" act to the whole State; but before it was framed, some of the smaller cities had in the main copied the "Wallace Law," and it is quite likely that, but for this initial step, the Convention of 1890-'91 would not have undertaken to embody this reform in such strong, sweeping, and unequivocal words in the organic law of the State.

Very respectfully, Lewis N. Dembitz.

Louisville, January 2, 1892.

BOBBIN AND LATCH-STRING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It may interest your correspondent on the "Bobbin and Latch-string" in No. 1383 of the *Nation* to know that among poor people in this State the "latch-string" is in common use. A wooden latch is used, to which a string is fastened and passed through a hole in the door, three or four inches above the latch. The door is made secure against outsiders by simply pulling in the string. "My latch-string always hangs outside for you" is a common phrase in this State, and is understood to be synonymous with unbounded hospitality.

Yours respectfully, G. S. W.

North Carolina, January 5, 1892.

Notes.

Roberts Bros., Boston, publish this week 'A Last Harvest: Lyrics and Sonnets,' by Philip Bourke Marston, edited by Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton; a cheaper edition of William Morris's 'Story of the Glittering Plain'; 'The Tragic Comedians,' by George Meredith; 'Wells of English,' by Isaac Bassett Choate; and 'Pastels of Men,' by Paul Bourget, a second series, translated by Miss Wormeley.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce a serial publication, 'The Homes and Haunts of Shakspere,' by James L. Williams, with photogravure and other illustrations; a series of English poets, to be called "The Muses' Library," beginning with Herrick, to which Mr. Swinburne furnishes a preface; a "Great Educators Series," beginning with Aristotle, by Thomas Davidson, and Loyola, by the Rev. Thomas Hughes; and 'Two Happy Years in Ceylon,' by Mrs. C. F. Gordon Cumming.

The Harpers have nearly ready the volume of Moltke's early letters to his mother and brothers; 'The Marquis of Salisbury,' by H. D. Traill; and a new and revised edition of Keep's Autenrieth's 'Homeric Dictionary.'

Cassell & Co. have in preparation a 'A Life of Gen. Robert Toombs,' by Pleasant A. Stovall.

Macmillan & Co. announce for early publication a new volume of the "Library of Philosophy," entitled 'The Philosophy of Aesthetics,' by Bernard Bosanquet.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will issue next month the American copyright edition of 'Meditations on the Life of Christ,' by Thomas à Kempis, a work generally unknown.

Thomas Whittaker is about to publish 'A Cyclopædia of Nature Teachings,' with an introduction by Hugh Macmillan, LL.D.

'A First Family of Tasajura,' by Bret Harte; John Fiske's 'Discovery of America'; 'A Golden Gossip,' by Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney; and 'Roger Hunt,' a story by Mrs. Celia P. Woolley, are forthcoming publications of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

As pertinent to the approaching Columbian Exposition, A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will bring out a new 12mo edition of Joel Barlow's epic, the 'Columbiad.' Mr. Charles Burr Todd, Barlow's biographer, will contribute a critical sketch of the poet.

Charles H. Sergel & Co., Chicago, announce a series of histories of the Spanish-American Republics, beginning next month with Peru, by Clements R. Markham. Brazil has been assigned to W. E. Curtis, and the Argentine Republic to the author of 'An Earnest Trifler.'

Dr. L. H. Mills's edition of the 'Gâtha Ahunavaiti,' with the Zend, Pahlavi, Sanskrit, and Persian texts (the first three translated), is now in type and will soon be issued; also the 'Commentary on all the Gâthas.' A very large discount will be made to clergymen and to scholars applying directly to the author at No. 19 Norham Road, Oxford. The importance of the subject to the history of Scriptural doctrines may be learned from Canon Cheyne's article in the *Nineteenth Century Review* for December, 1891.

Methuen & Co., London, are about to issue in six or eight volumes an authorized edition of the 'Speeches and Public Addresses of the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone, M. P.,' with notes and introductions, edited by A. W. Hutton, Librarian of the Gladstone Library, and H. J. Cohen. The collection will, of course, be not complete but merely representative. It will in size be uniform with Prof. Thorold Rogers's edition of Mr. Bright's Speeches, and each volume will contain a portrait of Mr. Gladstone. It is hoped that the first volume may be ready in July. The work will be issued to subscribers.

An interesting example of the way the higher criticism is coming to be put into forms to be understanded of the common people is furnished in the 'Genesis of Genesis,' by the Rev. B. W. Bacon (Hartford: *Student* Publishing Co.). Not quite half the book is taken up with a discussion of the methods of historical criticism and documentary analysis, and with an account of the harmony of the leading authorities as respects the main points, and then comes a graphic representation of results as arrived at in the book of Genesis; the various documents being shown in their juncture and overlapping by the use of different type. Prof. G. F. Moore contributes a brief but sympathetic introduction.

Three volumes of poems, one of Medical Essays, and one, 'Our Hundred Days in Europe,' complete the baker's dozen that form the handsome new Riverside Edition of Dr. O. W. Holmes's Writings (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Only to the Medical Essays has the author thought it worth while to give a new preface, but this is a third. Dr. Holmes sticks to his guns in regard to homœopathy, and thinks he sees it in danger of being swallowed up by its logical progeny, Christian Science and faith cure. On the other hand, he repeats his acknowledgment of the good accomplishing by reducing the heavy drugging of the old school. The final volume is provided with an index to the thirteen, filling nearly 100 pages, for which Dr. Holmes's admirers will be duly grateful.

In addition to the volume of Poems, already

noticed by us under their proper rubric, the Brantwood Edition of Ruskin's Works (Chas. E. Merrill & Co.) has been advanced with 'Munera Pulveris' and 'The Queen of the Air.' Prof. Norton's introduction to the first is a sort of reconciliation of Ruskin's "political economy" with the genuine article by explaining their absolute lack of identity, and is both an ingenious, a truthful, and a charitable apology. The like friendly service for the medley, 'The Queen of the Air,' is also noticeable for its ingenuity, and there are again several piquant extracts from private letters of Ruskin's which dispense Prof. Norton from saying a good deal, or from bearing on.

A. C. McClurg & Co. have brought out a new edition of Sir Joshua Reynolds's 'Discourses,' edited with notes and an historical and biographical introduction by Edward Gilpin Johnson, and illustrated with twenty half-tone reproductions from Sir Joshua's own pictures, which form a curious commentary on the text. Sir Joshua's theories of generalization and the "grand style" are of the eighteenth century, and are very much shop-worn and out of date at present; but he was a painter as well as a theorist, and his discourses are full of shrewd remarks and admirable advice. The struggle in him of temperament with education —of the painter's love for the concrete and the particular with the philosopher's theoretical admiration for the abstract and the general—makes him very interesting reading, and, perhaps, not unprofitable, at this day, when his misunderstanding of Michael Angelo, Raphael, and the Greeks can do little harm, and may serve to interest the art student in those immortal masterpieces which innumerable modern "movements" are too likely to push out of our sight. The introduction and notes are sufficient, and the book is neatly printed.

In 'Nature in Books' (London: Methuen), Mr. P. Anderson Graham has undertaken, under a somewhat misleading title, to trace the early formative influences which went to the making of Jefferies, Tennyson, Thoreau, Scott, Carlyle, Burns, and Wordsworth. In two cases at least (Tennyson and Carlyle) he is forced to admit that books had a greater moulding power than nature. His essay is a curious combination of discursiveness and vigor, and from its main literary judgments there is little reason to dissent; the author often throws out an *obiter* of singular perverseness. On the whole, these studies in biography are to be commended.

Prof. Basil Hall Chamberlain, who is about to take a year's leave of absence from his duties as Professor of Japanese Literature and Philology in the Tokio University, has just issued the second and revised and enlarged edition of his invaluable 'Things Japanese.' About twenty-five new articles appear in the work.

Ohm's 'Galvanic Circuit Investigated Mathematically' has just been republished in the Van Nostrand pocket Science Series. Mr. Thomas D. Lockwood furnishes an introduction, from which it is to be inferred that the present translation, by William Francis, is new, and there has been but one other, now not easy to procure.

Mr. Fred. A. Ober's 'Knockabout Club on the Spanish Main' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat) takes his youthful readers to Venezuela—a land of mystery, romance, or adventure, from the time when the eager Spaniards first listened to the fable of El Dorado down to the present time. This book contains a good deal of interesting information about Bolivar's country not elsewhere, so far as we know, to be had, at any rate in a form likely to entertain boys; and this, eked out with some account of the buccaneers, and a description of the little-known island of Curaçao, makes up the volume. Mr. Ober's style would be improved if he studied simplicity more and made less effort to be humorous. He no doubt would reply to this that he knows his market and supplies the demand.

In our late mention of the newest bound volumes of *Scribner's Magazine* we might well have spoken of the Index to volumes i.–x., already on our table. The editor takes occasion to pass in summary review the contributions of the decade, both literary and pictorial, with a degree of satisfaction which nobody will find excessive. The index is in two sections—Articles and Authors, and Illustrators (not engravers, except author-engravers). The latter is a just and useful innovation.

That the Germans are great book-writers and readers, but very poor buyers, is a well-known fact, which is again brought home by a recent showing in the Berlin *Boersen-Courier* that even fame or notoriety is not such an aid in the sale of books as it is in other countries. It seems that, some time before Bismarck's dismissal, the publishers H. Fried & Co. made a compilation of Bismarck's speeches and letters and printed them in several volumes as 'Prinz Bismarck's Gesammelte Schriften.' Orders came in briskly from the booksellers, and a third of the large edition was bespoken before the first volume appeared. Then came the Chancellor's fall, the demand ceased at once, and in the twenty-one months following not a hundred copies were sold, although the price had been reduced to $1 a volume. The publishers are now offering for sale the plates and the 3,000 volumes remaining on their hands.

The *Overland Monthly* begins in the January number a series of communications from the Lick Observatory. The first article relates to lunar photography, and the work of the Drapers, father and son, Bond, Rutherfurd, and others is instanced. Fairly good process-cuts are given of three photographs of the moon taken with the great telescope in 1888 and 1890. Those who own small telescopes will find it interesting to compare these plates with the veritable moon. With the idea of securing a pair of satisfactory negatives at intervals of a few hours throughout a whole lunation, the taking of moon-pictures has been made a part of the regular routine work at Mount Hamilton. From time to time changes on the lunar surface have been reported, but very few of them can be considered as established. They largely arise from simple alterations in the aspect of a crater or other formation due to alterations in the shadows. A fine series of lunar photographs must obviously afford the ultimate decision in all such cases. It is unfortunate that the photographic plate cannot be appealed to for a ruling on such anomalous observations as those published from the Lick Observatory which have suggested a real duplicity of the inner satellite of Jupiter. This very improbable condition of things makes it wise to adopt, for the present at least, that explanation of the observed phenomena which assigns the apparent duplicity to mere contrast of the background upon which the satellite was projected.

Mr. Lawrence Rotch, of the Blue Hill (Mass.) Meteorological Observatory, in summarizing the records of the last month, finds that its temperature was exceptionally high—higher, in fact, than that of any December in more than eight years. Sunshine was much in excess of the usual amount, and the neighboring ponds were mostly free from ice during the month. Summarizing for the entire year, it is found that the average temperature and pressure were both higher than for many years; also, there was a smaller number of rainy days and a greater frequency of southwest winds than the average. Other noteworthy phenomena of the year were the exceptionally high humidities and an excess of rainfall in January and February, the heat of mid-June, a cool July, an exceptionally warm September, a dry autumn, and a fall of three inches of snow in October. In central New England the present winter has been remarkable for a practically entire absence of snow until the 6th of January.

Lewis Bohn, Milwaukee, expects to issue in mid-April a quarterly classified Bibliography, bearing his name, "of all new publications in the English language," together with announcements of forthcoming works.

The voluminous 'Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies' still in progress has just begun to be illustrated by an Atlas, of which Part I. has been issued by the War Department. It is published in folio, and contains five double-page plates, beginning with Capt. (afterwards General) Seymour's sketches of the Confederate batteries built or manned for the reduction of Fort Sumter in February, 1861. These are succeeded by sketches of Rich Mountain battlefield, W. Va., of Bull Run, and Manassas, of Belmont, Mo., the defences of Charleston harbor, etc., etc. Some of these are official, by engineers; others, memoranda from observation or hearsay. The execution of these maps needs no praise. They have been made by Julius Bien & Co. of this city.

The Royal Geographical Society has just issued a circular in reference to the confusion in British maps with regard to the spelling of geographical names, and advocating the adoption of an arbitrary system of orthography. The general principle proposed by the Society in 1885 is again stated, "that in writing geographical native names vowels should have their Italian significance, and consonants that which they have in the English language." This principle has been adopted in the charts and maps issued by the Admiralty and War Office, and has been accepted by the Foreign and Colonial Offices. "Even more important, however, than these adhesions is the recent action" of the United States Government in the adoption of a system in close conformity with that of the Society. France and Germany, it is added, have both formulated similar systems of orthography for foreign words. In order that the principle may be thoroughly understood by travellers and others interested, it is proposed to publish some tentative indexes of a few regions, in which the place names will be recorded in the accepted form.

Not long ago we drew attention to the fact that the Bishop of Guiana, Dr. Austin, had entered upon the fiftieth year of his episcopate. The remarkable fact, that down in South America a clergyman of the Anglican Communion had for so long a time been the Bishop of one and the same diocese, did not pass unobserved in the Old World, and telegrams of congratulation were sent to the venerable prelate by the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Secretary of State for the Colonies. Now, Queen Victoria has just honored the Bishop, who is also Primate of the West Indies, by appointing him to be Prelate of the Order of St. Michael and St. George—the Order of Knighthood reserved for the Colonial and Diplomatic Services. We may mention, by the way, that Bishop Whipple of Minnesota and the Bishop of Missouri have sent contributions towards

the Building Fund of the Cathedral at Georgetown, British Guiana, wherein it is hoped the Bishop of Guiana will celebrate his Jubilee on the 24th of August next.

By an oversight, we credited last week to the wrong firm the American publication of Collingwood's 'Art Teaching of Ruskin.' We should have given the name of the Messrs. Putnam.

—The alleged "Daily Prayers" of Washington are reproduced in facsimile in the first issue of the *Beacon*, a magazine devoted to "religion, literature, and the reproduction of rare manuscripts." Dr. Deems has very amiably written an essay on the prayers, and the owner of the MS., a dealer in autographs, contributes a very touching picture of Washington "in the pleasant library at Mount Vernon, kneeling at a chair surrounded by his family and household slaves, reading aloud in impressive cadences the beautiful language of these prayers." Of course, some attempt is made to determine the date of composition, for that is an essential point in establishing the authenticity of the MS. The legend of the catalogue is vamped for the purpose, and the prayers are said to have been written between 1750 and 1756, and to have been used by Washington in camp during the French and Indian war. Note the judicial opinion of Dr. Deems: "It [the MS.] is manifestly in the handwriting of George Washington. Compared with another MS., a paper containing the plot and measurements of a certain piece of waste land surveyed for Maj. Lawrence Washington, and which was made and signed by 'G. Washington,' and by him dated August 23, 1750, I am inclined to believe that the prayers were written in Washington's early life, probably about the time he started on the military expedition to western Virginia in 1754." And the authority of "one of his aids, Col. B. Temple," is quoted on the use of prayers in camp.

—This evidence is utterly worthless. In a single collection of Washington MSS., we have his copy-book, 1745; his notes of a journey, 1747; surveys, 1749–1750; his commercial correspondence and his letters during the Bouquet expedition—an almost unbroken series, by which we may judge accurately what changes occurred in his script. In no case is there the least resemblance to the script of the "Daily Prayers." Further, all of Washington's papers were captured at Fort Necessity, and so these prayers could not have been with him in his first campaign. As to the second campaign, the definite character assumed at that time by Washington's writing rules the prayers out, as there is no resemblance to be traced save in the single word *amen*. When Col. Benjamin Temple was obtained as an "aid," history saith not. He was not on the rolls of the troops serving in the French and Indian War; he never was an aid to Washington. In 1778 he was in Virginia to superintend the clothing of a regiment then being raised, and his delay in accomplishing that task brought down upon him some criticisms from headquarters; but there is not the slightest evidence of his having had any of Washington's confidence. A comparison of a letter of Judge Bushrod Washington with the MS. of the prayers would have raised the question whether he, or his father, was not the writer. The similarity in penmanship is striking, and far greater than can be established between any writing of George Washington and that of the prayers.

—That eminent English physicist, Lord Rayleigh, reviewing in a recent number of *Nature* Prof. Langley's 'Experiments in Aerodynamics,' directs attention to the work of early authorities, among them Newton and John Robison in his 'System of Mechanical Philosophy,' the latter of whom enunciated what is known as the law of the simple sine, the immense importance of which was clearly recognized by Wenham in a valuable paper upon flight in the Report of the Aeronautical Society for 1866. Some years later, Mr. W. Froude, the greatest authority upon kindred matters, discussed the whole subject with characteristic insight and lucidity. The laws of resistance, says Lord Rayleigh, were fairly well established many years ago, at least in their main outlines. The chief problem is, of course, the law of obliquity; and this Prof. Langley has attacked with two distinct forms of apparatus, which are beyond the scope of our present writing. When once the law of obliquities is known, the problem of aerial maintenance presents no further theoretical difficulty. It was successfully treated many years ago by Penaud (Aeronautical Society, 1876), and later by Froude. Lord Rayleigh thinks the work of Penaud so little known that he proceeds to recapitulate some of his theoretical conclusions. Penaud actually constructed a successful flying-machine, in which horizontal flight was maintained by a screw-propeller; the energy being stored by means of stretched india-rubber. The principle of the rocket, Lord Rayleigh says, may perhaps be employed with advantage, and even upon a large scale the abolition of all machinery would allow of considerable extravagance in the use of explosive material. While interested to note the coincidence of Langley's favorable view of the practicability of flight upon a large scale, with the conviction of Penaud expressed fifteen years ago, Lord Rayleigh concludes without undue reserve that "sufficient maintaining power is not the only requisite, and it is probable that difficulties connected with stability and with safe alighting at the termination of the adventure will exercise to the utmost the skill of our inventors." Just here the *Cosmopolitan* magazine of this city steps in with an offer of $500 in prizes for three essays upon aerial navigation. As to what may grow out of them, Mr. Edison has offered the free use of his laboratory for experiment; Capt. Haupt, Professor of Engineering at the University of Pennsylvania, is to supervise the engineer's work and the mechanical construction, while Prof. King, probably the most experienced of living aeronauts, has been engaged as adviser in practical aeronautics. Plans and suggestions will be welcomed from all sources, and no effort spared to combat the recognized difficulties of the experiment. It is worthy of further note that no patents are in contemplation, but that the results are to be public property. The essays must reach the magazine by March 1 of this year.

—In Europe, where the custom of giving fees would seem to be indissolubly bound up with the whole framework of society, the feeling has nevertheless gained ground that it is both necessary and possible to put a stop to it. Baedeker, in the latest edition of his 'Switzerland,' says that in that country the practice has become a "monstrosity," and that it is a serious interference with the pleasure of the traveller. At the meeting of the International Innkeepers' Union held at Cologne last month, it was unanimously recognized that, in the interest of the traveller, and no less in the interest of the innkeeper, on account of the dislike of him which it excites in the traveller's breast, the custom must be broken up; and three hours were devoted to a thorough discussion of the best means by which this could be effected. There can be no doubt that the abolition of the custom would be effective in increasing the amount of travelling that takes place. No one, of course, consciously renounces travelling on account of the irksomeness of deciding at each hotel, in regard to porters, waiters, chambermaids, and bootblacks, to just how many of each and to just what extent conscience requires him to practise generosity. But no principle is better established in modern science than that causes which are too weak to be appreciable in any one instance are, nevertheless, effective in the long run. No one thinks, when he sits down in the spring to consider whether he shall make a journey to Switzerland or store up the money which it would cost against the necessities of old age, of the disagreeableness of giving fees; but in the general, vague picture of the pleasantness of the journey which arises before him, no one can tell just what part is played by that element of the situation, and the intending traveller himself least of all. In other words, we have here a picture in little of the statistical effectiveness of small causes—a principle which has been so effective in modern physics, and which the political economist still finds it so difficult to get a firm grip of. The hotel-keepers are doubtless right in thinking the traveller would not only be happier, but also more of a traveller, if he were relieved of the burden of paying fees.

—If rhyming were not one of the primary instincts of human nature, and if Dr. Daniel Sanders, besides being the author of more than one admirable German dictionary, were not also a human being, one might be surprised to see him, at the venerable age of more than threescore and ten, risk his reputation by publishing a collection of original verses. The title of the volume in question, '366 Sprüche' (Leipzig: Ernst Keil's Nachfolger), seems to indicate that it is meant to offer a grain of wisdom for each day of the year. But we cannot help thinking that most readers will prefer swallowing the whole pill at one dose, especially since the absolutely harmless nature of its ingredients deprives it of all possible danger to normal digestion and sleep. Even where the writer (as is frequently the case) exposes human frailties and follies, he does it in such a manner as to offend none but the æsthetic sense, and some of the *Sprüche* display such a monumental commonplaceness that they seem to have been designed as inscriptions for public buildings. How would this, for instance, do for a City Hall?

"Die Ehrlichkeit
Ist zuweilen nicht ohne Beschwerlichkeit;
Dagegen ohne Gefährlichkeit
Ist niemals die Unehrlichkeit."

Or this for a Y. M. C. A. building?

"Den stummen Fischen und quakenden Fröschen
Genüg' es, den Durst im Wasser zu löschen:
Doch begeisterten Menschen, die singen können,
Ist der Wein als begeisternder Trunk zu gönnen."

Or this for the future monument of William II. of Germany?

"Wenn dünkels- und anmassungsvoll
Zu hoch sich stellet Einer,
Erscheint er dem Beschauer nur
Dafür um desto kleiner."

—A memorial of the late Dr. von Holtzendorff contemplates a fund with which to advance the science of criminal law, and the knowledge of all that concerns prisons, by proposing prize questions, by affording the means for travelling, and other methods of carrying forward the investigations and labors of Holt-

zendorff's long life. The headquarters of the association are to be in Berlin, and the governing body is to be composed of the representatives of thirteen societies, viz.: the International Criminal Law Association, the International Commission Pénitentiaire, the Institut de Droit International, the Deutscher Juristentag, the Paris Société Générale des Prisons and Société de Législation Comparée, the Brussels Société des Études Sociales, the Juristische Gesellschaft of Berlin and of Munich, the London Howard Association, the National Prison Association of the United States, the Congress of Dutch Jurists, and the Congress of Scandinavian Jurists. The right is reserved of adding representatives of kindred associations. There is also a small committee of three subscribers to be chosen to coöperate with the representative members. The Fund is to be obtained by donations and subscriptions, both from individuals and from societies, and it is to be expended by the Board in the way best calculated to forward the main purpose of the organization, to honor and perpetuate the memory and services of Prof. von Holtzendorff by just such methods of investigating and improving criminal law and prisons as he followed with so much advantage during his long and busy life. Thus far the American subscribers form a very small proportion of the one hundred and fifty or more names representing the leading European authorities. Holtzendorff had many American students and correspondents, and those who wish to join in this memorial or to ascertain its conditions can do so by addressing Prof. Rosenfeld, Halle. The Treasurer is Mr. Ferdinand Reichenheim, Thiergartenstrasse 10, Berlin W.

KENNAN'S SIBERIA.—I.

Siberia and the Exile System. By George Kennan. The Century Co. 1891.

UNDER the above title Mr. Kennan has collected, in two bulky volumes, the articles which have appeared in the *Century Magazine* at intervals during the last four years. Any one who has read those articles consecutively is already practically acquainted with the contents of the book. A few pictures have been omitted; changes, chiefly of arrangement, have been made in one or two of the papers; the matter remains undisturbed. The series of papers on the prisons of European Russia have been omitted, and the space which they would have occupied is taken up with appendices devoted to special points: a list of the books, documents, and so forth, on the Siberian question consulted; a list of reprimands and the like inflicted on the Russian press by the Censorship during the last ten years; revolutionary documents; laws and orders of the Government with regard to political offences and offenders; letters from Mr. de Windt on the Tomsk forwarding prison and the author's replies; reports on Siberian prisons culled from Siberian newspapers and other public sources; reports from the Governor of Eastern Siberia to the Tzar.

The first thing which strikes the ordinary reader is the delightful and graphic style in which the book is written. Nothing could be better. It takes somewhat deeper knowledge and observation to appreciate another quality, viz., the art with which the omission of what is not desired is concealed. It is the commonest of practices to state only one side of a question, but the knack of doing so in a manner which shall leave the reader utterly unconscious that another side exists, is a rare gift. In his preface, the author states that he had been interested in the subject of Siberian exile since 1879, and had planned a journey of exploration. In 1884 he was enabled to make a preliminary trip to St. Petersburg and Moscow, "for the purpose of collecting material and ascertaining whether or not obstacles were likely to be thrown in his way by the Russian Government." In 1882 he had spoken approvingly of the Russian Government, and he found this of great assistance to him. In 1885 the projected exploration was finally begun. The points to be noted with regard to these facts, mentioned with clever lightness, are as follows: (1) that the nature of Mr. Kennan's preliminary reading between 1879 and 1884 is not stated; (2) that the nature of the material and information secured in his preliminary excursion of 1884 is not stated; (3) that the nature of his feeling in 1882, when he defended the Russian Government, is stated to have been favorable; (4) that the nature of his impressions when he set out on his trip of 1884, when he returned from it, and when he began his exploration with fuller knowledge a year later, is left for the reader to infer—and the inference is expected to be that he set out prejudiced in favor of the authorities, and changed his mind only afterwards. Something of this sort is, in fact, announced later on.

These omissions bear upon the subject in various ways, and Appendix A will aid the unskilled reader in coming to some conclusion as to the spirit in which the expedition was entered on, which has already been the ground of controversy. Among the books there set down as read, quoted from, or consulted (the author has a catalogue of 10,000 numbers, he says), many will be found which date back, not only previous to 1884, but previous to 1879, some even to the extent of forty years. This refers not to the private documents, but to the publications which were for sale openly, and which any one could buy in Russia or Geneva, or could cause to be forwarded from those places. As the author himself makes a point of calling attention in his preface to the fact that more than one-half of his information is derived from official sources, and as he quotes extensively from books, periodicals, and newspapers which are neither rare nor exempt from advertisement, on their appearance, in the prominent newspapers, not to mention the newspapers themselves, we may fairly draw a few inferences from the facts laid before us. One inference is, that even superficial search during the lightly dismissed preliminary journey must have revealed the general character of the evidence which Mr. Kennan was likely to collect, even if it were not already familiar through reading between 1879 and 1884. That it was not wholly a surprise seems probable, from the fact that the author was given the opportunity to make this journey two years after the publication of the Rev. Mr. Lansdell's book, which set forth the rosy view of the matter, and that the final expedition was considered expedient after this preliminary trip, during which preparations were in so advanced a state that five days were reckoned as sufficient to procure letters of introduction—perhaps to make acquaintances also, if the previous trip is to be counted for nothing in the results. It is not usual, to say the least, for wide-awake newspaper men and publishers to enter upon expensive investigation of the same side of a subject which has been so recently set forth by a writer in the same language, unless there is presumptive evidence, amounting to a certainty, that a "surprise" is in store. Reference to Appendix B will convince the reader that, if the very varied list of newspapers and periodicals there mentioned was really compiled from the author's personal reading—which we have every reason to believe is the truth—he did not fail to keep himself duly posted as to Russian publications and doings in the years immediately preceding his journey.

Before entering upon the discussion of these points, however, it may be remarked that the most prominent feature of the narrative, next to its charming style, is the stress laid upon the difficulties of the journey and the sufferings of the author and his companion. An interesting Siberian comment is, that "he has made his sufferings of almost equal magnitude with those of the martyrs whose canonization he is negotiating." This criticism is accompanied by a suggestion that there was no special exhibition of clever cajoling, as represented, in the travellers donning their dress suits and calling on the authorities of each town, as a mark of respect, since, if they had not called on the officials, they would not have obtained the necessary permits; and if they had not donned their dress suits, equally of course, they would not have been received. With the exception of a short journey to the mines of Karâ, which their tardy arrival compelled them to make on horseback, the accommodations, vehicles, food and lodgings made use of by the travellers were precisely those employed by all travellers in Siberia. That there was no dearth of such travellers, the author's frequent complaints of interrupted slumbers at the posting-houses afford abundant testimony. Nor do we ever hear that these Russian and Siberian travellers (including women and small babies, and ranging from a General Governor down) murmur at anything except at delay in obtaining horses. There are Siberians who think nothing of running on to St. Petersburg from Irkutsk, with the same conveniences or inconveniences, once or twice a year, for a visit of a couple of months. If the author and his companion preferred to carry about a photographic apparatus and forty pounds of documents, instead of the usual portable travelling mattress to spread over the baggage in the bottom of the *tarantâs*, and an adequate supply of food, it is a case of choice for which sympathy can hardly be demanded.

As a contrast to these tales of woe, the reader may be interested to know the unphilanthropic, unbusinesslike view of the same subject taken by one of these lady travellers: "We were seven weeks on the way [to Eastern Siberia], and we travelled night and day, with no special fatigue or hunger (though we had little to eat), nor cold (though the degrees of frost were unusually low). One could even sleep, and it seemed as though the feast of fresh air made up for everything." This relates to a mid-winter journey, in January and February. Of another journey in May, during the breaking up of the frost, at the worst season of the year, the same lady says: "We travelled on day and night, when possible, being stopped only two or three times during the four or five darkest hours of the night. No moon; we had wind, rain, snow, and cold; then fine sun and air, and we enjoyed it all. It is, to my mind, the next best way to travelling after a sea voyage."

The minute description of the way in which Mr. Kennan, a man of exceptionally hardy frame, bore the common inflictions of lodgings without beds, poor and scanty food, insufficient clothing, and cold (the Siberians are unable to understand his accounts of shivering for hours with impunity, since people who are not properly protected freeze before they know it),

serves to illustrate the lesson which any reader can apply himself, if the key-word be once supplied; and that key-word concerns the nature of the people who are found in the forwarding prisons and the *étapes*.

Mr. Kennan shows, from official records, that the number of purely political prisoners sent to Siberia each year by "administrative process"—that is, without trial—is, on an average, 125. Allowing twenty-five more per annum as the approximate number of politicals sent as hard-labor convicts and penal colonists, probably for direct violence, murder, robbing sub-treasuries, and other acts universally recognized as deserving of punishment, it appears that a little less than one per cent. of the total number of exiles belong to the political class. In other words, less than one per cent. of exiles belong to the educated classes, who are in any measure accustomed to the comforts of life. Only a very small fraction of this one per cent. have, according to the evidence offered, belonged to the ranks of life or the conditions of fortune in which their physical comforts have been sufficiently great to cause the physical hardships of exile to weigh upon them in the degree which would seem to be natural to the ordinary reader. One need go no further than Dostoevsky's realistic novel, 'Crime and Punishment,' to become convinced that not alone students like the hero of this tale are inured to suffering, but that their life in Siberia might even be an improvement on their life in Russia, except so far as deprivation of books and writing-materials is concerned. The majority of the political exiles are shown to come, if not from the student class, from other classes which are practically similar in the matter of comfort and surroundings. The word "student" in Russia by no means conveys the ideas of luxury, sports, pleasure, and personal elegance which have come to be associated with it in England and America. Many of these noble and courageous fellows deserve the crowns of heroes or martyrs for their endurance of privations in their effort to obtain that education which the privileged classes receive gratuitously in many cases.

After deducting this fraction of one per cent. for the political exiles, we find that nearly 4,000 out of the remaining 99 per cent. of the yearly 10,000 consist of persons banished by administrative order of village communes—not by the Government—because of their general worthlessness and bad conduct, and because they are obnoxious to their fellow-citizens and a burden to society. Out of more than 5,000 exiled by administrative process, by a mere order of the Minister of the Interior, some are furnished by these very peasants who have been exiled by their communes, and whom their communes refuse to receive on the expiration of their term of banishment. Naturally, the majority of the convicts who have had a trial come from the same classes, though some spring from the middle classes and the aristocracy, like the lawyers who conspire to obtain fraudulent divorces, or rob their clients, and like the Count and his accomplices who got money under false pretences—all of which are cases of recent occurrence. However, it is not worth while to consider them separately, since their own deeds have deprived them of privileges and rank.

Practically, then, the vast majority of exiles belongs to the peasant class. This division into two distinct classes, with subdivisions, becomes of importance when our attention is repeatedly called to the absence of bedclothing and pillows in the *kameras* of the *étapes* and forwarding prisons, to the few changes of raiment, to insects, bad ventilation, and other details not in keeping with Western ideas of life's commonest necessities. These peasants are not accustomed to beds, bedding, or pillows at home; they sleep on the floor, on the bench along the wall, on the oven, in their ordinary clothes. Their changes of clothing at home are rarely greater than in prison; the presence of baths in the prisons would seem to indicate that they have something like the same facilities for their weekly baths as at home. The amount of fresh air which they can endure out of doors, and the amount which they can dispense with in the house anywhere, are astonishing. The sanitary conditions at home are probably not much superior to those which they enjoy in prison. The food is probably as good, plentiful, and regular as they have at home—more regular in some cases, no doubt. The forced marches of this class of prisoners can hardly be considered as the extreme of barbarity in itself, since the guards do the same amount, and the chances are that if they were not engaged in tramping from west to east in Siberia, many of them would be tramping north and south, throughout the whole length of Russia, in all weathers, under the guise of pious pilgrimages, to numerous shrines, and subsisting on the spasmodic and precarious charity of the villagers—if they were not engaged in some more reprehensible occupation calling for condemnation. The practice of the *brodyágs*, the runaway prisoners, who pass the summers, with or without leave, in roaming the forests and picking up their living by chance, at the prompting of their Russian blood, returning to prison for the winters, or allowing themselves to be captured, affords confirmation of this assertion. It is difficult to see how bedding could be provided for such masses, constantly changing, or how it could fail, under the circumstances, to add to the insects and unhealthy conditions. In the posting-houses, lodgings, and all the hotels visited by the author (except one or two in large cities), he and all other travellers slept on the floor, omitted ablutions, and had not even the luxury of prison *nári*. It is the modern version of the old Russian idea of luxury, which caused grandees to scorn other people's beds, sheets, provisions, and cooking, and to carry their own paraphernalia and retinue with them. The same idea obtains in some parts of European Russia still.

Other matters which must be taken into consideration are the Russian constitution and the Russian temperament. The former is robust, to put it mildly; the latter is a worthy match for it. These tough-fibred Russians have a way of accepting the inevitable promptly, cheerfully, almost unquestioningly, which, combined with a mystical belief that suffering is a good thing in itself, their native habits, and their normal life, causes the actual amount of misery which they endure to be less than a tithe of what the uninitiated reader would imagine from the harrowing descriptions given by Mr. Kennan, unrelieved by these very important factors in the question. If he did not set out with the intention to see everything in the blackest possible light, why was no hint of these matters given?

RUBINSTEIN ON OTHER COMPOSERS.

Die Musik und ihre Meister. Von Anton Rubinstein. Leipzig: B. Senff. Pp. 153.

THIS little book is the sensation of the hour in Germany. Great composers are expected in our times to write not only scores but books as well. The writings of Berlioz, Schumann, Liszt, Wagner, and others fill many volumes, but Rubinstein had not hitherto made any contributions to literature, excepting a few short essays, and the brief autobiography which appeared about a year ago—and even this was only an interview, edited, however, by the composer, and therefore authentic. But now we have a genuine book from Rubinstein's own pen, which has fallen like a bombshell into two camps at once—that of the worshippers of Handel, Haydn, and Mozart on the one side, and that of the followers of Wagner, Liszt, and Berlioz on the other.

The whole book is in the form of an imaginary dialogue between the composer and a lady who visits him at his villa in Peterhof. She finds his walls adorned with busts of Bach, Beethoven, Schubert, Chopin, and Glinka, and asks surprisedly why Handel, Haydn, and Mozart are not also there. "These are the representatives of my art whom I most revere," is the answer; and in the sequel the reasons for this preference are given in clear and emphatic terms. Having thus "paralyzed" the admirers of the three masters excluded from the first rank of composers, he aims his next blow at the lovers of opera. Mozart's greatness as an opera composer does not save him, for "in my opinion opera is an inferior species of music, anyway," and if the public prefers opera to symphony, that is "because it understands the opera more easily." Then follows an interesting bird's-eye view of the development of music. It leads up to what a sporting writer would call the "heaviest slugging" in the whole book, and the victims of it are Wagner, Liszt, Berlioz and—*all other modern composers after Chopin!*

It has long been known that Rubinstein detested Wagner and did not believe in any of his reforms and innovations in music, nor ever follow them in practice. If any doubts had remained on this point, they would be emphatically set at rest by his remarks on pages 95-105, where we are told that Wagner is "highly interesting, very valuable; but beautiful or great in his works, or deep or high in a specifically musical sense, he is *not*." "His art-principles are so unsympathetic to me that my opinion of him can only serve to provoke your anger." Then he picks to pieces each of Wagner's principles. Wagner puts vocal music above everything, while with Rubinstein "music begins only where words cease." Legend leaves Rubinstein cold. An example of real drama, in his opinion, is to "compel a man to shoot an apple from his son's head." "The leading-motive principle is such a naïve procedure that it cannot claim serious consideration, but produces rather a comic effect"(!). The exclusion of arias and ensembles from opera is a mistake. The orchestra is too much of a good thing, because it diminishes the interest in the vocal part. The use of steam to conceal a change of scene is *intolerable*. The darkening of the auditorium is only a caprice, not an æsthetic requisition, and benefits chiefly the managers by saving gas! The personages in Wagner's dramas are always pathetic, never dramatic (!); there is "no diversity of musical characterization"; "in no case does the melody, the musical thought, characterize the person" (!). And so on, the conclusion being that Wagner cannot be classed among real musicians.

These remarks of Rubinstein are extremely interesting from a sociological point of view. They might be printed as an appendix to Wagner's pamphlet on 'Judaism in Music,' as brilliant proof of his contention that the Jews lack

the dramatic sense. Rubinstein has written almost as many operas as Wagner, but not one of them has won a permanent success on the stage, although many attempts have been made. Wagner's, on the other hand, have slowly but surely conquered the world, and are sung more than a thousand times a year. They have succeeded because they are dramatic, and Rubinstein's have failed because they are undramatic. Meyerbeer, though a Jew, succeeded as an opera-composer because he was willing to learn from other dramatic composers. Had Rubinstein been willing to learn from Wagner, he, too, might have succeeded on the stage, for the time being, at any rate; but his stubbornness and his undramatic instincts prevented him from doing so. And now that he sees his utter failure as an opera-composer, instead of honestly admitting his mistake, he makes a weak exposure of his irritation by attacking Wagner and those dramatic principles which have not only won over the whole musical world, but have leavened all modern music. He has every reason, personally, to detest Wagner, for if Wagner had not taught the world to expect dramatic truthfulness in an opera besides beautiful music, Rubinstein would no doubt have been the hero of our operatic world, instead of being nobody in it.

One cannot help noticing the difference between the two men in nobility of artistic character: Wagner believes that dramatic (vocal) music is the highest of arts, and he clings to his ideal through life against a thousand obstacles; Rubinstein writes almost as many operas as Wagner, but as they prove failures he discovers (after he has passed his sixty-second birthday) that the opera is "an inferior kind of music anyway," and if Wagner succeeded in monopolizing almost the whole musical attention with his operas, this only proves that all his principles are wrong, his music bad, and the musical public a lot of ignoramuses who prefer opera to symphony because "opera is more easily understood." And in conclusion he further shows his lack of a sense of humor by prophesying that time will "judge" these music dramas, although he must have known that Schumann (also undramatic and jealous) made the same prophecy more than forty years ago, since which time these operas have steadily advanced in universal estimation, although not one opera in a hundred ordinarily survives a decade.

It is a great pity that Rubinstein has marred his book by these ill-tempered remarks on the opera and on Wagner, because it is to be feared that they will prevent some of the other judgments in it from having any effect at all. Amateurs will naturally distrust a critic who can not only find no good in Wagner, Liszt, and Berlioz, whom he calls the leaders of the modern epoch in music, but can see nothing original in Franz, Brahms, Dvorák, Grieg, Tchaikowsky, Verdi, Gounod, etc., all of whom he sweeps out of existence with a stroke of the pen by his iterated assertion that "music came to an end with Schumann and Chopin."

Fortunately, in his judgment of the dead, where his bitterness over his personal failure as a composer does not cloud his vision (and it must be admitted that Rubinstein has not received a hundredth part of the honor he deserves as a creator), not only is he trustworthy, but he also does excellent work by rearranging the busts of composers, putting some on higher pedestals, others on lower ones. Placing Glinka among the five greatest composers is, of course, a bit of patriotic arbitrariness which none but a Russian will approve; but in putting Schubert and Chopin in the first rank of composers, and Handel, Haydn, and Mozart in the second, Rubinstein has done a most valuable service, all the more as he gives convincing reasons for this rearrangement of reputations. For half a century and more, historians and critics have parroted certain opinions without ever questioning their correctness. Rubinstein's bombshell will stimulate thought, and demonstrate that if absolute originality is to be taken as a measure of genius, Schubert and Chopin must be placed in the very front rank. We regret that no space remains for quotations, but the book (which Rubinstein himself wrote both in Russian and in German) has already been translated into English, and every one interested will read it himself. We will only add, therefore, that, besides the topics already touched upon, many others are briefly discussed, such as woman's failure as a composer, the utility of conservatories, the value of programme music, prodigies, editions of the classics, great pianists, the arrangement of the orchestra, church music, etc. There are also many admirable incidental remarks on famous pieces, as on the absurdity of calling a certain piece of Beethoven's "The Moonlight Sonata," and the author's brief "programme" for the movement in Chopin's sonata which follows the funeral march, and which, a chaotic mystery otherwise, gains a thrilling significance when we look on it, with Rubinstein, as "the midnight sighing of the wind over the graves in the cemetery." Nor can we refrain from noting with some personal satisfaction that Rubinstein puts Chopin above all other composers for the piano, and calls the collection of Preludes "the pearl of his works"—which agrees with a preference expressed in the *Nation* many years ago for Chopin's Preludes if by any chance all piano-forte music in the world excepting one volume were to be destroyed.

TWO BOOKS BY PROF. SHALER.

Nature and Man in America. By N. S. Shaler, Professor of Geology in Harvard University. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

The Story of Our Continent: A Reader in the Geography and Geology of North America for the Use of Schools. By N. S. Shaler. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1891.

In striking contrast to most of the popular books on geological subjects of one or two decades since, in which the author was apt to take an apologetic attitude towards Nature for fear of wounding the religious prejudices of his readers, Prof. Shaler says frankly, in the opening sentence of the preface to his 'Nature and Man in America,' "Modern Science unhappily appears to be in conflict with the religious traditions of our race." He avoids, however, a flippant attitude towards religion. He speaks in a certain tone of regret of the destruction of many of our ancient ideals, but believes that the study of nature can and will do much to replace that which it has overthrown.

"Half a century ago," he says, "Science appeared as the destroyer of faith and trust in the universe. It seems to me that we are now approaching the time when our knowledge will reaffirm the old belief which our fathers had in the essential control of a beneficent Providence. With each advance in our knowledge concerning the conditions which have brought men to their present state, we come to a fuller sense as to the order and system by which the processes of Nature have made men what they are. There is reason to hope that the faith of our children may be like that of our fathers—better, indeed, than the old faith, for it will rest on the firm foundations of our knowledge, rather than on the trust in the opinion of our elders."

His book is an admirable exposition of the latest views of modern science on the relations of organic life to its environment, treated not in the systematic and to many somewhat dry method of scientific treatises, but in the easy and charmingly colloquial style of which he is so easily the master. While his facts are drawn freely from the results of the work of others, a very important portion of the interesting and often singularly ingenious conclusions are undoubtedly his own, and possibly would not be subscribed to without reserve by all geologists. In the first half of the book he traces the effects that geological changes and consequent variations in the surface conditions of the earth, or in its geography, have had upon organic life and especially upon the human race. In so doing he gives an epitome of the geological history of our continent and of the underlying causes of its present geographical features. In the second half he speculates upon the political bearing which these features have had upon the development of the race.

Areas isolated by natural features were, before modern methods of transportation had practically destroyed all natural barriers, adapted to be the cradle of permanent and strong races. Europe has been in all time peculiarly divided up into such areas; hence the multiplicity of its political divisions and the fixity of race characteristics of the separate peoples which have inhabited them. North America, on the other hand, is unfitted to be the cradle-place of different peoples—its continent is in the main a geographical unit. As regards the beginning of life, the Americas appear to have been better constituted for the nurture of plant than of animal life. They have contributed but one animal to the domestic uses of civilized man, the wild turkey; while the plants which the New World has afforded, such as tobacco, maize, the potato, and tomato, have been sufficient to make something like a revolution in the economic conditions of our civilization. The human inhabitants of America Shaler regards, on geological as well as geographical and ethnological grounds, as of probable Asiatic provenance. The retrogression of the aboriginal inhabitants of the Mississippi Valley from the advanced conditions shown by the mound-builders to the nomadic habits which characterized them at the advent of the Europeans, he ascribes to an eastward migration of the buffalo, which, by furnishing an easy method of supporting life by hunting, discouraged the more laborious pursuits of agriculture.

Among effects produced by geographical conditions upon the European colonists may be mentioned that, to the isolation of the British between the coast on the east and the practically impassable barriers of the Appalachians on the west, Shaler ascribes the great development of maritime pursuits. As these barriers have been broken down by modern methods, and new fields have thus been thrown open to the enterprising youth of the country, commerce has been more and more neglected. Our author's view of the favorable part played by the African slave trade in the early development of our country is noticeable as advanced by one who, though brought up in the slave-holding region, has been most thoroughly identified with the North during his manhood. For the same reason, he is particularly well qualified to show, as he does, the effect of the soils upon the people living upon them as illustrated in the way in which the inhabitants of the

border States espoused in some cases the pro-slavery and in others the anti-slavery cause; and thus brings geology in direct contact with politics.

Reasoning from the same class of causes, he indulges in some interesting speculations as to the future. Canada he regards as destined by nature to become in time a part of our new political system. The idea which has often been advanced, that the Saxon race has physically deteriorated during its stay upon this continent, he considers as unfounded, and brings facts from his own observation during the war to show that the American has greater vitality and endurance than the European. He therefore concludes that our continent is, in its physiographic conditions, well suited for the development of northern Europeans, and that the people which will be developed here will possess those differences which, by their interaction, bring about the advance of the race.

This little book is intended, according to its preface, primarily for beginners in the study of geology; it would seem also to be full of interesting suggestions to the more advanced student, while the peculiar clearness and simplicity of its mode of presentation render it intelligible to the average reader who may not possess a technical knowledge of geology or biology.

'The Story of Our Continent' is another small volume by the same author, characterized far too modestly by its sub-title. It is devoted more exclusively to what might be called the geological and biological history of the geography of our continent, and touches but lightly upon the ethnographical and political speculations found in the first-mentioned volume. In so brief a space, no better exposition could be found of the best methods of the modern geography, which does not content itself, as did the school geographies of our youth, with a barren enumeration of the superficial features of the globe—its mountains, valleys, rivers, and oceans—and a dry statement of its political divisions and the peoples which inhabit them, but seeks the underlying causes of these features. To this end geography is obliged to call upon its sister science, geology, and learn from it the phases in its history to which these various features are due.

It is only within a comparatively recent period that the field of geological research has been sufficiently extended over the more mountainous and inaccessible portions of our continent to enable the geologist to reconstruct a tolerably complete history of its development, and even now there remain many gaps in that history yet to be filled. Mountainous regions form the favorite field of study for the geologist, for there alone the evidences of the critical phases in the orographic history of the globe, the great earth movements, can be detected. Moreover, although the high mountains of the world are, in their present form, of comparatively recent geological age, the mountainous regions have been the most permanent land-masses, and are therefore in one sense the most ancient geographical features of the globe. In the numerous incursions of the sea upon the land, during the earlier epochs of the earth's history, certain portions of these regions have always remained above the water, and from their abrasion have been formed the sediments which, first accumulating as sand or mud in the ocean bottoms, have later been consolidated into the sandstones and limestones which form the greater part of the present surface crust of the earth. These sediments naturally accumulated in greatest thickness near the shore-lines of the land-masses from which they came; hence we find that the geological column is there represented by a thickness of sedimentary rocks many times greater than that found in the great depressions like the Mississippi basin, which are far away from any great mountain uplifts, and which have often been entirely submerged under mediterranean seas. On this fact has been founded one of the most important theories of mountain building, which ascribes the uplifting force to the overloading of the crust in the immediate neighborhood of the mountains, which have been the scene of incessant changes, of constant and almost contemporaneous building up and wearing down. It is by the study of the successive and varied forms of land sculpture produced during these processes of change that modern physical geographers are enabled to trace out the history of the surface features of our land, as has been so admirably done for the river systems of Pennsylvania by Prof. Shaler's colleague, Prof. Wm. M. Davis of Harvard, in a recent memoir which has placed him in the front rank of physical geographers.

Prof. Shaler inclines rather to the biological than the physical side of geography in the little book under consideration, probably because this side has more to attract the attention and interest of the youthful students for whom it is intended. Although it necessarily goes over much of the same ground, it is by no means a repetition of the first-mentioned volume, and, when the same facts are introduced, they are described in a new and generally more detailed manner. The result is not only a model text-book, but one which may be read with interest and profit by a large class of readers whose school days have long since passed.

The Cruikshankian Momus. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Humourist. 4 vols. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

THE establishing of George Cruikshank as a famous artist, and of his works as classics, is going on apace, and is marked by the appearance of republications of some of his earlier works. Probably these are selected as being the more scarce and inaccessible. His work, from about 1840 to his death, was rather more commonly given to regularly published books, or to well-established periodicals, but before that time a large part of it was, as some of it was always, in the form of broadsides, sheets of caricature, frontispieces for music, and the like. A number of the ballads, songs, and bits of prose satire, published between 1791 and 1846, with frontispieces by George Cruikshank, his father Isaac, and his brother Robert, have been gathered by Mr. Nimmo and published in a large octavo volume, under the title 'The Cruikshankian Momus: Pictorial Broadsides and Humourous Song-Headings.' To bring all the pieces within the size of the page, some of the larger ones have been reduced in size. Thus, the etching to the "Lord of the Manor," No. 455 of Reid's catalogue, was nine and one-half inches long; it is reduced to five and three-fourths inches in the publication before us. They all seem to be process reproductions, perhaps from uncolored copies of the originals, and have all been colored by hand. Each colored plate is accompanied by its original literary matter, but there is no attempt at imitation of the original form. The print is large and clear, the pages uniform; tail-pieces, selected chiefly from George Cruikshank's different works (often much later than the ballads they here adorn), are inserted, and the whole is made into a book as handsome as the queer and fantastic colored pictures would allow.

It is an entertaining book for those who like to revive an epoch seemingly as far in the past as the time of the crusades. The text as well as the pictures will remind a man of fifty of many things that were antiquated, indeed, but still in use, in the days of his youth. Here is George Colman's ballad, "The Barber's Wedding," and his admirable song beginning—

> "One night came on a hurricane,
> The sea was mountains rolling,
> When Barney Buntline turned his quid
> And said to Billy Bowling:
> 'A strong sou'wester's blowing, Bill;
> Hark! don't you hear it roar now?
> Lord help 'em! how I pities all
> Unhappy folks on shore now.'"

And here is "Paddy Carey," which was included in many a collection of "songs and music" half a century ago. There is something that need not be forgotten in these old bits of broad farce, and the pictures are as good as the verses in themselves, and have the additional value of being associated with the whole body of work of him whom the publishers of this book call rightly "the great George."

A publication of greater importance in the same line from the same publisher is 'The Humourist,' a work first published in four volumes, small 12mo, in 1819–'21, now reissued in four much larger volumes, with heavy laid paper and large type. This work is a most extraordinary collection of stories, anecdotes, poems, and verses which are hardly poems, all humorous in intention. Here are the jokes that are scarcely jokes, like this—that Capt. Silk had a good name for a soldier, because "*Silk* can never be *Worsted*." Here are the jokes which are centuries old, like Francis the First's conversation with his jester about Charles the Fifth passing through France; and here are the jokes that come down to us from Greek antiquity, like Agesilaus's remark about the walls of Sparta. As for verses, here are many of those "comic and amusing" selections which the "speech-books" of the school-boy made familiar to the generations that are now gray-haired; here is "The Three Black Crows," certainly an excellent piece of simple composition and of good story-telling in rhyme and metre; here is "Monsieur Tonson Come Again"; here is "Bad Company"—the story of the magpie and Tom More; here is "John Gilpin"; here is Mrs. Thrale's "The Three Warnings," and Southey's "The Well of St. Keyne," and that extraordinary piece of George Colman's, "The Elder Brother," which one finds also in Colman's 'Broad Grins.' These four volumes would be a very cyclopædia of old-fashioned fun, but that there is no index nor contents whereby to find anything at need.

The forty colored etchings by George Cruikshank are of his early prime, coming just after the savage political caricatures, the assaults on King George IV. and those equally unmeasured on Queen Caroline, and just before the famous 'Points of Humour.' The plates, on being compared with a good original set, certainly lose a good deal; they are inferior in line, as if reproduced by photographic process, and the coloring is less vigorous—much paler and less forcible—as, indeed, might have been expected. Good colorers by hand of book-illustrations are not common nowadays. But an original copy of the book is a costly rarity now, and these are good Cruikshank pictures after all.

Annals of My Early Life, 1806–1846. With Occasional Compositions in Latin and English verse. By Charles Wordsworth, D.D., D.C.L., Bishop of St. Andrew's and Fellow of Winchester College. Longmans, Green & Co. 1891.

Charles Wordsworth is a nephew of the poet, a son of Christopher, the famous Master of Trinity, a younger brother of Christopher, the eloquent Bishop of Lincoln, and an uncle of the present Bishop of Salisbury. Born in 1806, he still lives, and contemplates a volume of later 'Annals' at no distant day. He had been wiser if he had put all he had to say into one volume, and it need have been no bigger than this, from which a great many letters of congratulation and approval sent to him on his preferments and discourses and Greek Grammar might safely have been omitted, together with all the Greek and Latin poetry. This, however, reveals the man as does no other part, an admirable scholar and by clearest right one of the New Testament Company for the Revision of the Authorized Version; but, as unmistakably, a pedant of such inordinate vanity as the modern world seldom has furnished it for its amused compassion. The Harrow Prize Poem in Latin and the Oxford Prize Poem in Greek are given in full, as, also, is the Latin Prize Essay. But the printing of these back numbers is pure self-effacement in comparison with the four pages of notes on the Prize Essay, which range through the whole length and breadth of classic literature, but are of no imaginable use to any living soul.

His religious character is frankly revealed at the outset when he relates that he was not baptized till six months after his birth, and confesses that "it has always been a cause of some uneasiness." A custom of baptism before birth at one time acquired some prevalence, and Bishop Wordsworth may approve of that. He was educated at Harrow and Christ Church, Oxford, and at either place distinguished himself as much in athletics as in study, and has set down his victories with as much care and pride in the one thing as in the other. In fact,

> "He nothing common did, or mean,
> Upon that memorable scene,"

in his own estimation, looking backward on it from the summit of his years. We have such entries as "Walked with Twistleton," "Wine with Popham," "Breakfast with Phillimore." There is something very naïve in his self-approval for never having given supper parties or had cards in his own rooms, though he accepted invitations to supper and cards from other men. An amusing circumstance is his trouble with a chimney that had smoked 300 years. He went to Dr. Pusey and requested his opinion on the passage in Psalm cxix. 93, "I am become like a bottle in the smoke," but got no help from him. Of Tennyson's prize poem of 1829, "Timbuctoo," he wrote to his brother who was at Cambridge, "If such an exercise had been sent up at Oxford, the author would have had a better chance of being rusticated—with a view of his passing a few months in a lunatic asylum—than of obtaining the prize."

The most interesting pages are those giving an account of his Oxford pupils in 1830; and it is a fact very honorable to him that a group of such remarkable men came to him for tuition. They were James R. Hope (who became Mr. Hope-Scott by marriage with Sir Walter's grandchild, Lockhart's daughter), a Parliamentary lawyer of very great abilities, who turned Romanist (it is said) from studying the subject of Papal aggression; Cardinal Manning, whom Wordsworth had known from childhood and has still for a friend; W. K. Hamilton, the future Bishop of Salisbury; Sir Francis Doyle, afterwards Professor of Poetry at Oxford; Sir Thomas Acland, Lord Lincoln, Charles J. Canning, who afterwards as Viscount Canning was Governor-General of India, and last, and yet first, William E. Gladstone, of whom the Bishop gives some interesting recollections. He was confident in 1830 that Gladstone would some day be Prime Minister, but he little thought it would be as a Liberal, as then he was the stiffest of "those stern and unbending Tories" of whom he very soon became "the rising hope." Several of Gladstone's letters are given, which foreshadow the versatility of the historic man; and one of them, relating how he failed to get the Ireland Scholarship, is more humorous than we imagined him ever to have been.

From Oxford he went to Winchester as second master in 1834, and while he claims for himself certain measures of reform anticipating Arnold's at Rugby on similar lines, his "Reform in Greek Grammar" is the principal ground on which he bases his confidence of the approval of mankind. It would seem to have met with heartiest appreciation. The young man's eye to the main chance was very keen. He made it a rule to get acquainted with as many distinguished persons, or persons likely to be distinguished, as possible; consequently there was a tremendous rally in his favor when he sought the Winchester vacancy, and he gives a formidable list of the men who wrote him letters of recommendation and the offices which they have filled. Like every English ecclesiastical biography, the book reeks with the scent of place-hunting and patronage. The reforms that have made the English civil service so much better than ours have left the abuses of the Church to keep in countenance those of our politics. A postscript on the Oxford movement adds little to what we already knew, but there is a characteristic and delicious passage in which the author relates his efforts to soothe Newman's distress of mind when, after the Tract 90 business, he was wavering in his attachment to the Church of England. Wordsworth wrote him feelingly, "at the same time offering to send him a copy of Wetstein's Greek Testament (2 vols., folio, bound in Russia by Kalthoeber), one of the handsomest books I had in my library." Newman accepted the gift, but, if it soothed his feelings, it was only for a little time.

The Soft Porcelain of Sèvres, with an Historical Introduction by Édouard Garnier. London: John C. Nimmo. 1891. Folio, 32 pages of text and 50 plates in colors.

This is one of those books which furnish their reviewers with the materials of their own criticism, and thereby give cause to the profane to scoff at all reviewing. The whole story of the attempts at imitating in Europe Oriental porcelain, the consequent invention of different "soft" porcelains, and the final happening on the material needed for "hard" porcelain, is told in these pages (1-17), not at very great length, but sufficiently. Then follows, in chapter iv., an account of the composition of the soft porcelain of Sèvres and the peculiarities of the decoration of the early pieces of this ware. Chapter v. contains a list of the chronological marks of the porcelain from 1753 to 1792, and also the private marks of the painters, with their names and mention of the kind of work done by each. And so the too brief text terminates; for there is no attempt at a serious history of the manufacture, no quoting, and but little citation of documents, and no greater fulness of treatment in this monograph than might be looked for in a general history of porcelain, or even in a general history of ceramics. The obvious advantage which this treatise has over others is in its being the latest. Every year increases our clearness of vision, in these archæological matters, and every fresh writer who takes his work seriously is able to reach a more intelligible and useful result. In this connection we may note a correction which the author makes in the tables of date-marks: J., which corresponds to 1762, he says, must be inserted, thus changing all the dates that follow.

We are not told who has translated Mr. Garnier's French text, but it has been well rendered into English. There is also one really important service done the student: the French terms of the trade, *caillouté*, *à culots*, *mignonette shape*, are explained, either by full definition in words or by reference to the pictured form. Some terms of obvious meaning so far as the mere words go, such as *carrée*, *en éventail*, etc., need explanation still in their use as describing pieces of porcelain, and these also are made clear in this book by the pictures which illustrate them. Nor is this a light matter; no French dictionary, glossary, or special work on decorative art exists, it is safe to say, in which these terms are regularly defined; their meaning is to be got at only by long study and comparison. It is also a pleasure to find the distinction made clear, in print which all may read, between the burnishing *au clou* of the gilding of earlier pieces and the agate burnishing of the later ones.

As to the fifty plates and the 500 pictures of rare old porcelain which they contain, it is very hard to speak with confidence, because we like them very much as to their general effect, while they are not delicate nor beautiful on closer examination. They are printed in full color and gold on a very glossy paper, and the effect produced is very like the real porcelain. Perhaps they could hardly be better in this way; but there is an ugly outlining in a purplish-brown ink which shows too much in places, and frequent slips in the registering of the different printings, which in some cases is very noticeable indeed. The plates are, consequently, not very delicate, however fine and rich they appear. They do, however, give a good idea of the look of the ware; and the splendid vases of the Jones collection at South Kensington and those of the Double collection being well portrayed, we must infer the same of the priceless pieces of the Rothschild and Buckingham Palace collections, which are less well known.

England and the English in the Eighteenth Century. By Wm. Connor Sydney. 2 vols., pp. 361, 407. Macmillan & Co. 1891.

In one of the Bampton lectures delivered at Oxford in 1871, Canon Curteis made the following comprehensive charge against the eighteenth century:

"There is probably no one now living who does not congratulate himself that his lot was not cast in the eighteenth century. It has become by general consent an object for ridicule and sarcasm. Its very dress and airs had something about them which irresistibly moves a smile. Its literature—with some noble exceptions—stands neglected upon our shelves. Its poetry has lost all power to enkindle us; its science is exploded, its taste condemned."

This view of the eighteenth century commends itself to Mr. Sydney, and he has col-

ected a mass of information, from various authorities on the period, all of which tends to trengthen and confirm the position taken by he Bampton lecturer. There is, of course, nother side to this, as to most other questions; ut of the other side Mr. Sydney takes no account. The evidence he has gathered together s decidedly interesting, and, although its arangement is open to improvement, the general esult is a readable and valuable contribution o the literature of the subject.

If a large measure of importance is attached o the comforts and conveniences of life, it is ot difficult to make out a strong case against he eighteenth century. From this point of iew the "good old times" were certainly ery bad times. Gangs of robbers infested the treets of London and all the main roads leadng into the city, and the watchmen of the eriod were utterly unable to cope with these uffians or to protect the lives and property of he inhabitants. The streets were unpaved, nd were almost impassable in bad weather, so hat for long periods there was no communicaion between Kensington and Westminster; hile in the country roads the ruts were four eet deep even in summer. There were no dewalks, so that foot passengers were liable o be covered with mud or run over by every assing vehicle, and this was particularly true f those who were compelled by force to 'give" the wall instead of "taking" it. Even s late as 1797, there was only one umbrella in he town of Cambridge, and this precious article vas kept at a certain shop and let out by the our. The fashions, in dress and other matters, seem very absurd to us, as ours will probbly seem to our descendants. Horace Walole declares that the beaux used to carry two vatches, one to tell what the time *was* and the ther what it was *not*. Ladies were obliged to it on stools in coaches, being unable to occupy he usual seats on account of the height of heir head-dresses. As to their gowns, Goldmith says: "A lady's train is not bought but t some expense, and after it has swept the ublic walks for a few evenings, is fit to be orn no longer." Men's hats were very exensive, so much so that when Dean Swift nade his will, he solemnly left his best beaver at to one friend and his second best to another. Rogers used to tell how he had seen Haydn playing at a concert in a tie wig, with sword buckled at his side; and still stranger must Garrick have appeared acting *Othello* in regimental suit of George II.'s body-guard, with a flowing Ramillies wig. Mrs. Yates played *Lady Macbeth* in a hoop eight yards n circumference, while another lady's conception of *Cleopatra* included a hooped petticoat, a stomacher, and a powdered comnode.

The standard of learning was no doubt lower han it now is, especially among the fair sex, nd at the universities this difference was very marked. When Lord Eldon was examined in Hebrew and history for his degree at Oxford n 1770, he was asked only two questions: "What is the Hebrew for the place of a skull?" and "Who founded University College?" and having given satisfactory answers, he was told that he was competent in both subjects! Comparisons of the moral condition of a nation at different periods in its history are apt to be misleading, but without going so far as Lady M. W. Montagu, who wrote that certain statesmen were preparing a bill "for the purpose of excising the word 'not' from the decalogue and inserting it in every clause in the creed," it may be admitted that England in the eighteenth century was quite as immoral as France. Gambling, duelling, and drunkenness were the fashionable follies of the age, and it was such men as Pitt and Sheridan that made these follies fashionable. Perjury was a regular occupation, and its professors walked about Westminster Hall with straws in their shoes to denote their calling. Political morality was at a very low ebb. Bribery was universal. Horace Walpole said that England was absolutely controlled by some two hundred noblemen, who received more from the Government than they paid to it; and Southey wrote: "In order that the fidelity of political supporters might be secured, every office in the State, from the Prime Minister down to the humblest fellow in the Post-office or the Custom-house, was conferred." Truly a lamentable state of things, but not without a close parallel in this glorious nineteenth century of ours. Commissions in the army were bestowed on children and even on young ladies of favored families, and the brutalities practised by press-gangs in recruiting for the navy are not pleasant reading. The country clergymen were no doubt lacking in religious zeal, and many of them were more interested in the pursuit of foxes than in the cure of souls. Arthur Young quotes the following advertisement from a newspaper of the period: "Wanted, a curacy in a good sporting country where the duty is light and the neighborhood convivial." The few really learned divines preached over the heads of their audiences, and gave Wesley and Whitefield an advantage in reaching the hearts of the masses similar to that claimed for the Salvation Army preachers of to-day. In the words of Phillimore: "The profound speculations and subtle logic of Clarke and Butler were not intended for the colliers down whose blackened cheeks the tears furrowed channels as they listened for the first time to Wesley."

Of all these things, and of many more, Mr. Sydney discourses at length, and the picture he draws of England in the last century is certainly not an attractive one. So far as his evidence goes, it makes for Canon Curteis, but it is only necessary to consider the really great movements of the century in scientific and political thought, and the great men whose names are associated with them, in order to reach a more accurate and a fairer conclusion.

We note very few errors. The attempt of the young Pretender took place thirty years, not twenty-five, after that of the Chevalier St. George. Milton did *not* write:

"To-morrow to fresh *fields* and pastures new,"

although the line is generally so misquoted, nor did Johnson write:

"Toil, envy, want, the *garret* and the jail."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bacon, Rev. B. W. The Genesis of Genesis. Hartford: The *Student* Publishing Co. $2.50.
Bird, Isabella L. Journeys in Persia and Kurdistan. 2 vols. London: John Murray; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $6.50.
Chaplin, Stewart. Suspension of the Power of Alienation, etc. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $4.50.
Donelson, Katharine. Rodger Latimer's Mistake. Chicago: Laird & Lee. $1.
Eardley-Wilmot, Capt. S. The Development of Navies during the last Half-Century. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.75.
Fife-Cookson, Lieut.-Col. A Dream of Other Days; a Romantic Poem. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Fullerton, W. M. In Cairo. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Hall, Rev. C. C. Into His Marvellous Light. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Harrison, Frederic. The New Calendar of Great Men. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Haven, Rev. T. W. Natural Religion. *Twentieth Century* Publishing Co. $1.
Holmes, O. W. Medical Essays, 1842—1882. Our Hundred Days in Europe. [Riverside Edition. Vols. IX. and X.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Howland, O. A. The New Empire. Baker & Taylor Co. $2.50.
Jackman, W. S. Nature Study for the Common Schools. Henry Holt & Co. $1.20.
Kennedy, Patrick. Legendary Fictions of the Irish Celts. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Kenyon, J. B. At the Gate of Dreams. Buffalo: C. W. Moulton.
Lang, A. Selected Poems of Robert Burns. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.: New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Lee, Katherine. Love or Money. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXIX. Inglis—John. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Lethaby, W. R. Architecture, Mysticism and Myth. London: Percival & Co.
Lewis, Mrs. Harriet. The Two Husbands; or, Buried Secrets. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Long, W. E. Euripides's Cyclops. Part I—Introduction and Text. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Lowe, R. W. Churchill's Rosciad and the Apology. London: Lawrence & Bullen.
Maurice, Rev. F. D. Sermons Preached in Lincoln's Inn Chapel. Vol. III. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
McClelland, W. J. A Treatise on the Geometry of the Circle. Macmillan & Co.
McMaster, J. B. History of the People of the United States. Vol. 3. D. Appleton & Co. $2.50.
Merry, Rev. W. W. Selected Fragments of Roman Poetry. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Miller, Annie J. Physical Beauty: How to Obtain it and How to Preserve it. Charles L. Webster & Co.
Moore, Thomas. Lalla Rookh. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Morley, Margaret W. A Song of Life. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Mr. Sponge's Sporting Tour. London: Bradbury, Agnew & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Norman, Henry. The Real Japan. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.
Norton, C. L. A Handbook of Florida. 3d ed., revised. Longmans, Green & Co.
Ohm, G. S. The Galvanic Circuit Investigated Mathematically. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. 50 cents.
Palmer, A. H. The Life and Letters of Samuel Palmer, Painter and Etcher. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $7.50.
Paton, W. R., and Hicks, E. L. The Inscriptions of Cos. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Peacock, T. L. Nightmare Abbey. London: J. M. Dent & Co.: New York: Macmillan. $1.
Peard, Frances M. The Baroness: A Dutch Story. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Ramsay, Prof. G. G. Latin Prose Composition. 3d ed. Vol. I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.10.
Richardson, A. T. Progressive Mathematical Exercises for Home Work. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Ropes, A. H. Lady Mary Wortley Montagu: Select Passages from her Letters. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Ruskin, J. The Queen of the Air. [Brantwood Edition.] Charles E. Merrill & Co. $1.50.
Russell, W. C. Mrs. Dines's Jewels: a Mid-Atlantic Romance. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Saintsbury, G. Political Verse. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Sand, George. La Famille de Germandre. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Savage-Armstrong, G. F. One in the Infinite. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Scott, Alexander. An Introduction to Chemical Theory. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.

READY TO-DAY:

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 21, 1892.

The Week.

WE give in another column a weighty letter from a valued correspondent at Valparaiso, who is vouched for, as will be seen, by several citizens of the United States, as well as by his name—a national inheritance. Apart from its direct testimony to the unwise and dangerous spirit which has characterized the actions of our naval and diplomatic officers in Chili, it is a valuable witness to the humiliation which such conduct brings upon self-respecting Americans on the scene. It is largely for their sakes, it is said, to increase their sense of security when abroad and their pride in the reverence shown the American flag in foreign lands, that bluster and bravado are necessary in our intercourse with other nations. It is a striking commentary on this doctrine that one of the earliest results of its application is to bring a mortified protest and appeal to the American people from those very foreign residents who were expected to be frantic with patriotic joy over it.

Such remarks as those of the Rev. Dr. Allis, reported in the *World* of Saturday, ought to have great weight with President Harrison. Dr. Allis is a Presbyterian missionary in Chili, now in this country, and he quoted with approval and endorsement a letter he had just received from an American resident in Valparaiso, which said:

"Minister Egan and Consul McCreery have made a mountain out of a mole-hill, and would only be too glad to stir up a fight. The sooner Egan and McCreery are recalled, the better it will be for the good name of the United States. We are not ashamed that we are Yankees, but we are heartily ashamed of what our representatives on this coast are doing and reporting to the home Government. Chili will do what is fair in international questions between her and the United States, and it will ill befit the United States to play the bully much longer."

"The writer of that," said Dr. Allis, "fully understands the situation." He also distinctly intimated that Egan had tampered with the official communications which it was his duty to transmit to the Chilian Government. We understand that other Presbyterian missionaries are ready to testify to Egan's scandalous life and diplomatic improprieties in Chili. Now, President Harrison is himself an eminent Presbyterian, and thus has added reason for believing these missionaries of his own church to be honest and intelligent witnesses. He knows, too, that an unprovoked war with Chili would put an immediate if not permanent end to Presbyterian missions in that country, and would greatly cripple them throughout all South America. Is he, as a Presbyterian elder, going to present to the world the grotesque spectacle of first shelling and burning the cities of the Chilians, and then contributing to send them preachers of the Gospel of the Prince of Peace?

The more we reflect upon it, the more difficult we find it to believe that the President could have been correctly understood when he was reported to have declared that the trouble with Chili was not one that could be arbitrated. In his last annual message he urged the Senate to ratify the arbitration treaty adopted by the Pan-American Conference—a treaty which, as he says, this Government took the initiative in bringing about; and, when he first transmitted it to Congress, he declared that its ratification would "constitute one of the happiest and most hopeful incidents in the history of the Western Hemisphere." This treaty, which asseverates that "war is the most cruel, the most fruitless, and the most dangerous expedient for the settlement of international differences," and proclaims that "the Republics of North, Central, and South America hereby adopt arbitration as a principle of American international law for the settlement of the differences, disputes, or controversies that may arise between two or more of them," positively stipulates that "arbitration shall be obligatory in all controversies concerning *diplomatic and consular privileges*, boundaries, territories, *indemnities*, the right of navigation, and the validity, construction, and enforcement of treaties." Further than this, it stipulates that "arbitration shall be equally obligatory in all other cases than those mentioned, whatever may be their origin, nature, or object, with the single exception mentioned in the next following article." That exception is where the matter in controversy may, in the judgment of one of the nations, "imperil its independence"; and even in this case arbitration is made "obligatory upon the adversary Power."

Did the President believe, when he advised the incorporation of these stipulations in the law of the land, that he was seeking to saddle the country with degrading conditions? Was his action wholly deceptive when he renewed that advice? or has he been incorrectly reported? It will not do to say that, because the provisions of the treaty have not been formally ratified, they are irrelevant, at least as regards the President, to the present situation. As approved by the representatives of this Government and advocated by the President, they are a sham and a fraud if the principle they contain is to be scouted and rejected on the first opportunity. It is true that the representatives of some of the Central American States had hardly left the conference when their Governments went to war, as if they were trying to do all the fighting they could before the treaty was ratified. But the people of the United States, living in a "Christian country and in a Christian era," ought not to be in such haste to give the lie to their professions by their conduct. If it be true that Chili, as the President is reported to have suggested, has been "spitting" in our faces, she ought, in the name of common decency, to apologize. Who it is that has been indulging in that salivary performance we are not informed, unless it is Señor Matta, the late Minister for Foreign Affairs, of whose utterances some at least have been withdrawn by his successor. But assuming that there are other and actual grounds for demanding an apology, is it to be supposed that arbitrators would not so find? The only reason that could exist for anticipating such a result would be the consciousness that the grounds for the demand were insufficient—an admission which would be fatal to the refusal.

If the Navy Department is not careful, the Jingo policy which it is now pursuing will have an effect upon appropriations quite the reverse of that which is evidently intended and expected, unless, indeed, the American people want a navy for the purpose of swagger and bullying. If Commander Evans's despatch about the refugees was to be published at all at the present time, it should have been given out only with a censure. Our naval officers do not represent the Government of the United States in its foreign intercourse; and while this is true as a general rule, it is doubly true where such officers are in the port of a country in which we have a duly accredited diplomatic agent. Commander Evans's comment upon the action of the Chilian Minister of Foreign Affairs—that "it seems unworthy of the representative of a serious government"—is as cheap and ill-mannered as his request to the American Minister to send an insolent message to the Minister of Foreign Affairs is a flagrant transgression of the bounds of his authority. What Egan has done under the instructions of this new Secretary of State we are not informed, but we shall be surprised, little as we expect from him, if he has not refused to obey them. If the Navy Department intends, by publishing Commander Evans's despatch, to approve and endorse it, we can only apply to that Department the Commander's own language—that its action, we will not say "seems," but is, "unworthy of the representative of a serious government." But if the reports that come from Washington be true, we have no longer a "serious government." We have instead, certainly as regards the political personages who are now vociferating their feelings to the public, a mob panting to "clean out" the

Chilians, just as the mobs at Rock Springs and elsewhere "cleaned out" the Chinese.

The action of the Navy Department in publishing Commander Evans's despatch without disapproval is rendered only the more censurable when we consider that it relates to the carrying away of the refugees who were in the American Legation. This is a subject on which the Government of the United States is bound to act with exceptional courtesy, since it is exercising in respect to Chili a right which it would never admit if the case were reversed. Extracts from the records of our Government published in Wharton's Digest show that, while asylum has always been granted by foreign Ministers in Spanish America, it has always been denounced by the United States as an anachronism and abuse, to be tolerated only in exceptional cases. Webster, Marcy, Seward, and Fish have all concurred in discouraging it, and in the printed personal instructions to our diplomatic agents (Wharton, § 104) we find the following standard rule:

"In some countries, where frequent insurrections occur, and consequent instability of government exists, the practice of extra-territorial asylum has become so firmly established that it is often invoked by unsuccessful insurgents, and is practically recognized by the local government, to the extent even of respecting the premises of a consulate in which such fugitives may take refuge. This Government does not sanction the usage, and enjoins upon its representatives in such countries the avoidance of all pretexts for its exercise. While indisposed to direct its agents to deny temporary shelter to any person whose life may be threatened by mob violence, it deems it proper to instruct its representatives that it will not countenance them in any attempts to knowingly harbor offenders against the laws from the pursuit of the legitimate agents of justice."

Among a series of evening lectures by distinguished members of the bar, on various legal topics, to be delivered to the Columbia College law students, one is to be given by Mr. C. C. Beaman, on the Geneva Arbitration—a subject on which Mr. Beaman is a well-known authority. But the Geneva Arbitration has now passed into history. All that can be or ever was said about it can be found in print by any one who wishes to study it, either as an historical episode or a legal illustration. There were giants in those days on both sides of the water, who expended on it freely all the learning and eloquence and acuteness at their command. We would, therefore, suggest that Mr. Beaman should substitute for the Geneva Arbitration the Chilian Trouble. We shall, by the time he delivers his lecture, it is true, either have settled our dispute with Chili peaceably, or be engaged in a bloody war with her. But no matter which way the negotiations now pending may terminate, Mr. Beaman, in taking the matter up, will be doing not only the Columbia College law students, but the public at large, the inestimable service of saving the country of Webster, and Adams, and Marcy, and Seward from the disgrace of going to war with a small State without any public discussion whatever of either the law or morality of the quarrel. It is at this moment seriously proposed to attack Chili, bombard and blockade her ports, and, if need be, kill thousands of her people, and make the American name for ever odious to them, without any public examination by any competent hand of the nature and foundation of our complaint against her; without any publication of the correspondence between her Government and ours; without the slightest discussion, even in the newspapers, of the facts of the case, or any attempt whatever to take the judgment of the moral and religious public on its merits. This step, if taken, will be taken solely under the stimulation, as far as we can now see, of naval officers, contractors, and nitrate speculators, and of a fugitive from foreign justice who has been and is our representative in Chili at this critical period, of whose character and capacity the American public knows nothing whatever, but whose word must be the President's main reliance when he orders the work of slaughter to begin. In this deplorable condition of affairs a leading university like Columbia could render no greater service than to employ a competent lawyer to restate, *ex cathedrâ*, what the traditions of American diplomacy are, apropos of this lamentable episode.

The contest over the Philadelphia delegates to the Republican National Convention is putting a very severe strain upon the much-talked-of "harmony" between President Harrison and Mr. Blaine. The victory of the Secretary's friends was complete, and they "rubbed it in" by adopting resolutions in the district where the Federal office-holders had made the hardest fight for the President, declaring that "it is apparent to the most casual observer that the overwhelming sentiment of the Republican party earnestly demands the nomination of Hon. James G. Blaine for President of the United States," and instructing the delegates to vote for his nomination and use all honorable efforts to secure the same. It seems equally plain that the entire delegation from Pennsylvania will be for Blaine, no matter how hard Harrison may try to secure support by the use of the Federal patronage. Nor is this the most serious feature of the matter for the President. The Secretary's friends are angry at Mr. Harrison's course. Not only, therefore, is it true, as the Philadelphia *Inquirer* says, that "from one end of the country to the other the news will go forth that Blaine has won a great victory, and the result be set forth as the first great defeat of President Harrison," but, in the opinion of this excellent Republican authority, while in the natural drift of things the delegation elected on Wednesday week would have supported Harrison next to Blaine, "the contest has aroused so many antagonisms that it is impossible to tell what it may do should Blaine decline to receive its support."

Gen. H. V. Boynton believes in following up a rascal when he gets on his track, and he is still pursuing Cox, the illiterate saloon-keeper who has organized the Republican Tammany in Cincinnati and made himself the virtual ruler of that great city. Although defeated in the attempt to substitute Foraker for Sherman in the United States Senate, Cox and his gang are at work again after their usual manner, the object this time being to secure control of the Ohio delegation to the Republican National Convention. They are using Mr. Blaine's name to help on their scheme, but this is only part of the fraud, as they do not expect him to be the candidate, but can fool the people more easily by pretending to be for him. Gen. Boynton makes a thorough exposure of the plot in an article published in the Washington *Post*. "The real question," he says, "is whether a gang, such as has been described, with the large majority of the Republican voters of the State against them, can, by the use of the machine which they have captured by stealth, and by employing deceit, and fraud, and confidence games, and by hypocritical conjuring with a great name, capture such a State as Ohio, and secure the power to cast her forty-six votes in the next National Convention." As in the Senatorial contest, the stronghold of the conspiracy is Cincinnati. Gen. Boynton declares that eight out of ten of the Republicans of that city are opposed to this degraded gang, but that they "are, nevertheless, at present prostrate before it through the gang's possession of the machine."

The three Republican Senators of this State—Messrs. Saxton, O'Connor, and Erwin—whom the Lieutenant-Governor, Mr. Sheehan, has declared to be in contempt for refusing to vote on the Enumeration Bill, announce their determination not to purge themselves of that contempt by apologizing. We trust that they will adhere to that resolution. Mr. Sheehan's absurd conduct, which is precisely what was to have been expected of a ward politician of his calibre, is calculated to injure no one except the Democratic party. Taken in connection with the seat-stealing performances, it is making valuable capital for the Republicans, and will help them greatly in the next campaign. In fact, from the moment that the State Canvassing Board gave the Democrats control of the Senate by stealing a seat, Messrs. Sheehan, Roesch, and Cantor have acted as if the Senate Chamber were a mere branch of Tammany Hall, to be controlled by them on regulation Tammany methods. They have adopted rules to suit themselves, are passing measures

without examination either in the Senate or in committee, and are threatening with contempt, fine, and imprisonment those Republican Senators who oppose their rowdy proceedings. It will be a wise policy for the Republicans to give them plenty of rope.

Mr. Geo. Fred. Williams's speech at the Reform Club banquet on Saturday evening was pitched in the right key and was very telling. "I owe allegiance to my party," he said, "and my party owes allegiance to me." This was a fair statement of the contract made by and with the young men of Republican antecedents in Massachusetts who have given that State, in two consecutive elections, to the Democratic party. The Democratic party did pledge itself to tariff reform in its last national platform. It did not pledge itself to the free coinage of silver. On such a platform it received the support, and now holds the allegiance, of Mr. Williams, Gov. Russell, Mayor Matthews, and their associates. But it owes allegiance to them in the sense of remaining true to its pledges. There is nothing more hopeful to the party in its length and breadth than its gain in New England since the last Presidential election. There is a fair prospect that it may carry all the New England States except Maine and Vermont this year. But it can do so only by keeping the allegiance that it owes to the men who, like Mr. Williams, joined it for the sake of principle, and will adhere to it only so long as it adheres to its principles.

Mr. Sherman Hoar of Massachusetts has introduced a bill giving all postmasters hereafter appointed tenure of office during good behavior, and providing for promotion of postmasters of the first, second, and third classes from one post-office to another. The passage of the bill would do away with one of the greatest abuses in our civil service. The postmasters are by far the largest class of Government officers, and it is the class which increases most rapidly. There are now 64,329 postmasters of all classes, of whom only 2,942 are appointed by the President, and the number grows every year with the growth and spread of population. The term of office of the Presidential postmasters is four years, which may be cut short by removal or suspension "according to law." As a general rule, all postmasters appointed by the President and Postmaster-General of one party are removed, for one cause or another, when the President and Postmaster-General of another party come into office. The effect of this on the service need not be pointed out to any business man. Everybody knows that insecurity of tenure makes the highest efficiency difficult if not impossible. In the case of the American postmaster, however, not only does insecurity of tenure render him necessarily less efficient by acting on his morale, but it converts him into a working politician, thus seriously distracting his attention from the duties for the proper discharge of which he is paid, not by one party only, but by the whole American people. No post-office system can reach a very high standard which is manned in this way. There is, however, another feature in the system which is nearly as bad. When a new administration comes into power, no matter what the pressure of really important questions of home or foreign policy may be, it is impossible for the President or the Postmaster-General to give any attention to them until the 64,000 postmasters have been changed. Weeks on weeks of the most valuable time are spent in this ridiculous work. The spectacle, besides being ridiculous, however, is a very humiliating one for a great commercial nation. If Mr. Hoar can end it, he will be one of the greatest of recent public benefactors.

Gov. McKinley made a little speech on Thursday before an agricultural society in Ohio, in which he brandished the club over the New England woollen manufacturers once more, saying that there could be no tax on coats if there was no tax on wool, or words to that effect. This threat has been used so many times and with such success that McKinley, Lawrence, and Delano fancy that it can never fail. They have never imagined a time or an occasion when the people of the United States—the great body of consumers—would take the matter into their own hands. They have contemplated only two very small classes as having any interest in the subject or as worth consulting—the handful of wool-growers and the handful of woollen manufacturers. But the time and the occasion that they never looked forward to has come. There is now a House of Representatives in which the threat of the wool-growers is of no more consequence than was the threat of the quinine-men years ago that they would smash things if the duty on quinine was repealed. Smash as much as you please, gentlemen. You cannot smash too much for us. But as a matter of sober truth your power of smashing is very slight. There will be a fair measure of protection left for the woollen manufacturers in spite of all the smashing you can do. This will be left because public opinion is not ripe for free woollens, but is ripe for free wool.

The President's selection of United States District Judge McCormick of Texas as Judge of the new Circuit Court for the States of Texas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, and Georgia is heartily commended by the local press of his State. He has always been a Republican, but at the same time so liberal in his views that he was once elected to the Texas Senate largely by the votes of Democrats over a narrow-minded member of his own party. In 1879 he was appointed Judge of the District Court of the United States. Shortly after the war he had served as Judge of a State court. The Galveston *News* says that "as both State and Federal Judge he was never suspected of mixing judgment with partisanship. As a State Senator he so far sank the partisan in the discriminating and diligent legislator as to command the admiration and respect of his fellow-Senators, and elicit the unqualified approbation of his constituents."

The death of the Duke of Clarence has really little importance except to his family and friends. From the political point of view it may be considered a distinct gain for the British monarchy, as the next brother is very much superior in force of character and mental ability. The possible succession of the Duke of Clarence, in these days of Radical criticism, has, in fact, ever since he reached manhood and came under popular observation, been viewed with more or less anxiety even by the stanchest supporters of the throne.

A Belgian law of August 9, 1889, which sought to provide cheap and sanitary homes for working people, was the subject of a speech by the Prime Minister December 4, giving an account of its methods and results. Its chief feature is the almost complete preservation of private initiative, thus marking it off from other legislation of the kind, and from such flatly Socialistic proposals as those lately put forth in England by Mr. Chamberlain. Under the law the intervention of the Government is limited to advances from the national savings bank to individual workingmen or to building societies at 2½ and 3 per cent., and in every case amply secured by mortgages, and to freeing property obtained under the terms of the law from certain kinds of taxation, and from liability to be lost to the family in case the owner dies before having completed his payments. The loans are made payable after a number of years, varying from ten to twenty-five, and at varying rates of annual, monthly, or weekly payment. A mixed plan is also possible by which a workingman gets an insurance upon his life by the payment of a slight additional sum. M. Beernaert stated that in the scarcely eight months of the law's full operation $33,300 had been loaned at 2½ per cent, and $19,360 at 3 per cent., mostly to individual workingmen, while thirteen building societies had been organized, in addition to those already in existence and capable of receiving the benefits of the law. Belgium has had so unpleasant a prominence in the labor question, what with repeated strikes on an enormous scale and anarchistic outbreaks, that it is gratifying to record a promising movement of this kind.

NAVALISM.

THE great curse of Europe to-day, and especially the curse of those countries of Europe in which the sovereign plumes himself on being before all things a soldier, is the curse which is known as "militarism." What "militarism" means is the influence exerted on society and Government by the existence of an immense army, with thirty or forty thousand officers, whose profession is fighting, to whom peace is full of tedium and disgust, and to whom war brings not only practice in their calling, but a rapid advance towards the highest honors the State has to bestow. In order, too, to keep these men in suitable fighting condition, as Mr. Lecky, the historian, has so well pointed out, the sentiment of "honor"—that is, of extreme susceptibility to insult and of readiness to punish insult by bloodshed—has to be sedulously cultivated in them. They have, in fact, to take as tender care of their reputation for courage as a woman has of her reputation for modesty. In the peculiar condition of Europe to-day, the respectability of each State among its fellows (and, indeed, one may say, its very existence) is dependent on keeping these men in good humor. The Government is, in a certain degree, compelled to shape its foreign policy under their code. It has to be as touchy as they are and as ready to avenge slights and impertinences. It cannot safely make any concession or pass over any incivility which would in the mess-rooms be considered a good cause for a fight. It may be safely asserted that to-day the relations of France and Germany are controlled by their respective armies far more than by their respective foreign offices or by public opinion. This it is which keeps the European air so full of war rumors, and keeps the European business world in such a constant tremble, and surrounds the future of public liberty and civil government in all Continental countries with so much uncertainty. The growth of English liberty would never have been possible but for the stern determination of the people, from the earliest times, not to have a large standing army, or any army whose existence was assured for more than a year.

The absence of any such force and of all necesssity for it has been one of the happy conditions of the existence of the United States. We have never had, either afloat or ashore, any large and respectable and respected body of men among us interested in war, or eager for war, or able to force us into war in order to oblige them. Militarism has been unknown in this country, and fighting, on the whole, an unpopular profession. In truth, it was the American Government which first introduced into international relations the practice of negotiating as business men, and not as soldiers. With this practice it has won extraordinary diplomatic triumphs. The Oregon boundary dispute, the *Alabama* dispute, and the San Juan dispute with Great Britain have all been settled satisfactorily to us without either army or navy. Our various smaller quarrels with France, Spain, and Germany have all been settled in the same way. Not once in the national existence, except when the *Leopard* took the men out of the *Chesapeake* in 1809, have the United States had to regret the want of a great military or naval force.

We do not use these considerations as an argument against the creation of a navy of the modern sort, to take the place of the old wooden ships which were absolutely incapable of fighting. A sham navy is worse than no navy. Moreover, common prudence requires that we should have on the ocean a force capable, if need be, of protecting American commerce, or repelling chance aggression, now that the world has grown so wide and America such a huge and far-reaching organization. But the bigger and more formidable the navy we create, the more tenaciously should we cling to the great traditions of peaceableness and good sense which have from the beginning marked our diplomacy. Franklin did not negotiate with a big sabre by his side and a long pair of spurs on his heels, and Franklin set the fashion for all our diplomatists until now. Professional fighting-men have never managed to fill the departments at Washington with their peculiar love of glory and sense of honor. It was the general expectation in Europe in 1865 that Grant's and Sherman's army would be used, and would have to be used, to overrun Canada and Mexico; but Secretary Stanton began to disband the force and sell the stores on the evening of the fall of Richmond. That was true "Americanism."

Our Navy Department, however, seems, and has seemed almost ever since Secretary Tracy came into office, to be determined to break completely with these great diplomatic traditions, to the amazement of those who knew him here as a cool, sensible, and highly respectable member of the bar. Whether for the purpose of helping the President in his quarrel with Mr. Blaine, or for the purpose of magnifying his own office, we do not know, but the fact is that he has practically taken our foreign relations out of the hands of the State Department, and turned them over to the Admirals and Captains and Lieutenant-Commanders of our new navy, who, except the Admirals, are mostly young men, full of fight and eager to show what the new ships can do — so that they may fairly be considered firebrands in every foreign port. The beginning of this extraordinary policy was the Barrundia affair, in which Mr. Blaine, either through weakness or blindness, acquiesced and, indeed, cooperated with Mr. Tracy in reducing the State Department to nothingness and handing the foreign policy of the Government over to navalism. In that case he permitted a naval commander who had, under the resident American Minister's direction, strictly obeyed in a foreign port the law of nations and the existing naval regulations, to be loaded with abuse and dismissed his ship for so doing.

We pointed out at the time the unfortunate effect which this episode was likely to have on the mind of naval officers, and the complications in which it would be likely to involve us in foreign waters, and this was long before there was any sign of our trouble with Chili. We maintained that it would make them both reckless and meddlesome and lawless, and would involve us in quarrels which we could not decently uphold. We might cite a dozen illustrations from recent events in support of this assumption, but here is one which will suffice, showing how soon the poison began to work, taken from a speech of Lieut. A. V. Wadhams of the Navy in Boston last February, before the Boston Boot and Shoe Club. Lieut. Wadhams, be it remembered, is just thirty-one years old, is a professional fighting man, and may be any day in command of a ship in foreign waters.

> "What does the arrival of the *Baltimore* in the harbor of Valparaiso mean? It means just this, that *without any orders from the home Government, without any orders from anybody else*, the regulations are well established as to our duties as naval officers. The magnificent stand that has been taken by this Administration in regard to the affair of the killing of that Mexican on board the Pacific Mail steamer has caused great joy in the navy. That is what we want. We want to be able to say, 'You go just so far and you will come to grief,' and the time has come when a naval officer can say it.
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> "In regard to our rights of action in emergencies which may arise, I don't suppose there will be any question hereafter as to just the extent to which a man can go. *Heretofore there always has been, and now, to be sure, there will be, constant consultation with the civil authorities — the Consul and the Minister in command*; but I fancy there is nobody in the United States Navy to-day who doesn't feel that if he was called upon to act he would act if the Minister did not act."

If a Prussian cavalry colonel talked in this way at a Berlin dinner, big a man as he is, what a wigging he would get! But the head of every youngster in our navy is probably filled with just such stuff, and his superiors have put it there and are keeping it there. Our State Department has been practically abolished, and its Manuals of Instruction and the text-books on International Law are being used as fuel to get up steam. What a situation for the country of Webster and Lincoln and Seward and Marcy and Fish and Evarts!

POPULAR ELECTION OF SENATORS.

AGITATION in favor of a constitutional amendment to this end, begun by several State Legislatures during the past year, was renewed on Saturday before the appropriate committee of the House of Representatives. Every thoughtful mind must welcome the least sign of revolt against the present composition and disgraceful tendency of the United States Senate. The election to that body of Gov. Hill, the Demo-

cratic boss of New York; the bare defeat of Foraker, the Republican boss of Ohio; the arts to which Senator Sherman was forced to resort in order to save his seat from political brigandage; the motives which led to the election of his new colleague—these recent events have stimulated the growing sense of a vital defect in the Senate-making machinery. It is as yet but a vague and unreflecting sense, that does not perceive the root of the evil, and it is in danger of precipitate action that will breed fresh abuses; but the unrest is wholesome. Once more an idol of the Constitution is challenged, and men are not afraid to think and to say openly that the work of the fathers must be undone or done over in the interest of government of the people, by the people, and for the people.

The change proposed is so momentous that it is no exaggeration to affirm that it outweighs in importance the burning questions of the tariff and the coinage. These are mere questions of housekeeping, which, however they may be decided, leave the fabric of 1787 untouched. To take from the Legislatures the choice of Senators is to revert to one of the plans rejected in the Constitutional Convention, and to embark on a fresh voyage of experiment. It at once alters fundamentally the relation of the States to the Federal Union by making the party complexion of the State Legislatures a matter of no consequence whatever in Federal politics, so far as concerns the control of Congress. We hasten to declare that this would be a great boon to the citizens of the States and to the people at large—perhaps the greatest that has ever been rendered by any constitutional amendment save that prohibiting slavery. It would aim a well-nigh fatal blow at the identification of State with Federal party lines and party organization which the fathers unwittingly ordained when they made the Senate the creature of the Legislatures. Never again would the voter be called upon to sacrifice his scruples respecting local measures or men, on the ground that the party ascendancy in Congress depended on returning a Legislature which would maintain the party strength in the Federal Senate. This freedom once acquired, we cannot doubt that our municipal life would immensely profit by it; that municipal (and State) contests would tend more and more to emancipate themselves from every other consideration save the genuine issue; and that more and more independence and fluidity would be manifested in forming parties *ad hoc*, irrespective of names and affiliations applicable to Federal party organizations. Surely, to bring about such a consummation, much may be hazarded.

Nevertheless, it must not be forgotten on the very road to real, away from sham, politics, that to bestow on the people the election of Senators by Constitutional enactment is not the same thing as to insure their possessing it. Men look at the obvious grasp of the machine on nearly all our legislatures—its potential grasp on all—and conclude it would be a fine stroke to take away its occupation. They need to be reminded that the greatest victim of the machine, the almost helpless victim, is not the Legislature, but the people itself. By an unconscious juggle in terms, election is assumed to be synonymous with choice; it is in fact a mere registering of the decree of the caucus and the machine. The average honest voter goes to the polls without having had the smallest part in *nominating* the candidates for whom he votes. He does not know them personally, he may never have heard their names; until recently, on leaving the booth, he could not repeat the list he had just deposited in the ballot box, and on the morrow he might have forgotten all that he brought away. The Australian ballot has to some extent altered this state of affairs, and one of its highest merits is that it enables the people really to put in nomination as well as to pass upon the cut-and-dried. It alone, of our present safeguards, would prevent the election of Senators by the people from being manipulated by the machine as readily as that of Representatives.

To our minds, there is small chance of the proposed amendment being carried, especially if it is complicated (as is proposed by one Congressman) with a scheme for enlarging the Senate and thus overcoming the inequitable equality of the small States. Moreover, an opportunity is afforded to better our existing condition by simply giving back to the States the power to regulate the election of Senators—that is, by repealing the act of July 25, 1866, the first of its kind, "to regulate the times and manner of holding elections for Senators of Congress," with its pernicious enforcement of viva-voce voting, most favorable to party pressure and bribery. Senator Sherman himself opposed it on its passage, as did Senators Fessenden and Edmunds, and their objections have been sustained by the results of experience. A writer in the *Atlantic Monthly* for August last propounded a plan of election by the Legislature as required by the Constitution, out of nominations by the people—a restriction which may or may not be constitutional, but which it would be worth the while of any State to test the legality of. To evade the machine and the lobby, the same writer urged making use of the Australian ballot both for these nominations and for the legislative vote upon them—a procedure certainly presenting no difficulty. He argued that this system, if established, would enable capable men to put themselves in nomination without being indecently beholden to any body or interest. We observe that a member of the House Committee at the hearing on Saturday asked "if popular elections might not result in sending less able men to the Senate, and if the present method did not secure the services of men of ability who, perhaps, could not be induced to take part in a political contest such as was incident to elections." Undoubtedly they might, if the machine were left free to manage the "popular elections"; quite otherwise if the people could really send up a list of candidates, each name representing a considerable body of voters, such as would entitle it to a place on the official Australian ballot. "A man," says the *Atlantic* writer referred to, "fit to be Senator would have a decided prestige when proposed in this manner as against the product of intrigue and jobbery. Such men would tend to multiply in the popular nominations, inasmuch as they could allow their names to be used without loss of self-respect, and with no obligation to work in their own behalf."

By whatever mode to be accomplished, the question presses, how to make the Senate the Broad Stone of Honor of our American commonwealth—a body no longer, to be sure, "the camp of slaves," as in the unhappy days of doughfaces and lords of the lash, but a chapel of ease for millionaires, a baron's castle for the spoilsman, an altar of refuge for Quay, a legitimate goal of ambition for Hill and Foraker.

THE OBJECTIONS TO CHEATING.

THERE is in Nebraska to-day a Governor who, though legally, is not morally entitled to the place. The same thing is true of Connecticut: there is also a Governor in the latter State who, though legally, is not morally entitled to his place. Each owes his office to the determination of his party supporters to get as much power as they can, no matter what their opponents think of the fairness of their procedure. The New York Legislature is Democratic owing to the disregard of the law by Democratic officials in the mode of conducting the election, under the encouragement and with the assistance of the Governor of the State, who actually went so far as to resist the courts and denounce them for interfering with his schemes. This was a step beyond anything which has occurred in Nebraska and Connecticut. In their cases the law was used to deprive the voters of their rights in the forum of abstract justice. In this State the law has been openly violated to deprive them of both their legal and moral rights. Now that the Legislature has met, the power of passing on the qualifications of members is being used by the majority in the same spirit and under the same inspiration to deprive duly elected members of their seats, on any pretence, however trivial.

It must be admitted, however, that Hill did not originate the spirit of lawlessness from which all these displays of contempt for the rights of minorities have flowed. Their true source is to be found in the view which the Republicans took of the Democrats at the close of the war—as dangerous persons who, if they got control of the Government, would proba-

bly wreck it. This led to the desperate and successful attempt to cheat Tilden out of the Presidency, and to the great hesitation, lasting nearly twelve days, on the part of the Republicans in admitting Cleveland's election. It is not too much to say that during the whole of that period the Republican leaders had a vague expectation that something, whether legal, extra-legal, or illegal, would turn up which would enable them to get Blaine into the Presidency. The same feeling which led them to consider the Democrats unfit to conduct the Government made them indifferent to choice of means for keeping them out of control of it. This also undoubtedly accounts in part for the extraordinary manner in which Mr. Reed filled the office of Speaker, and for his high-handed contempt for the right of the Democratic minority—something entirely novel in the parliamentary annals of really constitutional countries. He made himself, instead of an Anglo-Saxon Speaker, a French President of the Imperial period, like Rouher or De Morny.

We might multiply these illustrations, if we had space, by citing such cases as the denial of the Governor's power of appointment in this State through the refusal of the Republican Senate to confirm his nominations, thus enabling Platt's Quarantine Commissioners to hold over for years. The great apparent increase just now of these displays of contempt for the law is due in large part to the fact that the Democrats, as they creep into power all over the country, are beginning to retaliate in kind on the Republicans by vigorous cheating. The impression which these things are producing, both at home and abroad, is an impression of rapidly spreading political rottenness, the outcome of which nobody can predict; and the abounding material prosperity does nothing to diminish or destroy it. The chief danger of the situation, however, lies in the fact that it is distinctly revolutionary. People can stand a long while, and very good-humoredly, gross cheating or corruption at the polls, but, for some reason or other, they will not stand frauds in the counts or in any other part of the procedure which directly inducts a man into an office. Whenever these become so numerous that there is general doubt whether the man who has clearly won an office at the polls will be able to occupy it, civil war is not far off. The concoctors of such frauds grow bolder and bolder with impunity, and some day, when a Secretary of State abstracts or suppresses a genuine return and produces a fraudulent one, somebody who feels aggrieved will take him by the throat and search him, and then the mischief is afoot. The evil may go far in this country before producing an outbreak, because people are so busy and prosperous, so long as security to life and property is not impaired; but there is a limit to the patience even of the happy and good-humored, and it may be reached sooner than is expected, as the Southern slaveholders found to their cost.

It is therefore high time for both parties to mend their manners, before the whole country gets into the way of expecting to be cheated, or of relying on cheating in order to reach even desirable ends. The admiration of Hill, for instance, as a man who "gets there" is a highly explosive material. The "art of ultimate arrival," as some one has called it, is a very good art to cultivate, but it has to be cultivated with scruple and moderation. People like to see a man "get there," but they do not tolerate his travelling at their expense, with stolen money. Popular government does not rest simply on majority rule. It rests just as much on the acquiescence of the minority in that rule, on the general belief of the minority that it *is* really a minority, and fully enjoys the rights guaranteed to it by the organic law.

THE INTER-STATE COMMISSION AND THE COURTS.

In the Lehigh Valley Railroad case, the United States Circuit Court in Philadelphia decides that no injunction can issue against that company for disregarding an order of the Inter-State Commission, but that practically the whole matter must be retried by that court. The decision is based on the ground that the findings of the Inter-State Commission are only *prima-facie* evidence, and that this, as defined in the act to regulate commerce, means a trial of the whole issue *de novo* when a United States court is asked to enforce the Commission's decree. The same construction was put upon the Inter-State Law a year or more ago, in Cincinnati, in the party-rate case before Judge Jackson. Indeed, the unpleasant position of the Commission—that of a sort of referee, merely—was clearly seen and ably considered by Judge Cooley in the Commission's annual report to Congress for 1890. It was forcibly urged upon Congress that controversies about railway rates were questions of fact and not of law, involving many complicated matters which none but specialists could properly investigate, and which no court of law could fairly be asked to decide. Hence the findings of fact by a body of specialists like the Commission should be accepted by the courts, the only question left open being whether the forms of law had been observed.

To remedy the Commission's complaint about inadequate power, Senator Cullom, on December 15 ult., introduced a bill which seems to have escaped public attention. This bill provides that upon appeal by the Commission for an injunction or mandamus to a United States court, the defence of the railway shall be restricted to pointing out errors in the findings or proceedings by the Commission. The Court may refer the case back to the Commission for a retrial, or may issue the writ, but cannot itself retry the case. That this would much increase the power of the Commission over railway charges is easily apparent; in fact, the position of the Commission would be that of an inferior United States Court. It might be a question whether this would be a violation of the Constitution, which requires judicial questions to be determined by judges holding office during good behavior; though the courts generally are willing to give Congress every possible chance to carry out its legislative intentions. But it would seem, whatever the machinery authorized by Congress, that railway rates in the end must be settled as a judicial question. This is apparently the meaning of the Supreme Court decision in the Minnesota cases, where an unreasonable rate imposed by a railroad commission was declared to be equivalent to the taking of private property without compensation. Evidently, though, the injustice done by a Legislature or by a railroad commission would have to be very clear to call out that remedy.

The restiveness of the Inter-State Commerce Commission under the law which makes its decisions *prima-facie* evidence only, and not conclusive, can be traced in part to a change in the Commission's ideas about its own importance and the place it was intended to fill in our regulation of railways. In the early years the Commissioners took a more humble view of their duties; their first reports express the opinion that adjustment of existing discriminations was their principal duty, not the fixing of rates *per se;* that they were to regulate tariffs originated by the railways. Lately the idea seems to have been growing in their minds that they were in some way responsible to the people for our whole system of transportation and charges. In 1890 they attempted to say what the rates on corn should be, not relatively but absolutely. Not long ago they told some Southern roads that only so much must be charged on all the oranges carried. This is not regulation, which is adjustment; it is the imposition of tariffs on carriers. The Inter-State Act says that all rates must be reasonable; but reasonableness, economically if not legally, is a relative question. To say whether 10 cents or 25 cents or 50 cents ought to be charged on breadstuffs from Chicago to New York is a commercial problem which cannot be determined theoretically any more easily than can the proper price for meat. But given the rate as decided upon by the railway managers, it becomes competent for the Commission to declare that all shall be charged the one rate without unjust discrimination as to persons or places. If we admit that the Commission must or can fix our railway tariffs in the abstract, we take a long step towards Government ownership.

The Commission's restiveness, therefore, is due in part to their opinion upon this question: whether we ought to intrust such a vast problem entirely to their hands, or whether we shall go far enough if we make the Commission merely the mouth-

piece of public opinion. It can indeed hardly be said that we have solved the question. We know that our most successful State railroad commissions were formed on the latter theory and have no real power. The first of this class was that of Massachusetts, organized in 1869. The Commissioners selected were able men, and their opinions on questions in dispute between Massachusetts railways and citizens were received with respect by both parties, though they could not be enforced; but, being recognized as voicing public sentiment, the carriers generally yielded to them. But the United States is larger than any one State, so that it is undoubtedly more difficult for public opinion to force obedience to a Federal than to a State commission. Yet, on the other hand, there is so much necessary work to be done on the simple lines of the original intention, that the question of additional power over tariffs in the abstract may well be left to the future. Personal discrimination yet flourishes. One road lost its traffic manager because of rate-cutting. Three more were accused of the same offence by their own associations at the recent meeting of the Advisory Board. This advantage of one firm over another through the cutting of rates is demoralizing to all honest merchants. We might better amend the Inter-State Law in some way which would secure fair treatment to all shippers (for even railroad managers do not defend rebates) than to give more theoretic powers to a commission which, under the law as it stands, seems helpless before the simpler and more important evil. In the Lehigh Valley case justice seems on the side of the original complainant, and a further investigation before the Circuit Court ought to bring it out more clearly.

THE SCALING OF THE URUGUAYAN DEBT.

SOME months ago we spoke of the effort to arrange a compromise between Uruguay and her foreign creditors. The scheme then in contemplation has now been carried into execution, with all its principal features unchanged, and it deserves a review not only on account of its own importance, but especially because of its ominous significance as an example to other countries situated as Uruguay is.

The origin and course of the negotiations leading up to the final result were described by the Minister of Finance in the course of a speech before the Uruguayan Congress. He said that as far back as May of last year the President had sounded the Government's financial agent in London as to the possibility of making some new adjustment of the national debt, "based on the reciprocal interest of the State and its foreign creditors." At the same time, the President affirmed that "the Government believes that it holds sufficient resources to realize its firm proposition to comply faithfully with all foreign obligations, even at the cost of the greatest sacrifices, as it has hitherto done." In the latter part of June a special agent was sent to London from Montevideo to push the negotiations, his instructions being to propose a unification of all foreign loans into a new issue bearing interest at 4 per cent. for the first five years, 4½ for the next five, and 5 afterwards.

But this agent, Señor Ellauri, had scarcely reached London when the financial crash came upon Uruguay which closed the English and National Banks and struck all business with paralysis. Thereupon the Government peremptorily notified its English creditors that it could pay no interest for at least six months, and that a greater and permanent reduction of its foreign indebtedness was absolutely necessary. It was in the face of this statement that the Corporation of Foreign Bondholders took up the matter. This Corporation is an organization formed some twenty years ago to represent the holders of bonds of foreign countries. It has had a remarkable history in arranging and settling the debts of many defaulting States, and has accumulated a large capital, by means of commissions and in other ways, which it can draw upon to meet the preliminary outlays involved in negotiations with foreign governments. Its members are usually men of high financial and personal standing, Sir John Lubbock being the present Chairman, and Sir Edward Thornton being at the head of the committee appointed to deal with the Uruguayan case.

The arrangement which was agreed upon between the Corporation and the agent of Uruguay, and which has now been given the force of law, embraced the following particulars: A new consolidated debt is to be funded to the amount of $96,350,000, bearing interest at the rate of 3½ per cent. It is to include $49,934,680 of the Unified Loan of 1885, which bore 5 per cent. interest, $19,363,530 of the 6 per cent. loan of 1888, $9,306,000 of the 6 per cent. loan of 1890, $2,866,953 to be issued to holders of the bonds of the two last-mentioned loans as "compensation" for accepting a lower rate of interest, $3,744,090 in payment of arrears of interest, $2,975,000 to meet railway guarantees now due, $5,640,000 to complete the building of the Western Railway, and $2,519,646 as costs and commissions on the entire refunding operation. This last item was the subject of severe criticism in the course of the debate in Congress, one member calling it "an infamous robbery of the nation." The Finance Minister mildly defended it, although he refused to give the details of the expenses, or to say to whom the commissions were to be paid. The Government pledges 45 per cent. of the customs revenue, to be turned over daily to the English Bank, as security for the payment of interest.

The arrangement did not go through without vigorous protests on the part of many bondholders. Delegations and remonstrances from Antwerp and Paris and Madrid kept the Corporation of Foreign Bondholders informed of the indignation which their negotiations were arousing, but they went steadily ahead and secured the assent of a majority of bondholders. The minority still threaten to fight for their rights in the courts, but it is doubtful if they can accomplish anything. One of the most scandalous features of the affair is the inclusion of the loan of 1890 in the arrangement. This was an issue of bonds to the amount of $10,000,000 left on the Barings' hands when they went into liquidation. They had accepted them in return for private advances to Uruguay, and had been unable to sell a dollar's worth. It has been stated, we believe with truth, that the Barings themselves were unwilling that this loan of their own, which they had been unable to float, should be given the same standing as bonds bought in good faith by investors; but those who are now managing their affairs thought differently. The result is to give their bonds a value and a security far beyond what they might claim, and to do it at the expense of other bondholders.

It is undoubted that Uruguay's creditors have acted in what they thought was the wisest and safest way, accepting a reduced but certain interest in lieu of a larger but precarious if not impossible rate. Yet their action cannot fail to be disastrous in its indirect results. It is not even certain that they are safely secured in their lowered interest. One Uruguayan Deputy made a forcible argument to show that the Government could not meet even its reduced obligations. As to that we cannot say, but what is certain is that the whole operation has distinctly relaxed the idea of the binding nature of a national debt. This has clearly been the effect in Uruguay itself, and the influence of her example upon other South American countries cannot fail to be bad. One Senator argued for fixing the rate of interest at 2½ per cent. instead of 3½, which he thought they might as well do while they were about it. The demoralization wrought in the sense of public honor is well shown by the Montevideo *Times*, which said in its issue of September 23:

> "One of the first things to strike any one who has followed the criticisms and debates on the Consolidated Debt Bill must be the extraordinary conceptions held concerning such foreign obligations as debt services or railway guarantees. So far from being looked upon as sacred obligations which it is dishonorable to violate, it is evident that there are not a few persons here, and persons in high position too, who regard them as something tiresome which may or may not be complied with, according to the good-will and position of the debtor. They virtually say to the creditors: 'We have promised you 6 per cent. or 5 per cent., but we have been foolish and extravagant, and cannot conveniently pay you. No matter, we will condescend to give you 3½ per cent., or if that does not suit us, we will make it 2½ per cent. Really, it is a great nuisance having to pay you at all, and your claims are a burden which we are anxious to get rid of as soon as possible.'"

THE ST. ELIAS GLACIAL FIELDS.

OBERLIN, January 7, 1892.

At the recent meeting of the Geological Society of America, two members of the United States Geological Survey gave reports upon expeditions made by them last summer through unexplored territory in southern Alaska. The results of the expeditions are as interesting to the general reader as they are instructive from a geological point of view.

Mr. C. W. Hayes was sent by the Survey to accompany Lieut. Schwatka in a trip undertaken by him in the interests of a syndicate of Western newspapers. They entered the southeastern portion of the Territory from Juneau, through Taku Inlet, and, after ascending rapidly to the summit of the pass, reached the broad glaciated plateau running north and south, which was partially explored many years ago by the Western Union Telegraph Company, when, before the Atlantic cable was laid, they contemplated an overland route to Europe by way of Bering Strait and Siberia. For many hundred miles just east of the coast range, this plateau, walled in on two sides by mountain ranges of moderate height, is a striking feature of the country, and furnishes the head waters of the Yukon River. Though now free from ice, it bears every mark of having been formerly a centre from which glaciers debouched both into the sea and into the Yukon Valley for a distance of about three hundred miles, where a well-marked terminal moraine is reported as crossing it from east to west. Between this moraine and Fort Selkirk, a distance of about one hundred miles, there are no further marks of glacial action.

From Fort Selkirk the party struck across the country directly west to intercept the White River, which rises about half way between Mt. St. Elias and Mt. Wrangell—the latter being an active volcano. The whole of this distance was in an unglaciated region, showing that there has always been a remarkable limitation to the ice-fields on the northern side of the St. Elias range. But it would appear, from the results of this expedition and from earlier reports both of Mr. Dall concerning Kotzebue Sound and of Mr. Russell concerning the Yukon Valley, that, while the main body of Alaska was never covered with moving ice, it is, even yet, for the most part covered with stationary ice, which in many areas takes the place of underlying rock, and carries soil enough upon its surface to maintain in many places a vigorous arctic vegetation. The banks of the Yukon present occasional precipices of solid ice surmounted by soil and timber precisely as though it were some hard, sedimentary rock. The short hot summer suffices to warm the surface soil and quicken a variety of plants and trees into rapid growth, without producing any effect upon the frozen stratum a few inches below. The deep moss which covers everything persistently retains the water, compelling the traveller to wade continually in discomfort through its spongy mass, though the climate is so arid that for six weeks together no storms were encountered, and the air was so clear that sleep was obtained under the open sky without once going through the formality of pitching a tent.

But, meanwhile, Mr. Russell's party were having very different experiences upon the southern flanks of the St. Elias range, where, for days and days, they were waiting, amid blinding snows, for a rift of fair weather in which to attempt the final ascent of the solitary peak. The amount of snow which falls upon these névé fields which feed the great glaciers flowing down to the Pacific Ocean is something perfectly enormous. A single fall of six feet of solid spicules of ice which, when compressed, would make half that thickness of glacier ice, is by no means uncommon; while, by examination of the films of dust which separate the snowfall of successive storms, Mr. Russell is confident that sometimes as much as 100 feet of snow descends without interruption. In view of such facts, it is easy to understand the reason why the southern flanks of this great Alaskan range so abound with glaciers, while the northern side is comparatively free from them. It is becoming more and more clear that the cause of great accumulations of glacial ice, both past and present, is to be sought not simply in a low temperature, but in a combination of conditions which secure an abnormal precipitation of snow over any particular area. The average temperature upon the south side of the St. Elias Alps is considerably higher than that upon the north side; but the glaciers are many times as large, the main difference being in the amount of snowfall.

The most instructive portion of Mr. Russell's observations relates to the condition of the great Malaspina Glacier, or ice-field, which covers about 1,500 square miles of the level country intervening between the base of the mountains and the Pacific Ocean. This great mass of ice is from 1,500 to 2,000 feet thick, and is but a remnant, though, it must be confessed, a very respectable remnant, of the ice-fields of former days, whose bold front extended into the sea for hundreds of miles along the shore. In its present condition it furnishes probably the best object-lesson which has yet been brought within the reach of glacialists. Here we can see in progress upon a grand scale all those operations which have produced the phenomena so characteristic of the glaciated area in Europe and throughout British America and the northern part of the United States.

The surface of this great ice-field resembles that of a rolling prairie. About the margin next to the mountain it is deeply covered with earthy débris, and, except where the glacial tributaries directly join the mass, stands considerably lower than the centre, owing to the radiant heat of the mountain side, which causes it there to waste away with exceptional rapidity. Along this natural channel, between the ice and the mountain, temporary water courses take their way, distributing the morainic material in long lines, which, as the level of the ice gradually lowers during successive decades or centuries, become a series of beachlike terraces, such as, about the Adirondack Mountains and other places, have often deceived observers, and led them to infer a subsidence in the country and the formation of sea-beaches at high elevations, where everything originated through the simple processes connected with the wasting away of the great ice-field itself.

But most interesting of all was the outer margin of the Malaspina Glacier. For a long distance on its southwestern border the ice debouches directly into the sea, breaking off into icebergs with thundering noises, after the manner so vividly described by Vancouver a hundred years ago. The eastern half of the glacier exhibits a wasting front some little distance back of the sea, where a terminal moraine of great size and intricate complication is in process of formation. In the course of centuries the earthy débris thinly distributed through the glacier has been brought to the front, and, as the edge has melted away, has settled down in great depth over a thin margin of ice several miles in width. Upon this incipient moraine, with the ice still remaining underneath it, vegetation has rapidly advanced, until now it is covered with a dense pine forest containing trees as much as three feet in diameter, and the whole area is so tangled with underbrush and flowering plants that it is almost impossible to work one's way across it. Through these forests the ever-changing sub-glacial streams cut their way, and here and there submerge and bury them beneath their rapidly accumulating sediment.

Far up on the surface of the great ice-sheet, also, but in nearer proximity to the mountain, may be found extensive areas of morainic débris covered with vegetation. These long protect the ice underneath them from melting, and stand as promontories above the general level. As the wasting process, however, goes on in the clearer ice around them, they at length slide down in mixed heaps around the bottom of their pedestal, to repeat the process of protecting awhile their new foundations. At length, if the ice entirely disappears, these will rest upon the surface of the earth in a confused mass well calculated to give endless perplexity to the glacialist who shall attempt to unravel their full meaning. It is clear that these observations of Mr. Russell's sweep away at one stroke a great body of speculation concerning successive glacial epochs and repeated changes of level which has seemed to be necessary to account for the buried forests and apparent sea-beaches so often encountered in the glaciated area. When the facts are placed before our very eyes, it seems strange that we had not sooner worked out the problem from the simple elements of the case; for ice is such a complex cause, being at one moment a rock, and the next a fluid, and the next a gas, that, without doing violence to the known nature of the cause, the widest range of phenomena can properly be attributed to it.

At first it seems singular that we should have remained so long comparatively ignorant of this portion of the North American coast. Mount St. Elias still defies the attempts which have been made to scale its summit. For the second time, even Mr. Russell has been compelled to give up the attempt. For a hundred years, also, unsatisfactory efforts have been made to ascertain the exact height of the peak. This is now found to be 18,100 feet. Upon the last attempt to reach that height the party struggled for twenty hours from their permanent camp at 8,000 feet, but attained an elevation of only 14,500 feet. Doubtless they could have reached the summit had they continued to press on, but it is equally certain that they never could have returned, and their discretion was clearly the better part of valor.

The reason why so little has been added to our knowledge of this region during the past one hundred years is the lack of motive urging to its exploration. Near the close of the last century the waters of this part of the Pacific fairly swarmed with adventurous navigators fitted out by various nations of Europe to find the Northwest Passage. Of some one or other of these, almost all the great natural features of the country bear witness in the names by which they are still designated. We have Cook's Inlet, Dixon's Entrance, Vancouver's Island, Puget Sound, the lofty peaks of Crillon and La Pérouse, and, last but not least, the great Malaspina Glacier. At the present time the only motives leading to this desolate region are those of science and adventure. Annually for the past six years some lone Government vessel has carried a party to Yakutat Bay in the early part of summer, and returned for them after the lapse of three or four months.

In consequence of these visits a whole galaxy of glaciers now bear the names of distinguished scientific men of the present generation. Yet the work of careful exploration has but just begun, and it is science and not pleasure or mammon that must complete the promising and noble work.

G. Frederick Wright.

COMMON SENSE IN NATIONAL ART GALLERIES.—I.

London, January, 1892.

It is fortunate that an occasional public function, such as the opening of the new Museum at Vienna, calls special attention to national art collections, since at other times existing conditions are accepted with the childlike, unquestioning faith which religion has long since ceased to inspire. I have been struck with this during late visits to Berlin, Dresden, and Munich.

It is natural that the public, with absolutely no knowledge of art and with no original ideas on the subject, should accept Baedeker, or at the best Crowe and Cavalcaselle, as infallible gospel. It would be amusing to take the man who, as a child, had never been allowed to look at a picture—like the proverbial youth brought up without religion—and suddenly let him loose in a gallery of old masters. The result would be of no practical value to the artist, but it might help to show the absurdity of modern art superstitions. As it is, professional art critics, or their students, would learn much if they followed an artist through galleries to them as sacred as St. Peter's to pious Catholics or the Mosque of St. Sophia to devout Mohammedans, and saw his utter indifference to the objects of their deepest reverence, and his raptures over canvases which they had passed without a thrill. To cast aside lightly the accepted traditions of centuries is folly, but it is far more preposterous to give up all right to private judgment when once the threshold of a picture gallery has been crossed. The protestant in art, as in religion, is a necessary quantity. It is as impossible for the lover of art to enjoy all the pictures which have survived their generation as it would be for the lover of literature to read with pleasure all the publications hidden away in the fastnesses of the British Museum. To the unprejudiced, some of the most salient features of the great European galleries are those unrecorded in guide-books and art compilations.

This is especially true of the Dresden Gallery, of which the reverent speak with a trifle more awe and respect, perhaps, than of any other in Europe—a fact not to be wondered at. There is, to begin with, a charm about Dresden itself which at once puts one out of the humor of cavilling and fault-finding. After passing through Berlin or Munich or the other large German cities, it is refreshing to come to a place as full of character as the Saxon capital; and the characteristic centre of this characteristic town is the Zwinger, with its eighteenth-century graceful affectations and rococo classicism. For those who can enjoy architecture artistically, just as they would painting, there is nothing more amusing than a good example of rococo, which it has become the correct fad to depreciate. Always delightful, the Zwinger is doubly so in summer, the tourist's season, when the central court or garden is full of flowers. The galleries themselves are no less delightful. The rooms are airy and spacious. Here I do not include the little cabinets, which are a weariness to the flesh; there is no more depressing experience than to stand in the room of the Holbein Madonna, and look down the long passageway leading by these cabinets, and feel that one is obliged to enter each by turn. The light, too, is good throughout, except in some of the lower galleries, which, save for very notable exceptions, seem to serve the purpose of waste picture baskets. And the decorative scheme is excellent; the chances are you come away without having noticed the color of the walls or the motive of the decorations. This is no small matter. Indeed, the importance of the treatment of the picture's background—simply because to be successful it must not distract attention from the pictures themselves—is not realized until this first principle of success is violated, as in the new gallery of Vienna.

The general system adopted in the arrangement of the pictures is also a credit to the directors. They are fairly well hung according to their schools and dates, which is not only a concession to the student, who studies them from the historical standpoint, but a help to the artist, who wants to know where to look for the painters who interest him. The overflow of the smaller canvases into the cabinets, however, is bewildering, since few of these open directly into the corresponding large galleries; the chances are that Italian primitives are not discovered until long after sixteenth-century Venetians and Bolognese have been seen, while the work of Dutchmen and Flemings who happen to have painted both small and large canvases, Rembrandt and Rubens, for example, is as scattered as that of the exhibitor in the average modern show. The hanging of the pictures is far less satisfactory. Piled one above the other, the effect of the walls is as distracting and wearying as in the Salon, and this could be easily avoided were a little more judgment shown in the selection, purchase, and preservation of work included in the collection.

That there are pictures worthy of the gallery built for them, the most inveterate enemy of "cock-eyed Madonnas" and of everything not essentially modern would be slow to deny. That there are others worthier of the bonfire—or at best of the obscurity of a Bloomsbury lodging-house—only the hopelessly enthusiastic would not admit. If the most needed reform in the exhibition of contemporary work is a hanging committee who will reject all artless and worthless canvases, despite the popularity of the names signed to them, so the national galleries of old masters call for the vigorous reformer with courage to throw out the failures of the great painter and the trivialities of the minor craftsman, no matter in what remote century they were produced. At Dresden the work which would pass the impartial hanging committee of all the world and all time would form a collection as invaluable to the student as it might seem insignificant in number to the tourist who prefers quantity to quality; but many of the accepted would not be pictures which now give the gallery its reputation. Were it not for the undue virtue attributed to quantity, acres of fair and flamboyant ladies, overfed and flabby men and pudgy babies, colossal witnesses of the fertility of Rubens's workshop, would be banished without compunction, though there would be always space and to spare for such proofs of his own genius, convincing if less conspicuous, as his sketches, dismissed in a few words by the catalogue as "studio work." And it would be far wiser cheerfully to accept the fact that the Italian schools are better represented elsewhere than to encumber walls, already overcrowded, not merely with many second-rate pictures by Italian painters, but with second-rate copies of others, and hopelessly restored canvases, not worth the restoration, like the big Correggios. Baedeker, in a burst of grandiloquent enthusiasm, extols the latter for their flower-like tinting, but, combined, they have not the value of one square inch of the little Magdalen, said by critics, with their usual perspicacity, not to be the work of Correggio because it is painted on copper, which was not used for that purpose in his day; that he might by chance have tried the experiment, seems never to have occurred to them. According to the same argument, Dürer never etched, Prince Rupert never made mezzotints. But this is a fair specimen of the critical argument upon which the "schoolmarm" of the west of America and the intense young person of the East of London thrive.

The Italian rooms might with advantage be reduced to one large enough to include a few of the primitives; the two exquisite Palma Vecchios (those three fair, florid "Fates," in their luxuriant beauty, and the "Marriage of Jacob and Rachel," so obviously composed, and for that very reason so decorative); one Titian, the "Tribute Money," the others being but melancholy proofs of what very bad work a great man could sometimes turn out; one or two Tintorettos, and as many of Veronese's lavish arrangements of brocades and satins; the famous Raphael, and, if a corner here and there were still left, perhaps others, too good to perish altogether, might be picked out. In the cabinets, bushels of Flemish and Dutch pictures might be thrown away and no one lose thereby. Among them are little masterpieces, of course—the Cranachs and Dürers, the Ter Borchs, and more than can be enumerated here. But who, save the Baedeker or Crowe and Cavalcaselle fanatic, will not own that he is bored to death by the tons of Teniers, whose one merit is the superabundance of detail, which make good "copy" for art historian and compiler; of Wouvermanns, when two or three would have more than sufficed; of bad Ruysdaels, which can but blind one to the few fine examples of the same artist; of so many others by men whose names are practically forgotten? It is useless, too, to hang by the dozen the tiny Gerard Douws and Gabriel Metsus and Kaspar Netschers, when only by looking at each apart and through a microscope can the infinite labor and patience devoted to it be appreciated, even while one wonders if this labor, this patience, be really art. More useless still is it, for the sake of covering the walls, to devote two or three small rooms to the commonplace productions of Dietrich, who is unknown outside of Dresden, and by rights should never have been heard of there, or to spare only less space to a man like Crispi, though in comparison he seems a master. The same indifference to quality is the rule in the pastel galleries. In one the old work but proves how much better the moderns understand the art, though Wauters is the one modern represented; in the other, all the bewigged fine ladies and gentlemen might disappear so long as Meng's and Liotard's work remained, so long as one could see how astonishingly clever and modern in treatment and feeling is the original of the poor "Chocolate Girl," caricatured in countless chromos and advertisements.

A more serious mistake in the hanging, showing as it does the directors' acceptance of the popular rather than the artistic standard, is the uncalled-for prominence given to certain pictures, the comparative obscurity reserved for others of greater importance if of less notoriety.

The most glaring instance is the setting aside of a special shrine for the Sistine Madonna, a remarkably fine Raphael, it is true, making the £70,000 paid by the English Government for the Blenheim picture still more unpardonable, but with its sentimental little angels, its claptrap device of drawn curtain, and its obvious catering to the public for whom it was produced, not to be mentioned in the same breath with that artistic triumph the Holbein Madonna, which, authorities say, Holbein never painted. Great work asserts itself without the help of sensational devices. What need of a separate room to emphasize the power of Velasquez in his two Spanish courtiers, both elderly and gray-haired, both in black with white about their necks, and yet each so wholly and entirely distinct in character that by contrast with them portraits by Rubens and Van Dyck in the same gallery seem lifeless and mannered, though these masters have seldom asserted their own individuality so successfully, seldom managed so well to forget the conventions which ruled them when they turned out their huge pot-boilers—the St. Jeromes, for example? That those two conventional saints, with their conventional lions, set in conventional landscapes, with such fidelity to current conventional methods, should be hung side by side, in all seriousness, is the best proof of the absurdity of the modern superstitious reverence for names which passes for appreciation of art. One could imagine a Carolus Duran and a Besnard or a Sir Frederick Leighton and a Whistler, with the same composition, producing results so positively unlike that the distinction and individuality of technique would give originality to the scheme as well. But not so with Rubens and Van Dyck when pot-boiling; at a glance their two compositions are identically the same, but Van Dyck, by a great stretch of imagination, has put the lion to St. Jerome's right, the book at his feet, placed the saint on a lowly seat, and carried a bit of black drapery across the canvas, while Rubens keeps the lion to the left, elevates the stone seat, spreads the book open on a table of rock, and omits the drapery—and this is all. Why, simply because the pictures are in the Dresden Gallery, should we be forced to think them great? Because they are painted by eminent men, they may have a certain negative interest, but their place, if they must be given a place, is in a museum of history, not of art.

While good work will assert itself when seen, owing to the vagaries of directors it may be hung practically out of sight. This is the case with Rembrandt's little "Saskia," in hat and feather, though it is far finer than the more talked about "Saskia" sitting on the painter's knee, and the "Crucifixion," both marked with stars in the well-appointed guide-book. Equal want of discrimination is shown in the hanging of Christopher Pauditz's three clever portraits in which he curiously anticipated Carrière, and which are the greatest surprise Dresden has in store for the artist; of Cranach's extraordinary little portrait of Melanchthon on his death-bed, with white beard, in white robes, against the white background, the ingenious forerunner of innumerable other death-beds, first communicants, and gentlemen in tennis flannels which have haunted Salon and Royal Academy for some years past; of Ter Borch's little interiors, Whistlerian as if the master himself had painted them; of too many others to be specified here.

Dresden possesses many masterpieces unrivalled elsewhere; it is rich in pictures like those of Pauditz and Ter Borch and Cranach, of special interest to the artist in their anticipation of modern problems and methods; it gives an unparalleled opportunity for the study of men like Ribera and Canaletto, who, great at their best (Ribera in that beautiful golden "Magdalen," Canaletto in his Pirnas), were full of mannerisms, with the one degenerating into mere theatrical commonplace, with the other into dull conventionality, by which, unfortunately, they are best known. But why not be honest, and recognize the fact that Dresden will never become the ideal gallery it might be made until directors no longer look upon a picture, when once it is bought and hung, as a sort of fetish, to be piously preserved at all costs, until the public no longer believe that an old master could never paint trash, that the authorities in a national gallery can never err in the arrangement and estimate of their treasures?

N. N.

Correspondence.

AMERICAN TESTIMONY FROM CHILI.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One would naturally expect that diplomatic and consular representatives of a friendly Power, while zealous to protect the interests of their citizens, would, in circumstances of reorganization such as exist in Chili, do all they could to render the difficulties of the situation less trying to those bearing the responsibility of the reëstablishment of law and order. Such a spirit does not characterize the conduct of the United States officials in Chili to-day; and it is this temper of obstructionists which rile Chilians and makes them disposed to resent the spread-eagle, overreaching officiousness of Egan, McCreery, etc.

With reference to the *San Francisco* trip to Quintero Bay, concerning which I wrote a letter published in your issue of October 8, what I claimed was the fact: that she went; that the boat which left the United States Consul on board brought back the news of the Congressional landing; and that the news thus became public property. Admiral Brown denied the fact of his going out to spy, and claimed that he limited himself to cabling facts to his Government; yet the following telegram by the Intendente Viel to Balmaceda surely bears no uncertain testimony to Admiral Brown's witness to the effectiveness and military meaning of the landing:

[Translation.]

"*From Valparaiso to the Moneda—August 21, of 1891 (at 9:36 A. M.).*

"Mr. President: The American Admiral has just left me, and he believes, as I do, that re-embarkment is impossible. Viel."

To sustain the fact of the giving out of the news, I now state that I received, through the *San Francisco*, on the morning of August 21, a list of the vessels seen at Quintero and probable number of men actually disembarked.

In connection with the murder of two United States seamen, Capt. Schley knew the popular feeling against Americans because of the *Itata*, Quintero, and cable-cutting incidents, and, whether justified or not, its existence could not be ignored. Even the Consul had advised that the men be kept on board, yet 117 men were given shore leave on October 16. Sailors always make for the worst sections of the city, and their drinking invariably leads to rows and arrests. Given the excited popular prejudices against Americans, it was highly indiscreet in Capt. Schley to land his men at all; and, given the unfortunate tendency of these Latin races to treacherously draw the knife where Anglo-Saxons would have a good honest fisticuff, it is only surprising that more were not injured. Every honorable man deplores the whole affair, yet thinks it was provoked by Capt. Schley's indiscretion. Still, such troubles with seamen are no rare occurrence, and the cause of them is manifest in the Judge's note of November 20, transmitted to Capt. Schley, which calls attention to the fact that, when presenting themselves as witnesses at the hearing, two *Baltimore* seamen were so intoxicated that one had to be carried out of the court-room.

The question of claims growing out of this sailors' row is for the United States Government to consider soberly and calmly; but is that possible when those who inform the Government go about saying, as several different persons have told me, and as I have myself heard from the lips of the Consul: "By what right of international law, I should like to know, can German and English seamen come ashore, and ours not? If this Government cannot guarantee us protection, why, we will come down and establish one that will. They have had their star chamber to whitewash their men, but we have also had ours. We have spent $4,000 cabling our report, and now it rests with the Cabinet to say what shall be done. It is an international question. I tell you Chili is over a volcano, and if she is not careful, she will be wiped off the face of the earth."

I have no personal animus whatever against Consul McCreery, yet when partisan feeling and rash talk show a desire to bring two nations into collision, it is time to speak and write the truth freely. To make a personal street conversation public is delicate, and my only excuse for doing so is to substantiate and guarantee as true what from other sources I know as street talk. The real object sought in pressing claims is, I believe, to influence exchange. Consul McCreery saw that every Congressional success bettered exchange, while Balmaceda's success lowered it. He was in daily communication by letter and telephone with Minister Egan in Santiago, who had constant access to the Moneda (White House), and who thus received the earliest news. The Consul could not help using this when he bought and sold bills of exchange, and made money. He was advised to be content with gains already made, but he was willing to back his opinion that, after receipt of arms, the organization of a force sufficient to defeat Balmaceda would take months; and so the sudden apparition in Quintero Bay, and the successes that followed, raised exchange so as probably to nip him badly. If now he can only make exchange drop, it would suit his bank account, and in furthering that object he talks as no representative of a foreign Power has any right to do.

The Shields claim has the same purpose, I believe. On roll 427, number 23 of steamer *Keeweenaw*, dated New York, July 18, 1891, he is registered as Patrick Shields, born in Ireland, subject of Great Britain, aged twenty-nine years, height 5 feet 10 inches. His also is a case of maltreatment and imprisonment. Diagnosis: drunk. Nothing shows the spirit of aggression of the United States representatives better than their making a claim of this when these data and the register of Shields as a deserter existed in the consulate.

The State Department will, I hope, be asked by Congress to hand over all official and private correspondence bearing on this war and its incidents, and its publication will show whether the representatives kept the Govern-

ment informed as to the true condition of affairs or misrepresented it.

Minister Egan's son had a railroad contract from Balmaceda's Government, and he himself was the closest diplomatic friend of the defunct Dictator. Admiral McCann compares Balmaceda to Lincoln, and in offering to mediate urges it because of the impossibility of the Congressionalists overthrowing him. Consul McCreery talks violently and is busy in exchange speculation. Admiral Brown, despite his denial, labors under the imputation of providing Balmaceda with military news and opinions.

Is the testimony of such men, and of the naval officers whose sentiment they mould, reliable and sufficient ground for pressing claims and assuming a threatening attitude? Forbearance and magnanimity become a great people. Do not allow prejudiced, self-seeking representatives to lead you to belie the traditions and history of your past.

JOHN TRUMBULL.

The undersigned, United States citizens, vouch that Dr. John Trumbull, Chilian born, an American by parentage and education, writes the foregoing honestly, from facts in his possession, and is worthy of credence.

(Signed), REV. JAMES F. GARVIN,
W. S. SHRIGLEY,
P. A. MCKELLAR,
A. A. PLOTNER,
REV. F. THOMPSON.

VALPARAISO, December 9, 1891.

THE APPLICATION OF IT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is much to be desired that you should point the morals of your own articles, but if you will not, then I must perform the part of the chorus in the old Greek play and do it for you. Thus, your article upon "Ohio's Republican Tammany" gives the history of Mr. George Cox, and closes with this sentence: "The significance of Cox is as a type of the men who are to-day the most powerful class in the Government of this country—the bosses of our great cities." The lesson to be drawn is, that the "boss" of to-day is the ἀναξ ἀνδρῶν of the old Greeks; that from that time to this the world always has been, as it probably always will be, governed by men; that men, and not measures, are the only effective medium of appeal to the masses of the people.

If there is one general characteristic of our politics—national, State, and city—it is the amount of precaution taken for the suppression of individuality. It is true that we elect mayors, governors, and presidents, but before we trust them with office we carefully tie their hands and feet and deprive them of every shadow of power, except by underhand combination and intrigue. Honestly and openly they can do nothing and can be held responsible for nothing. We then proceed to put all power in the hands of bodies of men called legislatures, made up of a mass of political atoms, all precisely equal, with no leaders or crystallizing element, working entirely by majorities and minorities, nominally based on the shibboleths of Republicans and Democrats, though these are merely covers for the log-rolling and intrigue by which majorities are obtained. The whole body splits itself up into committees, which work again by majorities and minorities and the same methods, the chairman having only a nominal precedence. The members of the Legislature are selected by caucuses and conventions, working by pure majority and minority, the candidates themselves having very little to do with the matter, at least publicly. And when the people look on in stupefied amazement at a game which they do not understand, and in which they take little or no interest, we scold at them and proclaim aloud that universal suffrage has failed.

Meantime, Mr. George Cox, being gifted with natural shrewdness, strong will power, and the instinct of rule, takes the short cut towards it. He gathers a band of followers, the conditions being implicit obedience on one side and plunder on the other. Through these agents and by processes so simple that a child can understand them, he takes possession of the nominating conventions, and provides candidates for the Republicans. A counterpart so exactly like him that it is difficult to avoid suspicion of collusion, does the same thing for the Democrats, and the people are limited in their choice to the candidates of these two worthies.

Your article, succeeding the other, upon "Cheats and Cheating," is merely a development of the same theme. You express surprise that when the Republicans have come to grief by a long course of cheating, the Democrats, on their advent to power, should proceed in exactly the same way. The fact is, they can do nothing else. It seems pretty strong to say that cheating is the only way in which our politics can be carried on, but the process of lobbying, intrigue, and trading of votes by which alone majorities are obtained, comes so near to it that the difference is not great. Not that there are no honest men in politics. Thanks to universal suffrage, there are a great many. But they find that they can accomplish nothing by honest methods, and so they either conform to the political atmosphere about them or take themselves off. This latter alternative is most in favor, thus leaving a residue of the kind dear to the heart of Mr. George Cox, the first lesson impressed upon them being on all occasions to oppose any strengthening of the executive, by raising a howl about "one-man power."

What is the remedy? Why, to recognize frankly that "bosses" are just as much a necessity in politics as in a factory, a railway, or a dry-goods store; and instead of resolutely shutting our eyes to facts, to take measures that we have good bosses instead of bad ones. The one-man power does and will force itself to the front in spite of all we can say or do. The only choice left to us is as to what kind of one-man power we will have.

The method is, to convert the nominal into the real executive, to give to the Mayor, Governor, or President the full conduct of administration by the power of appointment and removal of heads of departments, and through them of all subordinates, one man in each place. Then give to the Legislature no power of interference with the executive, but every power of inquiry and criticism, with that of granting or refusing money. Give to the executive, further, the power of proposing and defending such measures as it thinks necessary for administration, and to the Legislature (*mirabile dictu*) the veto power. Then let the whole struggle over these questions be carried on in full view of the public, with as much care for the protection of individuality as we now use towards the suppression of it; so that the people may know what kind of men they have chosen, and which of them they will select for further advancement; and instead of civil war being necessary for the evolution of Lincolns and Grants and Shermans, the same result may be arrived at through the finances and the civil service, and the local affairs of States and cities.

G. B.

BOSTON, January 16, 1892.

BARBARISM IN OHIO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is to be hoped that that portion of the press which is on the side of civilization as against savagery will do its full duty in the condemnation of the brutal mob which murdered a negro prisoner at Oxford, O., a few days since. The hanging and riddling with bullets of a man who was in the hands of the law, with nothing to cause doubt as to his trial and punishment, would have been bad enough at best; but when the fact is added that his life was fast ebbing away by a wound inflicted by his own hand, the wantonness of the butchery becomes almost inconceivable.

The community has suffered a disgrace which can be wiped out by nothing less than the prompt arrest of the leaders in the bloody outrage and their punishment to the fullest extent which the law will allow. If this cannot be done, then Oxford is a community from which respectable people should absent themselves.

A CITIZEN OF OHIO.

LOWELL AS INTERPRETER TO THE SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The characterization of Lowell in the January *Atlantic* by Mr. Henry James brings to mind what has long seemed to me something of special interest to the Southern student in the writings of that poet. Speaking for myself, I have found it hard, in my reading, satisfactorily to recover the North's point of view in entering upon the contest with the South. This difficulty, I apprehend, has been more or less plainly felt by many foreigners—by Mr. Gladstone, for instance, and Prof. Freeman, to mention no others. No familiarity, however large, with the public utterances of that time seems altogether to clear the view of a student of to-day; the life-blood is gone out of events; their finer spirit is irrevocable.

Approaching the problem from the Southern standpoint, I had my first distinct sense of illumination when I took up the poems of Lowell. I began with him to feel again what had been felt before. I recognized in him "the throb" Mr. James speaks of. I could no longer be oblivious to the steady and powerful impulse that had driven the North on. Each repeated reading of the "Commemoration Ode," the second series of the "Biglow Papers," and the other war pieces of Lowell has brought me nearer, I am fain to think, to realizing the highest significance of the contest to the Northern people.

In this view, Lowell's value, to the Southern student at least, is to be found in his poetry, less as poetry than as criticism; and if I venture to contend that his fame as an interpreter of literature and events will outlast his vogue as a singer, I am not sure that this is to attempt a detraction. He will remain, more than any other American, the inspirer of love for one's country. I think of him as a perfect example among the moderns of that noble saying by Thucydides of the Athenian, that his true self was his mind; and this was never more truly his own than when working to compass the welfare of his country.

I may add, if so personal a view as this can possess an interest, that, next to Lowell, I have found Motley's Letters most helpful in fixing the true purport of the war to the Northern people.

THOMAS H. CLARK.

MONTGOMERY, ALA., January 9, 1892.

THE HOLTZENDORFF FUND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to the note in your issue of January 14, on the Holtzendorff Fund, I take pleasure in informing you that a movement is on foot for the formation of an American committee to further the interests of this truly commendable object. Pending such organization, the writer would be happy to furnish documents and information to any who may be interested in the project.—Respectfully,

Roland P. Falkner.

Philadelphia, January 15, 1892.

AN EXHUMED CIPHER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some time ago a gang of workmen, who were excavating for the foundation of a barn on my farm near here, dug up a small pile of English coins dating more than 150 years ago; they were all copper and of small value. Near the same place was also found a curious copper plate, which at once engaged my interest, and I have tried to trace its origin and learn its owner and use.

The plate has engraved upon its face the English alphabet, also the punctuation marks and the Arabic numerals, and opposite to each of these is a cipher. Upon the reverse side is the name of the engraver—Pontifex, 46 Shoe Lane, London. This plate was found in ground upon which, it is said Gen. Braddock's army of English and colonial troops encamped, and adjacent to the old "Braddock's Road" made by them as they advanced from this point towards Wills' Creek, Maryland (afterwards called Cumberland for his warlike Highness the Duke of Cumberland), and thence towards Fort Duquesne, now Pittsburgh, Pa., in the memorable campaign of 1755 against the French, which resulted in the disastrous ambuscade and slaughter of nearly the whole of Gen. Braddock's army. Along this same road Washington led the retreat of the survivors of this battle back to Winchester, where he built Fort Loudoun, which may be seen here to-day.

The locality of the finding of the plate and coins and the dates of the coins have induced me to venture the conjecture that they were dropped by some one in Braddock's army, and that the plate was a key to cipher despatches, and perhaps belonged to Gen. Braddock's private secretary, young Shirley, who was a son of Gov. Shirley of Massachusetts; or else was the key to private cipher communications between individuals of that time. Through a professional correspondent, I have had an examination made in the British Museum, by Mr. W. J. Hardy of Lincoln's Inn, London, a son of Sir William Hardy, formerly Keeper of the Records, and himself a "Record Agent"—*i. e.*, he works up cases of genealogy, custom, and such like for solicitors and others, and is therefore familiar with the repositories of the records and ancient documents. He writes that "in the Sixth Report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission, page 638, may be found a cipher used by Mary Queen of Scots; some of the ciphers are similar to those on this copper plate." He does not think it could have been a military cipher, as they do not, at the Record Office, know of any cipher used in despatches from America, except that of numbers for words, such as 1688 = was, and 1972 = through. Pontifex, the engraver, Mr. Hardy finds, was well known in his day, and that was more than a hundred years ago, but the people who have succeeded to his business at the same place in London can give no information about the plate.

I send herewith an impression from the plate. Can any of your readers tell me more about the cipher?—Yours truly,

W. Roy Stephenson.

Winchester, Va., January 12, 1892.

EXPECT FOR SUSPECT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: This substitution, though it has been called an Americanism, is, probably, in the colloquial language both of the high and of the low, quite as common here in England as elsewhere. Until somewhat recently, however, it seems to have been sanctioned very infrequently by authors of good repute; and one would fain believe that polite literature can furnish but few quotations to accompany the following:

"Leibnitz, . . . being very erroneous himself, cannot be *expected* to have bequeathed precision to his followers." Oliver Goldsmith (1759), *Miscellaneous Works* (ed. Prior, 1837), Vol. III., p. 246.

"I *expect* they are of a character which will not set you upon making comparisons." Rev. Dr. William Whewell (1821), in Mr. I. Todhunter's *Account of Dr. Whewell's Writings* (1876), Vol. II., p. 43.

"But it is an old saying, that a story never loses in telling; and so we may *expect* it must have been with this story." Sir George W. Dasent, *Story of Burnt Njal* (1861), Vol. I., Preface, p. viii.

"Now, *I expect*, Lady Ambrose, that, in its true sense, you know a good deal more history than you are aware of." Mr. W. H. Mallock, *The New Republic* (1877), p. 184 (ed. 1878).

The misuse of *expect* thus exemplified occurs again and again in the writings of President Jefferson. In at least one instance, where the reference is not to the future, he has also *expectation*. Yet, as will be seen from what is about to be cited, he is not the sole proprietor of this barbarism:

"A fond *expectation* that the Duke had come in search of her filled her bosom with the hope of an explanation; and, removing the traces of tears from her eyes, she waited his coming with eager anxiety." Mrs. Eliza Nathan, *Langreath* (1822), Vol. III., p. 88.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

Marlesford, England, December 29, 1891.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will shortly bring out 'The Early Renaissance, and Other Essays,' by Prof. J. M. Hoppin of Yale; and 'Miss Bagg's Secretary,' a new novel by Clara Louise Burnham.

A translation of G. Maspéro's 'Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria,' with illustrations, will be published directly by D. Appleton & Co.

Fleming H. Revell Co. have nearly ready a new Life of Lincoln, following those of Spurgeon and Wesley in their series of "Lives that Speak."

Macmillan & Co. have in press 'The Problems of Greek History,' by Prof. Mahaffy.

A new and cheap edition of Andrew Lang's literary and critical essays is announced by Longmans & Co., together with one of Lecky's 'History of England in the Eighteenth Century,' in twelve monthly volumes, divided seven to England and five to Ireland.

'The Place-Names' of Scotland, by the Rev. J. B. Johnston, is to be published this month by David Douglas, Edinburgh.

Selections from George Long's translation of the 'Discourses of Epictetus' form, with the 'Encheiridion,' the new volume of the Knickerbocker Nuggets (Putnams).

Mrs. Ellen Hardin Walworth has put together in one volume an account of the Battles of Saratoga, 1777, and a statistical sketch of the Saratoga Monument Association, 1886-1891 (Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons). The volume is profusely illustrated with views, portraits, and maps, and has a permanent value. The monuments marking sites are shown photographically. They are the gifts of descendants, sometimes women, of American participators in the campaign against Burgoyne. A visitors' guide to Saratoga Springs concludes the compilation.

Every student and teacher must be thankful to Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard for his 'Epoch Maps Illustrating American History,' bearing the imprint of the Messrs. Longman. They are fourteen in number, and bear witness to an immense amount of well-directed research among the sources. Very striking is the series showing the territorial extent and civil divisions of the United States on March 4, 1801, 1825, and 1855, July 4, 1861, and March 4, 1891, respectively. The infamy and peril of the last moves of the Slave Power stand out most effectively in the map exhibiting the status of slavery 1775–1865, where the disgraceful legend in red reads, over nearly half the country, "Opened to Slavery—Slavery Confirmed," by acts of Congress and the Dred Scott decision. The small scale of these maps rendered crowding unavoidable. We should hope that Prof. Hart regards them only as an essay, to be followed some day by a larger atlas with a printed reference to the leading authorities and points of controversy upon the back.

The Collections of the Nova Scotia Historical Society are never without interest for the people of "the States," and there is much to bear out this assertion in the latest volume (vii.), issued by the Society at Halifax. Most important is the publication for the first time of the tabular General Return of the population in the several townships for January 1, 1767, with very instructive comments by D. Allison. Incidentally the writer discusses the number of Acadians summarily expelled in 1755, shows that the race was not exterminated and survived the shock, and that the exiles in some measure made their way back, though not so soon as to be counted in this General Return as landowners or citizens owning allegiance upon oath. The American settlements reckoned about 1,000 souls. Very readable, also, is ex-Gov. Archibald's story of Nova Scotia's share in peopling Sierra Leone with negroes, which might be paralleled by the experiences of our own fruitless Colonization Society.

We should have noticed sooner the appearance of what is undoubtedly a valuable contribution to the study of the history of our language, namely, 'Die Sprache der Rushworth Glossen zum Evangelium Matthäus und der Mercische Dialect,' Part I., Vokale (Göttingen: Dietrich, 1891). In view of the now generally accepted theory that Mercian is the direct ancestor of our modern literary English, it is clear that any light thrown upon its peculiar phonology will be most acceptable to all scholars of English. The author, Prof. E. M. Brown (who now holds the chair of English in the University of Cincinnati), has treated the vowel-system of Rushworth Mercian exhaustively. His conclusions are that in point of age the language is later than the Corpus Gloss and older than the times of King Alfred and the Life of Chad; in point of form it is distinctively Midland and not inclining to Kentish.

The fourth volume of *Garden and Forest* (New York) lies bound before us, bearing ample testimony to the continued success of its conductors in maintaining its high character during the past year. The editorial column has been ably filled with matter useful to municipalities as well as to individuals. The engravings afford a rich variety of remarkable or rare trees, flowers, shrubs, and landscapes, each with its accompanying letter-press. Perhaps most noticeable in the contributions is the series of letters from the shore towns of Massachusetts, by Mr. J. B. Harrison, whose pilgrimage was made to determine how far citizens, hotel-keepers, and summer cottagers had appropriated the shore with the prospect of cutting off public access to it, and what provision for commons existed. His revelations are surprising, and ought to lead to vigorous village-improvement societies from the Merrimac to Provincetown.

An interesting contribution to recent Goethe literature is Dr. Karl Heinemann's 'Goethe's Mutter: ein Lebensbild nach den Quellen' (Leipzig: Seemann, 1891). The remarkable qualities of the Frau Rath, as she was called, the "Mütterchen" from whom her son claimed to have inherited

"die Frohnatur
Und Lust zu faulliren,"

were not generally recognized until the publication of Bettina von Arnim's 'Goethe's Briefwechsel mit einem Kinde' in 1835. Heinemann's biography covers a period of nearly seventy years, and gives a history of the poet's ancestry, including his great-grandfather, the farrier of Artern in Thuringia, and his grandfather, the tailor, who wandered off to Frankfort, where he generated the stock that has made the family name famous. The present volume contains many of Frau Goethe's letters, full of kindly feeling and fresh humor, independent of the conventionalities of society and of grammar, and as original in thought as in orthography. Heinemann also depicts at length the life and trials of Goethe's sister, the gifted but unhappy Cornelia. The publisher has spared no pains in illustrating the work, which has met with deserved success, having already passed into a second edition.

In the January number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* may be found a list of battles and casualties of Massachusetts regiments during the war of the rebellion, compiled by Mrs. Florence W. Jaques, chief assistant to T. W. Higginson, State Military and Naval Historian. Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England" have a weighty reference to the Lees of Virginia, who are also taken up in an authoritative paper by J. Henry Lea, a little later on in the same number.

The General Theological Library of Boston is making an effort to extend its membership and so its usefulness. It was established in 1860 for the benefit of clergymen and all others in all parts of the country interested in theological studies, and now has at command some 16,000 books, besides nearly as many pamphlets and newspapers. Full particulars in regard to its methods and needs and the ways of meeting the latter may be obtained from the Secretary, Mr. Luther Farnham, 6 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston.

The School of Applied Ethics will hold its second session this year as last at Plymouth, Mass., from July 1 to August 12. The managers have good hopes of founding a permanent school of this name and scope in connection with some large university. Prof. C. H. Toy of Cambridge succeeds Prof. H. C. Adams as dean for the current year, and to him or to S. Burns Weston, Treasurer, No. 1602 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia, contributions for the support of the School may be sent. Meantime there has been a necessary raising of the tuition fee from ten to twenty dollars (for all the courses in the three departments).

The annual Alvarenga prize for the best essay on any subject in medicine is offered through the College of Physicians of Philadelphia, of which Dr. Charles W. Dulles is Secretary. Essays must be received by him on or before May 1, 1892. The prize this year amounts to about $180.

An historical exhibition illustrating the technical methods of the Reproductive Arts, with special reference to the photo-mechanical processes of the present day, is now open at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, and will close on March 6.

From the report of the directors of the British South Africa Company presented at the recent annual meeting of shareholders, and the comments upon it, two or three things are apparently true of the vast region of 500,000 square miles administered by it. Although the alluvial gold and the reefs down to a certain depth in parts of Mashonaland have been exhausted by prehistoric miners, there are reefs in the heart of the virgin forest which have never been touched by either black or white, and, when rapid communications are opened up, will yield a considerable profit on the expense of working. As regards the agricultural value of the land, a deputation of prominent Cape Colony farmers who visited it on behalf of intending colonists, and whose observations were made over a region 500 miles in extent by 25 in width, concluded that at least 40,000 square miles of Mashonaland can be occupied by a white farming population. An interesting discovery, it may be added, in this same region has just been announced of a hill on the rock of which are imprinted a crowd of footsteps, "many human, many of wild animals," all turned towards the top of the hill, as if fleeing from some great primeval disaster. What this was there is nothing left to show.

A correspondent obligingly points out that in our issue of January 7 we erroneously ascribed the authorship of the article on the Encyclical *Novarum Rerum* in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of December 15 to M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, editor of *L'Économiste Français*, while it is the work of his elder brother Anatole, who is known especially on account of his remarkable volumes on Russia. "It may interest you," adds our correspondent, "to know that while in college, where they were classmates of each other, Paul was known as a strong all-around man, while Anatole, who excelled his brother in his literary studies, paid no attention whatever to the purely scientific side of his education. This may explain partly why he is now a good deal more of a dreamer than his 'hard-headed' brother."

—The January Bulletin of the Boston Public Library contains two interesting selections from its valuable collection of historical manuscripts. These, the first of an intended series, are published partly for the purpose of making them known, and partly for the sake of preserving them in permanent form. The first consists of the 'Memoranda of Lieut.-Col. Eld of the Coldstream Guards, during his service in America, in the years 1779 and 1780.' They are written on leaves inserted in a copy of Tarleton's 'History of the Campaigns of 1780–81,' and were probably begun as a commentary on this work, although the intention was only partially carried out. The most interesting portion is a vivacious account of an expedition to Paramus in the Jerseys, where an American picket was posted, on March 23, 1780. The rebels were surprised and dispersed, but the British on their retreat were apparently saved from total destruction only by the gallantry of Col. Eld, then an ensign, who with three others stopped the advance of the Americans by tearing up the planks of a bridge under a heavy fire. The last entry is: "March 26th. Got permission to visit New York & to perform at the Theatre." This is followed by ten letters of Earl Percy, written between the years 1774 and 1778. They contain nothing of special note except the view which he takes of the situation in his first letter written from this country, dated October 27, 1774. In this he writes: "Our affairs here are in the most Critical Situation imaginable; Nothing less than the total loss or Conquest of the Colonies must be the End of it." He forms a very poor opinion of the colonists at the outset, for he writes in November of the same year: "The People here are the most designing Artfull Villains in the World. They have not the least Idea of either Religion or Morality. Nor have they the least Scruple of taking the most solemn Oath on any Matter that can assist their Purpose, tho' they know the direct contrary can be clearly & evidently proved in half an Hour." The American letters close with an account of the battle of Long Island, in which, however, the Earl took no part.

—The Code of Georgia is the only one in the United States in which the common law and the principles of equity are reduced to a series of separate and distinct propositions having the form and force of statutes. Judge Richard H. Clark of Atlanta, the only surviving member of the commission which drafted it, gives its history in the November-December number of the *American Law Review*. The Code, strange to say, was constructed on the general plan of the Code of Alabama, a State which Judge Clark calls "the daughter of Georgia." But when Mr. George A. Gordon of Savannah, who had examined with care the Alabama Code of 1852, proposed in November, 1858, to the Georgia Legislature the codification of the laws of Georgia, he went further, embracing in his scheme laws derived from the common law and the decisions of the Supreme Court of the State as well as from the statutes. The Code of 1860, prepared on this design, was the two years' work of David Irwin, Thomas R. R. Cobb, and Richard H. Clark. To Mr. Cobb was assigned that part which is its distinguishing feature—the Civil Code. Judge Clark says of him that he possessed an order of mind which qualified him, if genius and learning can qualify one, for originating codes and constitutions for the government of States. But he adds: "A code of laws must be founded on the developments of time, and no State or nation is prepared for a code of laws until it has gradually enacted a series of laws from which, by harmonious amendments and alterations, a wise system may be formed." Though Judge Clark asserts that, during the twenty-seven years of trial, the Code of Georgia has been found adequate to every emergency, it may be doubted whether it has been a benefit to the jurisprudence of the State. There are others besides the late Robert Toombs who have doubted its wisdom. The Code enacted into law the decisions of the State Supreme Court. That court was not organized until 1845. It

was unhampered by binding precedents, and consciously adopted a policy at war with the arbitrary and technical principles which characterized the early common law. There can be no doubt that this court, if care had been continually exercised in the selection of its judges, would in fifty years have gradually moulded a much more admirable system of laws than that struck off at a heat by the three codifiers of 1860.

—Mr. Randolph Harrison of Lynchburg, Va., calls our attention to the fact that the Confederate Gen. Early, in Southern Historical Society Papers for December, 1877, is authority for the story of Lee's interview with Gen. Ewell on the first day of the battle of Gettysburg, which was treated as mythical in the review of Drake's 'Battle of Gettysburg' in our No. 1384. To have the authority for a story definitely placed is one step towards a correction, and we thank Mr. Harrison for the reference. In the review it was spoken of as "a version ill-supported," and a little fuller citation of the authorities referred to will, as we think, make this clear. In his official report, Gen. Lee himself speaks of his wish that Ewell should seize Culp's Hill at the close of the first day, but adds that the National forces anticipated Ewell and occupied the hill, "but in what force could not be ascertained, owing to the darkness." He also says that "an intercepted despatch showed that another corps had halted that afternoon four miles from Gettysburg. *Under these circumstances*, it was decided not to attack until the arrival of Longstreet, two of whose divisions encamped about four miles in the rear during the night." He thus distinctly makes his determination not to press the attack by his left wing (which is a material part of the story referred to) *follow* these events. Ewell's report fixes the time. He says: "I received orders soon after dark to draw my corps to the right, in case it could not be used to advantage where it was. . . . I represented to the Commanding General that the hill above referred to (Culp's Hill) was unoccupied by the enemy, . . . and that it commanded their position and made it untenable, so far as I could judge." He waited for Johnson's division to arrive before making the attempt to take it, and "after twelve o'clock at night" sent his orders to Johnson. Johnson's attempt failed because Meade's troops had been first in occupying it, and the fact was thus discovered; but by the time Ewell got the news, "day was now breaking and it was too late for any change of place"; that is to say, he could not carry out the alternative in Lee's order by moving his troops towards the right. It is thus proved to have been near daybreak of the second day when Lee made the determination which it is the gist of the story that he reached in the afternoon of the first. Ewell further says of this second day: "Early in the morning I received a communication from the Commanding General, the tenor of which was that he intended the main attack to be made by the First Corps (Longstreet's) on our right, and wished me, as soon as their guns opened, to make a diversion in their favor, to be converted into a real attack if opportunity offered." This is the order itself, and Ewell's mode of describing it shows that it was not given on the evening of the first day, as it could not have been.

—Mr. Drake is equally explicit in making the supposed conversation occur after "Culp's Hill had been snatched from his (Ewell's) grasp." His mistake is in failing to notice that Ewell did not know of this till nearly daylight of the second day. It is thus that these official reports show that no such conversation could have taken place on the first day, when Ewell was still expecting to seize the point which would make Cemetery Hill "untenable." The circumstances told by Gen. Longstreet and Gen. Long are equally decisive, if we had room to analyze them. Long's narration not only shows that Early's story was an error of recollection, but gives a hint how it may have arisen. Lee went to Ewell's position in the forenoon of the second day, to see the ground for himself, and expected to hear Longstreet's guns open while there. He expressed the same impatience at the delay that he had expressed on the day before at the prolonged absence of Stuart's cavalry. This seems to be the germ out of which grew the misrecollection of 1877. Further examination only shows more conclusively the truth of our general proposition, that in a struggle for a place in history between authentic facts and a telling anecdote, the odds are all in favor of the anecdote.

—Students of English phonology will welcome the reprint (from *American Dialect Notes*) of Dr. O. F. Emerson's scholarly thesis on the "Ithaca Dialect." The author, who is now Assistant Professor of English at Cornell University, has made a worthy contribution to American scholarship, and opened a new field of linguistic study of great interest and value. His historical sketch of the settlement of Ithaca, N. Y., precedes a discussion of the language of the common people of that community, special care being taken to record only the unaffected pronunciation of the uncultured. The material is summarized in tables showing the development of the vowels of the dialect from Old and Middle English, and there follows a thorough treatment of the phonology. The concluding chapter treats of the relation to English in the mother-country, and points out that the Ithaca dialect shows the peculiarities of the eighteenth and, to some extent, the seventeenth-century English. In all probability it is a descendant of some branch of the Eastern Division as given in the classification of Ellis. Possibly the same conclusion might safely be drawn from a less minute study, but it is a matter for rejoicing that this first treatment of an American-English dialect should show in both plan and execution that scientific spirit and thorough workmanship which will render it a safe model for later explorers in the same field.

—M. F. Brunetière has published a new and revised edition of his interesting book on 'Le Roman Naturaliste,' in which he brings out even more forcibly than before his conviction that Zola and the writers of his school do not deserve to be called "naturalists" in the true sense of the word. This opinion is stated in so many words in the brief preface, but it is developed and maintained in the whole series of articles which forms the volume. Needless to say that M. Brunetière's exposition is a masterly one, and forms a valuable contribution to the literature of modern criticism, and that while readers who are not fanatical admirers of the Zolaesque school will cordially thank him for his courageous attack on the filthy and abominable books which so-called "naturalists" have produced, the partisans of the latter will find it a difficult task to invalidate his conclusions. Two essays have been omitted from this edition, the one upon Miss Rhoda Broughton's novels and that upon the Russian nihilistic novel. On the other hand, four essays have been added, on "Les Petits Naturalistes" (Céard, Huysman, Hennique, Maupassant), "La Banqueroute du Naturalisme" (in which Zola is severely handled *apropos* of 'La Terre'), "L'Évangéliste" of Daudet, and "Les Nouvelles" of Maupassant. Recent numbers of the *Revue Bleue* contain the lectures M. Brunetière is engaged in delivering weekly at the Odéon in Paris. These lectures, fifteen in number, will cover the history of the French drama from the time of Corneille to the present day. They are particularly interesting and instructive. Of the five which have appeared in the *Revue*, two especially deserve marked notice: they are those on Racine ("Andromaque") and Molière ("Le Tartuffe").

THE COMTIST CALENDAR.

The New Calendar of Great Men: Biographies of the 558 Worthies of all ages and countries in the Positivist Calendar of Auguste Comte. Edited by Frederic Harrison. Macmillan. 1892.

THAT the contemplation of the lives and characters of great men is a salutary and invigorating spiritual exercise has always been admitted and often proved. But it is so only on condition that the heroes are apprehended in all their living reality and passion; and, unfortunately, biography is infested with pious frauds. Washed-out accounts of Washington and Franklin have done incalculable injury to American characters. Such portraits had their origin in that deep faith in mendacity, as the only thing to be trusted to excite a desire to be good and to keep society straight—a sacred duty, too, to the dead—which was pervading and powerful in this country up to thirty years ago; and, thus engendered from the spirit of lies, how could these biographies bear living seeds of anything but hypocrisy and sordidness? Auguste Comte's calendar is a more systematic and resolute endeavor to belie the facts, not of this or that man's existence, but of biography in the wholesale. A list of Worthies which excludes Napoleon while admitting Harûn-ar-Rashîd, as if there were a single littleness of the former which was not still littler in the latter, or a single spark of greatness in the latter which was not a fiery blaze in the former, is plainly animated by some ulterior purpose; and a portraiture of man's development, as this calendar professes to be, that is arranged in thirteen equal divisions, each of these subdivided into four equal parts, and each of these again into seven others, of which six are equal and the seventh superior in every case, is no transcript from nature, but a fanciful invention.

Among Comte's contemptible traits, none more marks his smallness than this calendar—not the drawing of it up, for that might pass for a rational pastime, but the failure to inspire his disciples with manhood enough to cast it aside. Auguste Comte was as utterly wanting in admiration and sympathy for great men as he was for his neighbors. He thought of them, not as concrete souls, but only as factors in the advancement of the human race, abstractly considered. What are his thirteen greatest men? Mere figureheads: Moses, Homer, Aristotle, Archimedes, Cæsar, Charlemagne, Dante, Gutenberg, Shakspere, Descartes, Frederick the Great, and Bichat. Gutenberg! What did Comte know or care about Gutenberg as a man? But he is not thinking of the men themselves. Where is Jesus? Not among these 13; nor among the 52 of the second rank; nor yet among the 312 of

the third rank; nor even among the 181 of the fourth rank—not there at all! Buddha, Confucius, and Mahomet—the gentle Mahomet!—are in the second rank; Zoroaster, Manco Capac, Menu, Sesostris in the third. Jesus is omitted because he does not represent the sentiments which it is Comte's purpose to inculcate. Most persons, asked to name a baker's dozen of the greatest names of all time, would choose twelve of them from among Alexander, Buddha, Cæsar, Charlemagne, Dante, Homer, Jesus, Mahomet, Michelangelo, Moses, Napoleon, Newton, Pythagoras, Shakspere, and Socrates; but only half of Comte's list is drawn from these. Those great leaders of armies and rulers of peoples, Attila, Belisarius, Charles XII., Clive, Cortez, Queen Elizabeth, Genghis Khan, Julian, Marlborough, Napoleon, Omar I., Peter the Great, Pitt, Timour, Turenne, Wallace, Wellington, William the Conqueror, are not recognized as great men at all. Godfrey de Bouillon goes in as a stanch Catholic. Comte held everything like Protestantism in detestation; we search his list in vain for the names of Calvin, Huss, Knox, Luther, Savonarola, Swedenborg, Wesley, Wiclif. These he excluded as mere destroyers, thus betraying a very false notion of the process of mental development, in which destruction plays an essential part—there was no other good in Comte himself. He took little stock in doctors, and did not know John Hunter, Jenner, Sydenham, nor Vesalius.

Some great names in science, too, are omitted, as Gilbert, Herschel, Rumford; and perhaps not a single scholar is named as such. Yet mediocrities like Vaucanson and Montgolfier appear in the second rank! And this in the year of our Lord 1849, with the mechanical theory of heat in the air! Of course, Sadi-Carnot, Gaulois, Abel, are not to be dreamt of. Queer notions of philosophy find places for the stupid Albertus Magnus, the superficial John of Salisbury, the crazy Raymond Lully, the empty Ramus, the emotionalist Bonaventura, the unsound Hobbes, the insignificant Cusa, Campanella, Vauvenargues, Duclos, and others equally destitute of all claim to greatness, while such important thinkers as Epicurus, Abelard, Duns Scotus, Ockham, Berkeley, Rousseau, Bentham, James Mill, pass unnoticed. Comte was too small a mathematician to appreciate Cauchy, Fresnel, Gauss, Laplace, or even Ricardo. Fermat, who as a reasoner cannot possibly be placed lower than second in the whole history of mind, for he invented a form of inference absolutely novel, and, besides, discovered the mode of reasoning of the differential calculus, all but its notation—this man is admitted to the list, but only in the lowest rank, as second to a second-rate mathematician, John Wallis.

But this is only an example of how little the utilitarian world cares for reasoners. Reasoners are of no use, for the most part, except to posterity—and unborn posterity rouses but a mild interest. The calls of a bread-and-butter profession prevented Fermat from accomplishing much. He could do little but jot down on margins of books and on stray leaves surprising propositions about numbers without demonstrations, destined to puzzle his ablest successors for over two hundred years. One of his theorems is still under investigation. Nevertheless, Comte, a professed mathematician, wearily assigns to Fermat bare standing-room among his assemblage of Worthies. So it was with Jacob Steiner, another most wonderful reasoner, with little question the greatest of all geometers, though not in Comte's list. Extreme poverty quite prevented the publication of the greater part of his discoveries, which have thus been lost; and those that were published had to be published without demonstrations. Thus they remained a dead wall for geometry during thirty-six years. It was the same, in a measure, with the remarkable reasoner, Thomas Young, though he practised a lucrative profession. Kepler's great work, beyond comparison the most marvellous piece of ampliative reasoning ever executed, as well as the most momentous in its consequences, was rendered possible only by his wife's riches and the bounty of the Emperor. His contemporaries, no doubt, held Kepler in high esteem, but they could not dream that his performance was destined to lead to a Newton's, and thence, through the development of modern physics, was to revolutionize the daily life of every civilized being. It was only a sinecure professorship, which another had voluntarily resigned to him, that enabled Newton to do his work (the wealthy Halley paying the printer); and surely this one result by itself fully justifies and compensates all the expenditures that have ever been made in England to establish foundations. Rowan Hamilton, the inventor of quaternions, likewise held a professorship without definite duties. The annual dues of the Royal Society prevented him from the advantage of membership; Newton had been excused from their payment.

Aristotle himself, the prince of thinkers, would scarcely, we believe, be heard of to-day, if it had not been for Alexander. Even as it was, his great works excited so little attention that if a single copy had not been exhumed from the cellar where it had been rotting, forgotten, for nigh two centuries, the whole current of human thought would have been different, and we should perhaps be this day in semi-barbarism. The same thing would equally have resulted if it had not happened that the greatest man of thought of all time was beloved by the greatest man of action. It needed an Alexander to appreciate an Aristotle: ordinary men have not imagination enough to be interested in posterity.

If Newton had not done his work, it would have got done piecemeal, with a delay of, say, fifty years in the establishment of the law of gravitation. If Kepler had not done his more difficult work, it would have had to wait for the further development of mathematics and of philosophy, which would themselves have been greatly retarded, so that civilization would probably have been put back almost two centuries. We should now be living in something like the age of Queen Anne. If Aristotle had not done his work, the result would have been too vastly altered for our comprehension.

Palissy the Potter, a man of great penetration, and the best possible judge of such a matter, gave it as his opinion that a large majority of the world's powerful thinkers are either crushed by circumstances or forced into the pursuit of wealth, and so lost for the world's uses. Who can imagine how we should be situated now if these men had had the encouragement that the public interest required? No doubt, human misery would have been greatly abated, for poor and for rich, and human life much prolonged. But we have to suffer for our forefathers' improvidence. There is no civilized country where a great work of reasoning is less feasible than in ours. We have most superb observatories and laboratories, it is true, but what would a Kepler, with his bad sight and awkward hand,* be doing in such an establishment? Perhaps among our sixty millions there may just now live such a mind; certainly, nobody is on the lookout for him. If he does exist, one wonders what he is doing. Reading examination papers?

The notices in this volume are perfunctory, dead-and-alive things; considering the men, not as they lived and breathed and burned, but as they appear in relation to the cult of Comte's *Grand Être*. There are but 644 pages for 558 biographies, so they could hardly but be jejune and dull. Yet the reader might at least have been referred to the best sources of further information. In fact, he is referred to second and third-rate authorities. Loose and incorrect statements are so abundant that we do not think it necessary to give instances of them.

* "Ad observationes vero sum hebeti visu, ad mechanica inepta manu, ad negotia domestica et politica curiosa et cholerica natura, ad continue sedendum (præsertim ultra justum et statum tempus epularum) infirmo corpore, etiam cum valetudo constat."

KENNAN'S SIBERIA.—II.

Siberia and the Exile System. By George Kennan. The Century Co. 1891.

If Mr. Kennan's book is to be regarded from the standpoint of its title, as a discussion of the exile system in general, it will be seen from the foregoing instances that a good many things remain to be said. If it is to be considered as a remonstrance against the treatment of politicals, administrative exiles, only, we will concede at once that this treatment entails some hardships to which they are generally unaccustomed, and which even the poor students find physically hard to bear. That they suffer, at times, from the caprices of brutal officials, may also be safely admitted. Two points, however, cannot fail to impress the unbiassed reader: the freedom of intercourse with politicals allowed the author, even when the officials caught him in the act; and the fact that the bulk of his most valuable testimony (next to that afforded by official documents) was furnished him by Government officers in charge of exiles, some of whom were frank, and the majority of whom were frank and humane. When it is considered how undesirable these charges are, far from society and friends, and that first-class officials can obtain desirable posts elsewhere and will not accept these, it must be admitted that the balance of testimony is strongly in favor of the assertion that kind-heartedness and humanity, not brutality, are the prevailing characteristics of the Russian character. That prisoners should not be left at the mercy of brutal policemen and officials in Russia—or in America—is indisputable. Unfortunately, the means for enforcing discipline in this respect, even at much shorter range than from St. Petersburg to Irkutsk, has not yet been discovered.

If there is one thing which Mr. Kennan has succeeded in demonstrating more plainly than this general high average of Russian character in the officers, who rule mildly, and the prisoners, who endure with patience and even cheerfulness, it is not only that the Russian Government is fully aware of the evil state of the Siberian prisons and *étapes*, but that it has appropriated funds and given orders for the construction of new and suitable buildings. "If all the money that has been appropriated for the construction and maintenance of 'tumble-down' buildings could now be gathered together, it would be enough to pay for the erection of a line of solid-silver *étapes* along the whole route from Tomsk to the city of Irkutsk," is the testimony of a well-posted inspector of exile transportation, as quoted by the author. If "the greater part of it has been divided between fraudulent contractors and corrupt Government officials," what an-

swer can America make as to remedies, from her very palace of glass, except to deplore such international brotherhood of officialdom all over the world? Two wrongs do not make a right, it is true, but it is equally true that matters are not likely to be improved by outside interference when a country is conscious, as in this instance, of having taken adequate means to remedy an evil, which have come to naught by reason of such highway robbery.

That the prisons and *étapes* are in bad condition is perfectly plain from the testimony of both the Russian and the Siberian press, which also proves that nothing which Mr. Kennan says is news to Russians who can read. Certainly, the criticisms of Russians on the system do not seem to indicate any great severity of censorship or desire to shirk the question. It would be hard to find anything more outspoken in the books or newspapers of America, where the freedom (not to say the license) of the press is regarded as satisfactory by the most virulent man with a grievance, the most disinterested investigator of abuses, the most ambitious society dame. It is probable, indeed, that if any one, native or foreigner, were to publish a similar compilation of newspaper criticisms in regard to American prisons, convict-gangs, mines, almshouses, insane asylums, charity schools, and hospitals, the sum total would not be much behind this exhibit of Russian wrongdoing, while it would call forth more animadversions on the liberty of public speech and horror at American barbarity. We Anglo-Saxons are fond of boasting of our advanced civilization and humanity, not only as compared with Russians, but with other nations. The Russian system, with its defects, is not successful in repressing crime. We will not pause to consider which branch of the American system is the least effectual—that which is represented by sentimental petting and dainties, flowers and adoration, for convicted murderers; exaggerated solicitude that the few who pay the penalty of their crimes should not suffer a single twinge of pain, though they have not hesitated to inflict tortures on their innocent victims; and prisons so comfortable that it is a privilege to reside in them—or the opposite extreme of brutality which rivals any tale of Siberia because it is systematic, not spasmodic, as is shown to be the case in Siberia. We "live in a very large and very fragile glass house" ourselves, as the author remarks of his own position, when he encounters the diplomatic insincerity of the chief of police at Irkutsk; and it is well to leave Russia to decide upon her own policy in dealing with so vast and complicated a question as the disposal of her criminals, when we cannot remedy as bad a state of morals and sanitary conditions among the emigrants in the steerages of first-class ocean steamers, and our immigrant question in general. The system of Russia possesses at least one imperial merit, which no one should be quicker to appreciate than Americans—it disposes of its own criminals, and does not exile them to America to become a public charge and danger, as do the Continental Governments upon whose systems we bestow our favor.

That the prisons and *étapes* are in bad condition may be readily admitted on the testimony of the Siberian press, contained in Appendix F and elsewhere, without reference to Mr. Kennan's observations, or without hesitating over Mr. de Windt's assertions in Appendix E. When Mr. de Windt's promised book on prisons appears, we may be forced to reverse our ideas in detail. Meanwhile, although he is historically weak in his former work, which touches incidentally on Siberian travel and scenes, we have no just reason to question the accuracy of his sight on certain points, before he engaged in special researches, although they mitigate Mr. Kennan's view in some particulars.

The tables containing statistics of the hospital in one of the most congested of the forwarding prisons, that at Tiumén, for 1885 show that the percentage of deaths was 28.1. In the prison, as a whole, it sometimes rose, in other years, to 30 or 44 per cent. In none of the calculations is allowance made, apparently, for any unsanitary influences of the locality, but everything is attributed to overcrowding and the condition of the prisons, although some of the town sites are very unhealthy. The majority of the sick suffered from typhus fever and other infectious diseases. That some allowance should have been made for local conditions is shown by the fact that the percentage of deaths from infectious diseases, caused by bad sanitary conditions, is 24 in Kieff, 21 in St. Petersburg, 18 in Moscow, against 16 in London and 8 in Brussels. Undoubtedly, the percentage, all allowances being made, would still remain very high, but there would be a juster statement of the question. The computation of an annual death-rate of 8 per cent., which is made later on, upon the foundation of the deaths occurring during the voyage of ten days from Tiumén to Tomsk, which is attended with excessive mortality, goes to prove the necessity for allowances.

There are places where we should be glad of a little more information. In some cases, the author frankly admits that the political prisoners have been exiled for robbing sub-treasuries, conspiring against the Government, and so on, which would entail punishment in any land. In other cases, as in those of Mr. and Mrs. Cherniavski, Rosa Frank, and Vera Sheftel—to carry the list no further—he does not even tell us whether they are falsely accused, or of what. On p. 30 of vol. ii., the sweeping character of some of the statements is misleading. The reader is left to assume that *all* persons who taught factory-operatives were sent to Siberia, and that no schools for the lower working-classes, taught by the educated classes, exist any longer. On the contrary, it is not difficult to find in the capital persons who have taught such schools during the critical years referred to, and down to the present time. As for the accusations against the police, of bribe-taking from notorious criminals, subornation of perjury, clubbing nearly to death, and the like, we shall not be forced to go as far as Tomsk or other Siberian towns to find parallels, and we can only say, "Human nature is much the same everywhere," and deplore the fact that "human nature" has acquired such a specialized significance. This does not mean that we advocate these practices anywhere. That Russia will be forced, at some future day, to adopt the long-urged recommendations of her own officials, and comply with the demands of the Siberians by building home prisons and ceasing to flood Siberia with criminals, is perfectly plain. In the meantime, she might conciliate foreign opinion, if she thinks it worth her while, by adopting the methods of her foreign critics and hanging her evil-doers, instead of giving them another chance, under conditions which are, frequently, superior to those which they enjoyed at home when they are of the peasant class. Criticism would then fall powerless, and foreign humanity might plume itself.

In the meantime, also, the silver lining of this cloud is much more apparent than is usually the case to direct vision: the descendants of the present convicts will, no doubt, turn out very worthy and even aristocratic citizens, like the descendants of England's convicts in Australia. The intellectual work accomplished by the political exiles who are allowed such astonishing freedom in Western Siberia, will inure not only to the good of the country and the science of the world, but to their own fame. It is no exaggeration to say that some of these men have done more original work and will win more prominence eventually, through their Siberian researches, as a result of their banishment, than they would ever have attained under ordinary circumstances at home. Vladimir Korolénko, the writer, is a case in point. His first and chief fame rests on his sketches of Siberian expérience, where it seems likely to remain, judging from later developments. That the politicals are not absolutely deprived of civilized implements, we may infer from the fact that the photograph on p. 273 of vol. ii. was made and given to Mr. Kennan by a political in Nerchinsk.

The Programme of the Revolutionists in Appendix C, and as embodied in their letter to the present Czar directly after the assassination of his father, reads reasonably enough, in some particulars; but some of the aims are dangerously utopian, and might be expressed more briefly in the formula repeated to Mr. Kennan by the Irkutsk Chief of Police, as coming from an exiled lady in answer to the question, "What government she and her companions would establish in Russia if they had their way—a republic, a limited monarchy, or a commune?"—"All men have been created free and equal, and any kind of government is a violence done to individual liberty." The foreign anarchists have already tried to demonstrate to Americans the merits of this plan, but they were hanged before its full beauties had been made apparent in practice. The Russian woman and her comrades were merely exiled. The fact remains that, although nearly every educated Russian frankly advocates constitutional government under a limited monarchy, all confess that the masses are not yet ready for this; and their doubts as to the expediency of elective assemblies are reinforced by the abuses of justice and other defects which they perceive in the great model of elective government, the United States. For Russia can criticise as well as America.

In conclusion, it may not be amiss to say a word as to the "Rules relating to Police Surveillance," under which the administrative exiles live. Sec. 7 provides that the exile shall not leave the place to which he is banished without permission from the proper authorities; and if he moves from one house to another, he shall notify the police within twenty-four hours. This is a supplement to sec. 5, which says that when an exile reaches his destination, he shall be deprived of his passport, and shall be furnished with another document setting forth his name, rank, and previous residence, and giving notice to all concerned that he is authorized to live in the village of X——. These conditions do not differ essentially from those under which ordinary natives and foreign visitors live. A foreign passport entitles one to a six-months' residence in the empire, after which a special passport, containing the above information, and valid for one year, is issued. Both these passports must be sent to the police when one changes one's residence from one town to another, or from one house to another, and preliminary permission is required before one leaves the empire. The expense is slight, the inconvenience no-

thing, unless in very exceptional cases; the security afforded in case of accident or violence, because one's whereabouts can be ascertained from the official records, is great. The passport of the exile contains no data as to rank, etc., which is not contained in the ordinary passport, and the information required is less detailed and searching than that demanded by the German police from ordinary travellers.

That Mr. Kennan should have been charmed by and have fallen in love with his politicals is in no way surprising. As a nation, the Russians are a charming and lovable people, and their attractions are heightened, naturally, by their sufferings. But, while indulging in judicious sympathy and pity for innocent sufferers all over the world, it will be well, in spite of Mr. Kennan's extremely well-written and interesting book, to keep our heads clear, and subdue the fervor of our undiscriminating indignation and interference, until we are thoroughly posted on Russian life, nature, habits, and character (which is never more complicated—though complicated at its best—than in the case of these exiles), and on the difficult problems which the Russian Government has to solve in many directions when it undertakes reform in any given quarter.

Dark Days in Chile: an Account of the Revolution of 1891. By Maurice H. Hervey, Special Correspondent of the *Times*. Macmillan & Co.

THE chief object of Mr. Hervey's book is to show that the *Times* was not justified in ordering him home from Chili; but after reading it the real mystery is why he was ever sent there. So jaunty and self-confident a rattle-pate as his own pages unwittingly reveal him to be is a most unlikely man to get at the facts in a case of disputed constitutional interpretation and clash of powers such as he was despatched to investigate. On his own showing, he gave much more time to carousing than to news-gathering, extract after extract from his diary referring mysteriously to certain days and nights of revelry sandwiched in between his hobnobbing with Balmaceda and Government officials and banquets and receptions. Indeed, where he went to wreck was on his pronounced love of creature comforts; and after Balmaceda had placed special trains at his disposal, and "two large cabins fixed up *en suite*" on board the *Imperial*, the idea that such a generous-hearted ruler could be a tyrant became flatly unthinkable.

He goes through the form of a serious argument, it is true, to prove that Balmaceda had the best of the constitutional dispute; but his suppression of facts which must have been perfectly well known to him at the time, makes his discussion wholly futile. Thus he admits but one infringement of the Constitution—"at least in spirit," he cautiously says—on the President's part, namely, his refusing to call an extra session of Congress at the instance of the "Comisión Conservadora"; overlooking the levying of taxes without warrant of law, the closing of the courts, etc. Beside all this, the unconstitutional, or at least extra-constitutional, attitude of Congress in refusing to vote the appropriation bills, and in endeavoring thereby to inaugurate a system of parliamentary government, is a venial offence.

But it is idle to take Mr. Hervey's book seriously. He is hopelessly weak in his facts throughout. Thus he thinks it an amazing piece of stupidity on the part of the editor of the *Times* to give more credit to a Lisbon correspondent than to a man on the spot in Chili; not knowing, apparently, how the *Times's* Lisbon correspondent was secretly supplied with accurate information by an Englishwoman resident in Chili. And in other ways he betrays an incredible amount of ignorance. Moreover, a great deal of his narrative bears on its face the stamp of good-natured mendacity—that is, the idea that he must make out a roistering and spicy story even if the facts had to crack in the process. This lends a certain interest to the book, by constantly stimulating the reader's amused wonder at the effrontery which could try to palm off as historic such impossible conversations as are here recorded; and the sprightly, *bon-vivant* air of the whole prevents the volume from being often dull. In one particular, too, no little information is given—the account of the various naval operations. But, this apart, no one need consult the book for anything except a series of desultory and unveracious chapters. The writer's numerous ventures into Spanish are nearly all dreadfully misprinted; we should have thought the publishers would have seen the need of getting the proof-reading done by a more competent hand than his.

A Supplement to Allibone's Critical Dictionary of English Literature and British and American Authors. By John Foster Kirk. 2 vols., 8vo. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1891.

THE proverbial ungraciousness of looking a gift-horse in the mouth is particularly applicable in the case of a bibliography, since in no class of literary labor is the reward, either in fame or in money, so disproportionate to the time consumed. We say this in advance, that we may not be supposed to underrate our obligations to editor or publisher of the work whose title we give above. The original 'Dictionary' filled three volumes; Mr. Kirk's is contained in two of nearly the same size, although the first work covered three centuries, and the latter covers, on an average, only thirty years. The compiler has been fully conscious of "one of the embarrassing complications of the task—the necessity, namely, of referring, at every step, to the entries in an earlier work, and connecting his own with them by a process of dovetailing." It is a pity that both he and his publishers could not have seen their way to cast aside the old plates, and issue a second edition of the original brought down to date. Any one who has used Mr. Allibone's three volumes knows that they contain much irrelevant matter; some of Mr. Kirk's, even, could well be spared. By judicious excision the whole could easily have been brought within four volumes; and it may safely be asserted, in view of the special character of the market for such works, that nine-tenths of those who will buy the Supplement would have bought the revised issue. The work ought to be not only in every library, but in every school in which English literature is taught.

As regards the manner in which the continuation has been done, we do not know whether we ought to say that errors are few or many. We have noticed several, but we should hesitate to say that they were numerous in proportion to the total number of statements. As to one feature, however, we think the compiler has been decidedly remiss, viz., in furnishing biographical data. In cases where authors were applied to for information, they "occasionally furnished the materials required with a fulness which would have imparted a liveliness to the narration not in keeping with its purpose and surroundings." But it does not follow that the compiler's course of giving no details, in many cases, is to be approved. To know, for instance, that the author of an historical work has been a professor of history at a reputable institution is to be able to form a useful, if only provisional, opinion as to the value of his work. But of President Andrews of Brown University, formerly professor both at Brown and at Cornell, we are told absolutely nothing—not even his name is given in full, and no mention is made of one of his books. The same is true of Profs. G. B. Adams, E. W. Bemis, E. G. Bourne, J. G. Clark, and we know not how many more. There is no mention of E. A. Cruikshank, whose history of Welland County, Ont., was published in 1887 (591 pp.); nor of E. W. Davies, a novelist; nor of J. W. De Forest's 'Justine's Lovers' (1878); nor of A. A. Graham, who wrote not only a history of Indiana (1876, 750 pp.), but also ten large histories of counties in Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois; nor of Barnet or William Barnett Phillips, both novelists, the latter of whom was an author as early as 1867; nor of E. Walford, author of a Life of Bayard. H. W. Chaplin is said to have published a book called 'The Village Convict,' in New York, 1884-85, whereas this was one of several tales in 'Five Hundred Dollars' (Boston, 1888). In two cases we observe a work recorded which was announced, but never published. In the case of Elizabeth and "Emily" Bellamy one author is made into two. We should have thought the proof-reader would have noticed the absurdity of the statement (page 879) that a collection of 'Fugitive Poetry, 1600–1878' was published in 1868.

Want of care is shown in the occasional enumeration, as distinct publications, of the same book published under different titles, *e. g.*, C. Barnard's 'My Ten-Rod Farm' and 'Gardening for Money,' or Mrs. Terhune's 'Col. Floyd's Wards' and 'Helen Gardner.' Pseudonyms, even when they show for such on their face, are sometimes printed without any hint of their true character—for example, "Aitchenbee," *i. e.*, H[enry] N[ugent] B[anks]. Less obvious pen-names are "Ada Cambridge" (Mrs. Cross), "Virginia Champlin" (Grace V. Lord), "M. J. Colquhoun" (Mrs. C. Scott), "Marie Connor" (Mrs. Leighton), "Milly Deane" (Mrs. Erskine, her name being elsewhere given), "M. B. Fife" (Margaret M. Black), "Evan Stanton" (Rev. T. P. Hughes). Change of name by marriage, also, is sometimes ignored, as in the cases of Julia Cartwright (Ady), Dorothea Gerard (Longard), Laura Holloway (Langford), Lucy Lillie (Harte), A. R. Macfarlane (Logan), E. Nesbit (Bland), Annie Swan (Smith), Adelaide Trafton (Knox), and Mary Tytler (Greene). The compiler's intention evidently is to mention the date of death when known, but this is often omitted: among many instances we mention only Robert Mackenzie, the historian (1881), Henry Mayhew, the social reformer (1887), Lucy Mitchell, the art writer (1888), and Elizabeth Taylor (1879). Mrs. Mortimer is said to have died in 1874 (instead of 1878), and Schliemann in 1891 (instead of 1890).

Mr. Kirk has before now given ample proofs of learning, taste, and discrimination; and in the not inconsiderable portion of the present work which calls for these qualities they are not found wanting. We refer particularly to the skill and discretion with which he has chosen his critical citations, the reading for

which must have been largely a labor of love. In the original work, the editor's prejudices and peculiar point of view were unfortunately obvious, but to see how well this sort of thing can be done one has only to look at the articles on George Eliot, or Howells, or Stevenson, or Swinburne, or Lewis and William Morris. In the quotations ranged under the names of distinguished historians and political thinkers, such as Mill, Morley, and Motley, Mr. Kirk is less full, and perhaps less satisfactory. Mr. Freeman, however, gets as much attention as he deserves—possibly more—and Herbert Spencer is adequately treated. As to men of science, Darwin is handsomely cared for, and Wallace well; but from the notices of Huxley and Tyndall the reader might infer that their reputation was that of literary or philosophical scientists rather than investigators.

Le Morte Darthur. By Syr Thomas Malory. Faithfully reprinted from the original edition (1485) of William Caxton, edited by H. Oskar Sommer, Ph.D. Vol. III. Studies on the Sources. With an introductory essay by Andrew Lang, M.A. London: David Nutt. 1891. Pp. xxv., 338.

Dr. Sommer now presents to "the world of scholarship" the final volume of the work which he began to prepare for the press four years ago. The first volume contained the text of Caxton's 'Le Morte Darthur,' a noble quarto of 861 pages; the second, 230 pages of introduction, including bibliography and essays on the various editions, collations, notes on the language, a complete and critical index of names and places, and a glossary; the final volume deals with the "Sources." It was well known that our Iliad of Chivalry was made from earlier romances. Caxton tells us in his preface that "Syr Thomas Malorye dyd take it oute of certeyn bookes of frensshe and reduced it into Englysshe." Malory, also, in the text itself, frequently reminds us that he tells the tale as the French book says. French books and English books telling similar adventures of the same heroes have been long familiar. Dr. Sommer has attempted to trace in detail the whole series of adventures, tell us where the original of each is found, and set the original before us by description and quotation, so that we can make out clearly what credit belongs to Malory. Thus he finds that the first seven chapters of book first run parallel with the 'Merlin' of Robert de Boron. He therefore gives a *résumé* of this 'Merlin,' with quotations of considerable passages, stopping at every turn to point out in what particulars, if any, Malory varies from the original. It is accompanied, of course, with much collateral information, such as the thorough student desiderates, about other texts, the bibliography, and the like, and makes a pretty long chapter—more than twice as long as the Malory.

The result of it, however, is to give a distinct picture of Malory's manner of working. In the first place, the De Boron story is more than five times as long as Malory's. The materials worked up in the whole 'Morte Darthur' are ten times as long as the book. Then this brevity is not gained by dropping descriptive particulars, and reducing all to a thread of narrative, or an outline of adventures, but by modification of the series of events and persons, omitting such as do not suit the adapter. What he does tell he tells with minute realism, often adding fresh particulars. These Dr. Sommer sometimes finds in other versions, sometimes credits to Malory's invention. Changes are not infrequently made to adjust matters to different forms of the story which Malory has accepted in the later books. He is not merely collecting by whim a jumble of good stories. He has a plan. His diction also is seen to be his own. Sometimes he translates literally, sometimes not; but he never goes far without showing vital signs. So that, on the whole, Malory writing his 'Morte Darthur' from De Boron, is quite like Shakspere writing a scene of "Julius Cæsar" from North's 'Plutarch.'

With the eighth chapter Malory took up the "Ordinary Merlin," and at the eighteenth he changed to the "Suite de Merlin"; at book v. he took up the "Morte Arthur" in the version of the Scotch poet Huchown. Thus far Dr. Sommer goes on as in the first seven chapters, but afterwards he moves more rapidly. He goes through, however, the whole twenty-one books, and is able to give the originals of all except the seventh book and a few pages in the sixth, the twelfth, and the nineteenth. These last pages narrate Lancelot stories which are not found in any known sources. A study of them in connection with variations elsewhere from the known Lancelots convinces Dr. Sommer that Malory has followed in the main a lost "Suite de Lancelot," which we may well hope may be found, or at least fragments sufficient to construct it with the help of Malory. The seventh book is the adventures of Gareth and Lynette, with which Tennyson begins his Round Table series. Dr. Sommer can trace no part of this book, nor can he find anywhere the slightest reference to Gareth's exploits on this adventure, or to the Lady Lyonesse, her sister Lynet, her brother Gryngamor, or the five brothers whom Gareth fought and overcame. He suggests that it is a story not belonging to the Arthurian cycle, but adapted to it by Malory, or by some unknown author whose versio. has been lost. Malory speaks of his "frensshe book" as usual in this narrative, but the style is perfect Malory—Malory delighted with the unwonted humors of his personages. He evidently relished the later lively fabliaux; possibly this may be one of his own making. To the general reader it is like one of Shakspere's comic scenes in a tragedy: it gives a delightful laugh; and now that Tennyson has repeated it we may safely say that its introduction shows high art in Malory. Tennyson closes:

> "And he that told the tale in older times
> Says that Sir Gareth wedded Lyonors,
> But he that told it later, says Lynette."

So far as appears in Dr. Sommer's "Sources," all the old books say "Lyonors," that is, "Lyonesse." It is Tennyson who says "Lynette," that is, "Lynet."

So far as the statistical setting forth of the immediate antecedents of Malory's book is concerned, Dr. Sommer's volume is of great value. He has completed a work of immense labor. It is pleasant to learn that he means to continue his investigations. There is opportunity, one sees, for hundreds of papers of research and criticism upon the exact relations of different versions, MSS., and editions to particular passages of Malory. On the other side the more inviting question of the origin and development of these romances waits for solution. Much has been written on it, and by great scholars. Dr. Sommer gives us some bibliography. By and by, perhaps, he may give us a volume.

Mr. Lang's introductory essay brings Malory into pleasant relations with Homer and Tennyson, and gives him much gracious praise for the enjoyable elements of his work, "the noble and renowned acts of humanity, gentleness, and chivalry" which he likes to tell, and the simplicity and picturesqueness of his style.

The Dramatic Works of George Farquhar. Edited with Life and Notes by Alex. Charles Ewald, F.S.A. 2 vols. London: John C. Nimmo.

Mr. Nimmo has followed up his excellent edition of the plays of Sir George Etheredge by the present equally handsome and welcome edition of the plays of Farquhar; we hope that he may find his account in the venture and be encouraged to give us also, in similar stately volumes, the plays of Congreve, of Vanbrugh, of Wycherley, and of Cibber. Etheredge was edited by Mr. Wilson Verity; Farquhar was prepared for the press by the late A. C. Ewald, and has been seen through it by Mr. Robert W. Lowe, a far more accomplished and accurate student of stage-history than the writer he succeeded. The notes, therefore, to the second volume are more to the point, all too infrequent as they are—a rare thing in these days of over-editing. We could have wished, too, for somewhat more elaborate introductions to each play, tracing its history since the original performance. In the Life prefixed to these volumes, the editor refers to the "comparative failure" of the "Inconstant," without telling us that the play afterwards became a great favorite in Garrick's time—as we are reminded by one of Sheridan's jests, who, when asked his opinion of Garrick's *Young Mirabel*, answered summarily, "Ad-mirable!" In this country, also, the "Inconstant" long held the stage, with Mr. Murdoch as the hard-hearted and sharp-tongued hero; and it is only four or five years since the play was revived in this city by Mr. Daly, with Mr. John Drew as *Young Mirabel* and Miss Ada Rehan as the devoted *Oriana*. Mr. Daly has also revived for us what is perhaps the best of Farquhar's comedies, the briskest and brightest, the "Recruiting Officer." Mr. Ewald, however, speaks of Farquhar's leading characters as "now banished from the stage" (p. 13).

Type, paper, presswork, and binding are what we expect from Mr. Nimmo's imprint.

Old Cottage and Domestic Architecture in Southwest Surrey, and Notes on the Early History of the Division. By Ralph Nevill, F.S.A., F.R.I.B.A. Second edition. Guildford: Printed by Billing & Sons; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1891.

This is an admirable book of its class. To an antiquarian it is the better for being confined to the buildings of a small district; and to an architect, at least none the worse, for one can better detect on what the degrees of excellence among the examples depend than if the types were more various. It has the great advantage of being written by an architect who knows the meaning of both design and construction, and of the relation between the two. He has illustrated the book abundantly with sketches, small but adequate to his purpose, of a kind of buildings that is apt to our present fashion of country cottages—in half-timber work, tiling, brick, and stone. His commentary, technical and artistic, is excellent; the sketches are after the English habit of pen-drawing, a little labored, and dry for want of accent, but tell their story well, and the drawings of detail leave nothing to wish for but more of them. The buildings are simple and modest, sparing of detail, and look as straightforward as if it had needed nothing but intelligence and a hint from necessity to produce them; but if any one will

try to imitate, not copy, the charm of such examples as the Crown Inn at Chiddingfold, the house on the Mount at Guildford, or the cottages at East Street Haslemere, at Witley, Compton, Binscombe, Wonersh, or a dozen others of these, and can succeed, it will be in virtue of a command of design and proportion that will bear testimony to the skill of the original builders. The book gives the architect much valuable suggestion, as well as much pleasure, and will afford the enterprising amateur rope enough for endless entanglement, if not for suicide.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Reporter's Romance. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Brimmer, Martin. Egypt: Three Essays on the History, Religion and Art of Ancient Egypt. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Crawford, F. M. Mr. Isaacs. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Dod's Peerage, Baronetage, and Knightage of Great Britain and Ireland for 1892. London: Whitaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.75.
Easter, Marguerite E. Clytie, and Other Poems. Boston: A. J. Philpot & Co.
Everhart, J. R. By Boat and Rail. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Foster, H. A. Zululu, the Maid of Anahuac. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Garden and Forest. Vol. IV. *Garden and Forest* Publishing Co.
Green Bag. Vol. III. 1891. Boston: The Boston Book Co.
Hart, Prof. A. B. Epoch Maps Illustrating American History. Longmans, Green & Co.
Hazlitt, W. C. Tales and Legends of National Origin. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.: New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Henry, W. W. Life, Correspondence and Speeches of Patrick Henry. Vol. II. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Hertz-Garten, Theodor. Through the Red-Litten Windows, and The Old River House. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Hopkins, G. I. Manual of Plane Geometry on the Heuristic Plan. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 75 cents.
Hubbell, J. H. Hubbell's Legal Directory. 22d year. The Hubbell Legal Directory Co.
Indian Idyls. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 28, 1892.

The Week.

CONGRESSMAN BRECKINRIDGE remarked of the President's message that it was "an excellent presentation by an admirable lawyer of a case he is prosecuting against an adversary." There certainly is in it a cavalier disregarding of the findings of the Chilian court, and of the evidence presented, which is more befitting a lawyer's harangue before a jury than a judicial statement. Thus, the Chilians brought forward evidence to show that the refugees in the American Legation had insulted the police. The President dismisses this by simply saying: "It seems to me incredible." In a similar *a-priori* way does he dispose of the charges and the evidence against Admiral Brown: "The charge is too base to gain credence with any one who knows his high personal and professional character." This may be a slanting allusion to Secretary Tracy, who admitted, as he could not well help doing in face of the evidence, that Brown had given valuable military information to Balmaceda. Throughout, moreover, the President accepts the *ex-parte* testimony taken in California as more credible than the sworn and sifted evidence given in court in Valparaiso. The danger and absurdity of this were immediately exposed in a specimen case: A sailor who, by the time he reached Vallejo, remembered all sorts of damaging things against the Chilian police, in Valparaiso testified that he was confused and frightened in the row and saw nothing definite whatever. The legal force of the message is greatly impaired by such a procedure, as no one has pointed out more forcibly than the intimate friend of Mr. Blaine, ex-Senator Henderson.

The Valparaiso press publishes, both in translation and in the English original, a document showing how Egan's son was given the power of attorney to press a claim for $5,750,000 against the Chilian Government. This fact has been vaguely referred to before in despatches from Valparaiso, but complete verification of it has been lacking until now on account of a mistake made in the name of the notary before whom the affidavit was made; it was given as Wolle or Wolly, but turns out to be Molloy. The Secretary of the Brooklyn company urging the claim was highly suspicious when asked questions about the affair by a reporter, and referred the inquirer to "his attorney." But the fact is now beyond question. We believe that Egan himself admits that his son received the power of attorney, but asserts that he never acted under it. That, however, is not saying he would not have acted if the Balmaceda Government had not gone to smash in a few days after the receipt of the document in Chili. The main significance of the affair lies in the fact that the company knew that the name of Egan was a power in the Dictator's day. But we are amazed at the modesty that was content to put "damages" at so small a sum as $5,750,000!

The selection of Chicago as the place for holding the Democratic National Convention was brought about apparently by considerations of convenience, and not by the efforts of "boomers." In fact, Chicago seems not to have been a candidate at all, being a little uneasy lest the awarding of the Convention to her should detract something from her claims to an appropriation for the World's Fair. So far as local feeling and influence go, Chicago is and will will be a hotbed of Clevelandism, which no new-born zeal for John M. Palmer can lessen or offset. Indeed, Senator Palmer himself will, most likely, contribute his full quota to the Cleveland strength in the Convention.

The outgiving of news from Washington that Mr. Blaine is about to write a letter withdrawing from the Presidential contest altogether, has been so often repeated that it has become a trifle stale and rather a subject of mirth. Yet it comes to us through such a channel that we cannot doubt its accuracy. Mr. Blaine, whatever his inclinations might otherwise be, is aware that his impaired health would not permit him to be a candidate. There are so many Republicans, however, who would rather vote for Mr. Blaine's effigy than for Mr. Harrison, that the former has been restrained from making public his intentions respecting the nomination. He may be restrained some time longer. It would probably be gratifying to him to show his chief that he is the stronger of the two in the party councils—to show this in a way that does not admit of doubt or dispute. But that Mr. Blaine should be seriously a candidate for the Presidential nomination this year is incredible and impossible.

The death of Justice Bradley removes from the Supreme Bench of the United States its oldest member. He was born in March, 1813, and was consequently within a few weeks of completing his seventy-ninth year. He was one of those men who, like the late Justice Miller, enter the legal profession rather late, but with so strong a bent for it and with such concentration of purpose that they rise steadily to the top. The story goes that it was from the first his ambition to reach the Supreme Bench of the nation, but it was not until he was fifty-seven years old that his hopes were gratified by President Grant's offer of a place. He was entitled to retire on a pension thirteen years later, upon attaining the age of seventy, but he enjoyed the work and preferred to remain in active service. He was a man of broad legal learning, of a keen and analytical mind, and his decisions carried great weight with lawyers. To the general public he stood only as one of the Supreme Court, except during the period of the Electoral Commission, when he constituted one of the majority in the "eight to seven" votes of that body, and was singled out by the Democrats as meriting especial reproach therefor, although in point of fact there was no more reason for blaming him than the other two judges who stood with him. President Harrison has now another chance to appoint a member of our highest judicial tribunal. He has already had two vacancies on this bench to fill, and when he has named Bradley's successor, one-third of the judges will bear his commissions. There have occurred during his Administration an unusually large number of vacancies in the subordinate courts, and he has been charged with the appointment of judges for the new Court of Appeals. Altogether his four-years' term will include more judicial appointments than have fallen to the lot of any other President. It is most fortunate that Mr. Harrison is well qualified for this branch of the Executive's duties.

Mr. Bland introduced his free-coinage bill in the House on Thursday. It repeals the present silver act, and provides that the new Treasury notes issued under it shall be cancelled as fast as they come into the Treasury, and that notes of a new kind shall be issued in place of them. These are called "coin notes." The legal-tender character of the existing notes shall not be changed, but the "coin notes" are not to be legal tender. Any person may deposit gold or silver bullion at the mint and receive therefor either coin or coin notes. The most curious part of the bill is one which provides that "as soon as France reopens her mints to the free and unrestricted coinage of silver at her present ratio, fifteen and one-half to one, the President of the United States is to immediately make public proclamation of that fact, whereupon the said ratio shall be the legal ratio in the United States, and thereafter the standard silver dollar shall consist of 400 grains of standard silver, and the laws relating to the standard silver dollars of 412½ grains standard silver shall be applicable to the new dollar of 400 grains. The silver dollars of 412½ grains are then to be recoined as fast as practicable into dollars of 400 grains." What would happen in case France, after reopening her mint, should again close it? Would our ratio then change back to the old figure of 16,

or would it remain at 15½? And would the dollar of 400 grains be the "dollar of the fathers," or some other kind of a dollar? Mr. Bland's bill is such an oddity that we cannot consider it likely to pass the House, still less to become a law.

Senator Manderson reported on January 12, from the Committee on Printing, a "Bill providing for the public printing and binding and the distribution of public documents," which was placed upon the Senate Calendar, and was made a special order for Monday. This is a measure of broad scope, which it is difficult succinctly to analyze, but it may briefly be stated that it attempts (1) to define the duties of the Joint Committee on Printing, and its relation to the Public Printer; (2) to define the duties and powers of the Public Printer, and to formulate general rules for the administration of the Government Printing-office and Bindery; and (3) to codify the statutes relating to the whole subject of the printing and distribution of the public documents. That part of the bill which attempts to regulate the printing and distribution of the public documents is of special interest and importance. Every one knows something of the chaotic and inadequate manner in which the great mass of literature included under the above designation is now produced and distributed, and any serious attempt to bring about a better state of things is welcome. The provisions as to what documents are to be printed and the number of copies of each, are minute and apparently exhaustive, but want of space forbids any detailed examination of them here.

Regarding the distribution of the public documents, the bill, in addition to providing for folding-rooms and document-rooms such as already exist, creates a new office. The Superintendent of Documents is to be appointed by the President, by and with the consent of the Senate, at a salary of $3,000 a year; and the Sergeant-at-Arms of the Senate, Doorkeeper of the House, and Public Printer are, between them, to provide office and storage rooms for his use, and he is to have general supervision of the distribution of all public documents. He is also charged with the sale of documents, and is to prepare a comprehensive index to all the documents of each session of Congress, as well as a "consolidated index of Congressional documents," and the indexes to special documents when so directed by the Joint Committee on Printing. It is also made his duty to prepare a monthly catalogue of Government publications which is to be printed in the *Official Gazette* of the Patent Office, and on the first of July of each year he is to print a catalogue of the documents issued during the previous year. All accumulations of unused documents in departments and bureaus are to be turned over to him at intervals of one or two years, and he is to distribute them, giving preference to libraries and to the completion of sets, after sending out printed statements of the documents in his possession for this purpose. The Superintendent of Documents is also given authority to investigate the condition of libraries that are designated depositories of public documents, and if he ascertains that the number of books in any such library is below one thousand volumes, exclusive of Government publications, or that it has ceased to be a free public library, he is given authority to strike its name from the list. It may be stated, in conclusion, that under this bill public libraries are likely to fare better than heretofore as depositories of documents. As a rule, some 500 copies of the various Government publications are set aside to go to libraries, and when extra copies of any work are ordered, the number reserved for libraries is increased until the total number reaches 1,000, except in the case of the Patent Office *Gazette*, of which a very large extra number of copies is distributed free to public libraries.

Mr. Bernhard Quaritch, the London bookseller, has written a letter to "the Honorable William McKinley, Governor of Ohio, Cleveland, U. S. A.," on the subject of the duty on books under the laws of the United States. Mr. Quaritch is apparently under the impression that Mr. McKinley still has some position of influence in reference to the tariff. But that error is of no moment. What he writes is equally useful whether addressed to Wm. McKinley or to Wm. M. Springer or to Benjamin Harrison. Mr. Quaritch is a dealer in old books, which are free of duty under our tariff. As we have no manufactory of old books, his observations do not touch the question of protection. He says that many books bear no dates, and thus fall under the suspicion of the customs authorities. Some works consist of two or more volumes, only one of which may be twenty years old, while the others are under that age, thus leading to doubt and uncertainty at the Custom-house. Some books more than twenty years old have modern bindings, in which case the *Boston* Custom-house officers assume that the binding makes the whole book dutiable. Even if this is a correct decision, Mr. Quaritch maintains that nobody, not even the most skilled expert, can pronounce with accuracy upon the date of a binding. Finally, although old books and books in foreign languages are duty free, yet if they contain plates in considerable number, they are liable to duty on the engravings. These smaller barbarisms (the word is ours, not Mr. Quaritch's) might be avoided by putting a specific duty on all books, new or old, no matter in what language, of, say, ten dollars per hundred pounds. This would avoid disputes at the Custom-house, and would be more satisfactory to the importers of books than the present system, and would afford equal protection to the native industries.

The Republicans of Pennsylvania are choosing delegates to a State Convention which is to nominate a candidate for Justice of the Supreme Court. Among the delegates already elected in Philadelphia are three Appraisers who were indicted for their complicity in the Bardsley frauds. In the same city have also been nominated for reëlection by the Republicans two magistrates who admitted before the Councils Committee that they permitted Bardsley to retain portions of the costs and fees when a settlement was made with him for the delinquent mercantile taxes of 1890; the reason for their payment of tribute being the outrageous costs which they had themselves piled up, one of them having charged $8.76 for each dollar taken in, and the other extorting $36 for the collection of $1. The *Press* pronounces it a gross scandal to renominate these offenders, and asks to have the convention called to "undo this work and remove this taint of Bardsleyism from the magisterial bench." But what will the men who run the machine care for such protests? They know that the *Press* will never refuse to support the party.

Gov. Flower's appointment of Isaac H. Maynard as a Judge of the Court of Appeals is recognized by the Democratic press as so indefensible that they receive it in silence. There is nothing in his career to commend him for this exalted position. He has been a politician of the "pernicious activity" kind for nearly twenty years. He began as a member of the Assembly from Delaware County, and though his skill as a politician was sufficient to get him elective office in that county, he has never been able to command popular support in the State at large. He was elected County Judge and Surrogate there in 1877, and his service on that bench constitutes his entire judicial experience. He was the Democratic candidate for Secretary of State in 1883, and was defeated, running behind his ticket. He then secured the appointment of Deputy Attorney-General at Albany, and in 1885 Secretary Manning appointed him Second Comptroller in the Treasury Department at Washington. Secretary Fairchild promoted him to the post of Assistant Secretary, and in that position he originated the bogus "sugar-fraud" charges against officials in the New York Custom-house, and used them as an excuse for making fifteen removals.

After his departure from the Treasury Department, Mr. Maynard was again appointed Deputy Attorney-General at Albany. When the Democratic State Convention met last summer, he appeared before it as Gov. Hill's candidate for Attorney-General, but found so little encourage-

ment for his claims that he left town before the balloting began, and his name was not presented to the Convention. When Gov. Hill began his campaign for the control of the Senate, after election, Mr. Maynard acted as his ally and agent in instigating the County Canvassing Boards to the various fraudulent proceedings which culminated in the theft of the Dutchess County seat by the State Board of Canvassers. He was the recognized "counsel" of the Onondaga and Dutchess County Canvassing Boards, in which the most outrageous frauds were committed. His activity in this work is universally admitted to have constituted his chief claim to the present appointment, and Gov. Flower in making it is generally regarded as using a Court of Appeals judgeship as payment for a political debt. Nobody pretends that Mr. Maynard's legal attainments or judicial experience entitles him to the position. The appointment is only for a short term, but such an appointment is usually regarded as giving the appointee a claim upon the nomination for the position when the candidates for election to it are selected.

It is a great pity that the editor of the *North American Review* should, in his last number, have lent the magazine to a transparent fraud by printing an article in defence of Tammany as the composition of the "Hon. Richard Croker," which was not written by Croker at all, and which Croker is no more capable of writing than of calculating an eclipse. The *North American Review* has a history which ought to protect it from such degradation. A genuine article on Tammany from Croker, written without assistance, would have considerable political interest as showing the world outside the city the kind of man the ruler of the city is, and elucidating the municipal annals for future generations. But a windy and absolutely disingenuous apology for Tammany, fraudulently attributed to Croker, is something which ought not to have found its way into a respectable periodical. An air of low comedy is given to the table of contents by sticking in the "Croker" article between one by Anthony Comstock on "Lotteries and Gambling" and the first of a series on "The Olympian Religion" by the Right Hon. W.E. Gladstone. Both Comstock and Gladstone are entitled to more consideration. Nothing does more to promote political and social degradation than the treatment by the newspapers of serious people and things as comic, and of comic people and things as serious. We ought to have at least two magazines, relying on literature solely and not on pictures for their support, which would not lend themselves to these travesties.

Compromise is certainly stamped all over the final form of words adopted by the Presbyterian Revision Committee in regard to preterition and other leading doctrines of the Calvinistic system. The old substance is grasped after in saying that "God saw fit . . . not to elect . . . the rest of mankind," and that "them he ordained to dishonor and wrath"; yet all is really abandoned in conceding, "nor is it his decree, but the wickedness of their own hearts" which plays the mischief with them. Such a prophesying of smooth things to suit the itching ears of an evil generation would have been enough to call out the sternest rebuke of a man like John Knox, and we suppose that the minority vote in the General Committee against the report was cast by men who stood for the old conception of a "decree" as a thing that did what it set out to do. A like concession to carnal minds appears in the revised form of the doctrine "Of Good Works." The Westminster roundly declared these "sinful" when done by "unregenerate men," after the good old way of calling heathen virtues "splendid vices"; but this is now to be weakened into the assertion that they "do not meet the requirements of the divine law, hence they cannot be pleaded as a ground of acceptance with God." Evidently this is not so far from the idea of the candidate for orders who told his examiners, when asked what was the Church of England's doctrine of good works, "that a few of them would do no harm."

Some interesting statistics are published in a London journal relating to an exhaustive inquiry into the causes of the poverty of 152 families in a certain city district containing a population of 126,000. These families presented a wide variety in trade and religion and nationality, and their application for charitable assistance was taken as *prima-facie* and confessed evidence of poverty. Investigation showed that forty-two families were brought to want by their own fault, the causes of their poverty being set down as "reckless improvidence," "crime," "drink," "idleness," "bad temper," etc. Then come fifty-three families whose poverty was due to certain common accidents or misfortunes which might have been provided against, but were not. The final group of fifty-seven families presents cases of excusable poverty, such as those due to extraordinary slackness of trade or the absolute destruction of some branch of business, though even in this group appear twenty-one families who are made hopelessly poor by "incompetence." The whole result goes to show the untrustworthiness of the figures often cited of the number of persons in London and other cities who are unemployed, and said to be "able and willing to work if they could only get employment." A similar conclusion is led up to by an article of Prof. Hyslop's in a late issue of the New York *Independent*, in which he showed the astonishingly high percentage of the unworthy who apply to charitable organizations in this city for aid.

The heat which marks the relations between France and England regarding Egypt seems likely to be intensified by the trouble which has recently arisen in Morocco. Some of the tribes from the southern frontier have risen against the Sultan, and have forced their way nearly to the capital. This has caused an assemblage of the Spanish, French, and British Mediterranean fleets at Tangier, ostensibly to look after the interests of their own resident subjects, but really to get a share of the empire in case it breaks up. The Spaniards say their claim is stronger than any other, inasmuch as they have held Ceuta and other ports for two centuries, have thrashed the Moroccans in one recent war, and have always been considered the heirs of the last Sultan, whoever he might be. The French appear with a claim founded on the recent aggression of a Moroccan tribe on an Algerine tribe, on their having beaten the Moroccan army in the war with Abd-el-Kader, and on their having at one time bombarded Mogador and Tangier. Great Britain claims only the port of Tangier, on the strength of having owned Tangier in the seventeenth century, and on the theory that it is the complement of Gibraltar, and ought properly to belong to the Power which holds Gibraltar, inasmuch as if Tangier were in the hands of an enemy, Gibraltar could not be provisioned. She does not care who has the rest of Morocco, but Lord Salisbury gives notice pretty plainly, through the *Standard*, that England is going to have Tangier, no matter what any one else thinks about it.

The Panama Canal share and bond-holders are still besieging the Government of France to advance the money or to guarantee the interest on a loan sufficient to complete the work as a canal with locks. The amount which they consider necessary is $180,000,000. The Government has declined to accede to the prayer of the petitioners, and even the Deputies who present the petitions have no confidence in their ability to persuade the Government to assume the desperate undertaking. The concession from the Colombian Government will expire on the 28th of February, 1893, if the work is not resumed. Although the Chamber of Deputies declined to recommend a subvention or a guarantee, it voted a resolution inviting the Minister of Justice to institute criminal proceedings against the promoters of the enterprise if the facts developed by the investigation should warrant them. When those proceedings are properly pushed, we shall perhaps find out how much of the money of the peasants and shop-keepers and chambermaids was pocketed by the journalists who furnished the wind power for De Lesseps.

"THE ULTIMATUM."

SOME of our morning contemporaries were very amusing reading on Tuesday, so many of them were prepared for war and determined to die around the American flag. What led to this droll spectacle was the belief into which they had persuaded themselves, with the help of the Navy officers, that the Chilians were an insolent and conceited people, ignorant of our power and resources, and that, therefore, they were sure to fight sooner than make amends in any way for the Valparaiso affair. As the *Evening Post* said, in answer to a naval officer who produced this view in its columns, if the Chilians engaged in a war with the United States,

"it would show either that the governing class had gone stark mad, or were as ignorant of our resources as Sitting Bull or Rain-in-the-Face. But we know they are neither stark mad nor brutally ignorant. They are shrewd, well-equipped statesmen, who have established and carry on a civilized government which does not suffer by comparison with our own or that of any European country."

The ultimatum despatched by President Harrison on Thursday last was the first formal statement of our demands that we have made, and they have promptly complied with them. With regard to the apology required, it would have been childish to refuse it, as the dispute was over words. The correspondence shows that Señor Matta spoke of the Valparaiso outrage on October 27 as a "deplorable occurrence" and "lamentable affair" (Egan withheld these expressions in his despatch). On December 11 Señor Montt spoke of "the lamentable events at Valparaiso which his Government had deeply deplored." He repeated this in substance December 19. On January 4 the new Chilian Minister of Foreign Affairs spoke of "the occurrence of October 16 which Chili has lamented and does sincerely lament." On January 8 the Minister in Washington wrote to Mr. Blaine:

"I have also received special instructions to state to the Government of the United States that the Government of Chili has felt very sincere regret for the unfortunate events which occurred in Valparaiso on the 16th of October."

If we had not the President's Message before us, we should find difficulty in believing that a civilized Power had refused to accept these expressions as a sufficient apology from a "sister republic" for the acts of a street mob. But the President says expressly that it is not enough to say the affair was "lamentable," or that it is "regretted." He wants something more, and he furnishes a model of what he wants in Mr. Webster's despatch on the occasion of the mob's attack on the Spanish Consulate at New Orleans in 1851. Mr. Webster there says the attack was "a disgraceful and flagrant breach of duty and propriety," and that "these acts have caused the President great pain." The Chilians, of course, are willing to adopt Mr. Webster's language if it makes President Harrison feel any easier. To go to war for the difference would be the act of a child. The way the President labors over this point is enough to make grown men smile.

The Message is, in fact, throughout rather an Indianapolis brief in a suit for damages than a diplomatic state paper. It is studiously insulting to the Chilians from first to last. It insists upon it that the attack on the sailors was evidence and expression of general Chilian hostility to the United States, in spite of the solemn disavowals of the Chilian Government. It treats the findings of the Chilian courts as unworthy of credit, and the assertions of Chilian officers as unworthy of belief. It accuses the "Chilian authorities" of lying when they charged "the refugees and inmates of the legation with insulting the police" through the windows; the President's authorities for this contradiction being Egan, who is himself a foreign fugitive from justice, and the refugees, some of whom were notorious criminals. On the strength of an *ex-parte* investigation conducted by a naval commander on board his own ship, he treats the results of the Chilian investigations on shore as "evasion and subterfuge," intended "to cloud his [the President's] clear vision of this brutal work." If the President had had any diplomatic training, this would all deserve severe criticism; but in view of the fact that his training has consisted in thirty years' practice before Indiana juries, we forbear. The Chilians have inflicted on him the severest possible punishment for his "brutal work" by surrendering without seeing the Message. There is something very ludicrous in this termination of the controversy. We are afraid it will be taken in very bad part at the Navy Department. Is there not very gross insolence in giving in without hearing the President's arguments? Does it not call for a "naval movement" of some kind to make them listen to it before apologizing?

The unkindest cut of all, however, is the offer to submit the matter of the attack on the sailors to the Supreme Court of the United States. This is the second time since Mr. Blaine and Gen. Harrison came into charge of our diplomacy that this slight has been inflicted on them by a foreign disputant. It is a great compliment to the Supreme Court, but it must be confessed it is a good deal of a slight on the State and Navy Departments. Ought this to be allowed to pass unrebuked by some sort of demonstration? Does it not contain a subtle insinuation that the foreign cause is a good one, that the Supreme Court will probably proclaim it to be just, and that gentlemen cannot safely or profitably negotiate with the State Department? We think it does. If the navy-yards agree with us, ought we not to punish this "preterition" by "vigorous action"?

We cannot take leave of this tedious business, of which the public is already very tired, without a word of friendly remonstrance to our naval friends, who have been mainly instrumental in diffusing the belief that there would be, and would have to be, war with Chili. There was a very significant sentence or two at the close of an article in the last number of the *Financial Chronicle*, apropos of the alarm of war which greatly disturbed business in Wall Street last week. It was this:

"Yet when an hysterical letter from the commander of one of our proudest ships down in Chilian waters, given out by the Navy Department, was published by the daily press, with lots of other warlike news, and when added to that the market opened with rumors of letters received from official sources by our most reputable banking-houses, asserting that war was inevitable, traders became alarmed, destructionists cultivated the apprehension, and a break followed. This condition of affairs was, however, but of short duration; *though it may be worth while to add that the country does not seem to take quite the same kind of interest in its navy that it did a week ago.*"

This means that the naval officers have been displaying great indiscretion in their way of making sure of large appropriations for the new navy. They have sought to back themselves up with the public and Congress, by pretending that all the activity in the navy-yards called for by the large additions now making to our naval force was preparation for war; and they have "stuffed" the newspaper correspondents, week after week, for this purpose with silly stories about the necessity and certainty of war. Some of them have injected themselves into the diplomatic controversy, and have, against all rules of military discipline and propriety, almost taken the stump in order to inflame the public mind against a small and friendly country at present laboring under great internal difficulties. Now the public—every civilized public in the world—resents, sooner or later, the efforts of military men to bring on a war. In all free countries the question of peace and war is reserved for solution by civilians. This country did not need to be stimulated into liberality towards the navy by any extravagant language and false pretences. The Navy has in this instance gone so far as to produce somewhat of a reaction, and prejudice the sober-minded portion of the community against it. Many people are disposed to day to say to Commander Schley, for instance, gallant officer and agreeable man though he be, what the Irish policeman said to the noisy man in the court-room: "Silence is all we want from you, and very little of that."

CONCERNING WAR AS A REMEDY.

IT was the generally accepted opinion of the well-to-do class, the class known as "gentlemen" in all European countries, even a century ago, that what was called an "insult" had to be, on pain of social disgrace, punished by the person insulted by fighting the insulter with some kind of weapon. An insult, under the "laws of honor," was any language or act expressive of contempt for the insulted, or likely to lessen the consideration in which he was held in the society in which he

lived. The history of the duel is so well known that there is no need, for our present purpose, to sketch it. It doubtless originated in the desire of the offended party to kill the offender, and in his belief that he could kill him, and thus satisfy his barbaric thirst for simple vengeance. It became after a while what we now see it—as it exists on the European continent and in the Southern States—a means of showing the public that the challenger is not deficient in physical courage, and that anybody who insults him incurs a certain risk in doing so. But it has died out completely in England and the Northern States, not only under the growth of humanitarianism in both countries, but under the increasing application of what is called common sense, or, in other words, reasonableness, to the conduct of life.

The *absurdity* of the duel as a remedy has, in fact, had more to do with its extinction in these countries than anything else. The Pope has set forth this absurdity admirably in a recent Allocution for the benefit of the Italians more particularly. For instance, a man publicly calls you a liar. The injury thus inflicted under the duelling code lies almost wholly in the imputation it casts, not on your truthfulness, but on your personal courage. It connotes an expectation on the part of the accuser that you would not resent it in arms. You disprove this by fighting him, and either killing or wounding him, or letting him kill or wound you. In either case you set yourself right under the code—that is, if he wounds you, he has given you as much "satisfaction" as if you had wounded him. But the question of your veracity remains exactly where it was before the duel was fought. A man elopes with your wife, which is a deadly insult also, inasmuch as it indicates his belief that he can do so with impunity, and you are therefore "dishonored" if you do not fight him. Your honor is restored if you kill him, but it is restored just as effectively if he kills you. But even if you kill him, it does not restore your wife or your domestic peace. We might go through the whole category of offences requiring what the French call "réparation par les armes," with like result. The duel proves nothing except that neither of the disputants is afraid to fight. It decides no other question of fact, and rights no wrong except an accusation of personal cowardice.

But it is quite plain that the old duelling view of honor, and of fighting as a remedy, is by no means extinct in the conduct of national affairs. A great many public men and a great many newspapers have talked of the requirements of the present Chilian crisis in the exact language in which the duty of offended individuals used to be described in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, showing that in politics the duelling tradition about "honor" still lingers. It is quite true that the position of a peaceably disposed nation in our day is not exactly analogous to that of a peaceably disposed citizen who has the courts and police to appeal to for defence against wrong-doers. A nation is rather in the position of a peaceably disposed American or Englishman living in a duelling or semi-barbarous community. It has to provide for its own protection against violence and robbery, and in some manner to diffuse among its neighbors the belief that it would be dangerous to inflict injury on it. For this reason it has to carry arms openly and make open display of its willingness and ability to use them if necessary.

But any use of arms beyond what is absolutely necessary for the spread and maintenance of this conviction, and, above all, any reliance on arms as a ready remedy for a past wrong, is a relic of barbarism. It is, of course, impossible to lay down rules beforehand which shall exactly define a *casus belli* for a highly civilized Power. A *casus belli*, in intercourse with a quarrelsome or uncivilized community which did not know the strength of a great Power, and might be led by such ignorance into subsequent attacks on its citizens or insults to its flag, may arise far more readily than a *casus belli* with a neighbor in the same stage of civilization, and possessing an intimate knowledge of its history and resources. But in every case it has to be remembered that war as a *remedy* for past wrongs is utterly illogical. For example, if we have had two sailors killed in a riot in Chili, the notion that this wrong can be made good by our killing several hundred Chilian sailors and letting them kill several hundred more of ours, is almost childish. There would be a slight thread of reason in it if we could kill the Chilian sailors without letting them kill ours, because it could at least be said that it satisfied the old human love of revenge, which makes the murderer who lies in wait for his enemy a far more rational man than the duellist. But in chastising a public enemy by war there has to be a battle, and about the same loss of life on both sides, so that, when the war was over, we should have to charge Chili with the killing and wounding not of twenty or thirty men by a mob in a riot, but with the killing and wounding, say, of one thousand, of malice aforethought, and under the deliberate order and direction of the best minds in the Chilian Republic.

If we take the riot at Valparaiso as an evidence of Chilian ill-will to the United States, we are no better off in case of war. Mr. Wharton, in our first despatch to the Chilian Government of October 23, 1891, complains that the mob ("as we must conclude"!) "were animated in their bloody work by hostility to these men as sailors of the United States." He further says that the people of the United States had been pained by the "killing and pitiless wounding" of the sailors at Valparaiso "more as an apparent expression of an unfriendliness towards this Government" than as anything else. If we consider war as a remedy for this unfriendliness, it becomes almost grotesque in its absurdity. Our threatening it for this reason strikingly resembles the French Jacobin's "Sois mon frère, ou je te tue" (Be fraternal, or I'll cut your throat). To sink the Chilian fleet, and bombard Chilian ports, and invade and lay waste Chilian territory in order to cure "unfriendliness," or "hostility," would far surpass in unreasonableness any war of either ancient or modern times. Governments in those days, when making preparations to attack an enemy, never complained of *his* disliking them. They never said they were going to kill him and lay waste his territory because he hated them, but because they hated him. They fought him for their own satisfaction, not for his moral elevation. "If I know myself," said one of Nelson's Englishmen, "I have no prejudices, but I do hate a Frenchman." It was his hatred of Frenchmen which kept him to his guns at Trafalgar, not a desire to make Frenchmen love him.

In short, the only evil we can remedy by a war with Chili is, if any, Chili's ignorance of our resources and of our formidableness as an armed antagonist. That any such ignorance exists among the governing class in Chili, no sensible man who knows anything of the country will believe. Our "honor," in the duelling sense, can hardly be involved, because no intelligent Chilian doubts our military courage. For Chilian hostility, as for the hostility of any civilized man, or body of men, the remedy is kindness and consideration. For the death of the sailors the remedy is some compensation to their families and to the wounded. But to prevent this being ridiculous it ought to be obtained by peaceable means. To get it by war is like spending $1,000 at law for the recovery of $5. That we could, in the presence of the armaments supported by sea and land by European Powers, gain any glory or a high position as a military bully by fighting Chili, is something which no intelligent man will affirm. Our fame in the international arena is to be maintained, as it has been acquired, by our success in getting what we want without the use of force. It is in this we show our civilization and our modernness, if we may use the term. Tamerlane gained his ends by cutting throats. We should gain ours by assuming that all our civilized neighbors are friendly and are amenable to reason, and are willing to right an unprovoked wrong when it is properly described to them. For this process hardly any delay is too long. Not a gun or ship should be moved until the powers of persuasion have been wholly exhausted in the estimation, not of naval and military men, but of the wisest, most peace-loving and right-doing portion of the community. The one thing an American statesman should keep foremost in his mind is that he can go to war at any time, but, the war once begun, he never can tell beforehand at what time he can make peace. "Immediate satisfaction, sir," or, "A written apolo-

gy, damn him," are duellists' phrases, not those of a politician. We can fight Chili a year hence as well as next month, and a year hence we may be sure we shall all see more clearly than we do now the merits of this quarrel. We waited seven years for the settlement of the *Alabama* claims, but they *were* settled without any naval fuming, and they cost no man's life, destroyed no man's home or property, and left our relations with Great Britain, as every one admits, better than they had been for three quarters of a century.

MR. SAXTON'S NEW CORRUPT-PRACTICES ACT.

SENATOR SAXTON has introduced his bill for the amendment of the Corrupt Practices Act, passed in 1890, and the changes which he proposes are of such importance as to amount practically to a new measure. He has made a careful study of the other laws and bills of the kind which have been considered in other American legislatures, and has embodied all their most desirable features in his amendments. The result is a far more comprehensive and stringent act against the corrupt and extravagant use of money in elections than has yet appeared in any part of this country. While it draws its leading principles from the English act of 1883, the application of those principles is adapted to American election methods.

The chief defects of the Act of 1890 were its failure to include campaign committees in the requirement for sworn publication of all expenditures of the election, and its failure to place limits to the expenditures of candidates. These defects Senator Saxton has remedied, and he has also provided against new abuses which were revealed in the last election. He has amended the provision which forbids any person directly or indirectly to use undue influence upon any voter in an election so as to make it include primaries, caucuses, and conventions, and to include also the offence of hiring a voter to refrain from registering. It is made a misdemeanor for any one to hire a voter to refrain from registering, or for any one to allow himself to be hired to so refrain. Both parties have charged that many voters were hired to stay away from the polls at the last election, and that many others were hired to withhold their names from the registry. The former method of bribing is forbidden by the present law, but nobody has ever tried to have the penalty enforced. The latter method was an invention of the last campaign, and furnishes the briber with a sure proof that the man he has bribed has kept his bargain in the absence of the latter's name from the registration lists.

Three new sections are proposed by Mr. Saxton, all of the highest importance. The first provides a maximum limit, not yet fixed, to the expenditures of all candidates, graded according to the importance of the office, and declares that "no candidate for judicial office shall pay or contribute directly or indirectly to any person, corporation, or political committee any sum or amount whatever, in money or its equivalent or other valuable thing, in aid of his nomination or election, or in aid of the nomination or election of any other candidate for office, or for campaign purposes, or to promote the success of a party ticket," and forbids any person, corporation, or political committee to ask or receive any contribution from a judicial candidate. This is a most desirable provision, and if enacted, it will put a stop to the practical sale of judicial nominations which Tammany has been making in this city for many years. No candidate for the bench can hope to receive the Tammany nomination unless he pay over from $5,000 to $25,000 to Tammany as the price of it. The surer he is of election after the nomination, the higher is the price levied, for the certainty of election enhances the value of the nomination.

The second new section proposed by Senator Saxton defines the lawful and unlawful uses which candidates may make of money, as follows:

"It shall be unlawful for a candidate for public office to pay, use, expend or contribute directly or indirectly any money or its equivalent or other valuable thing in aid of his nomination or election, or for any person, corporation, or political committee, to pay, use, expend or contribute directly or indirectly any money or its equivalent or other valuable thing in aid of the nomination or the election of such candidate, or for campaign expenses, or to promote the success of a party ticket except for the following purposes:

"(1.) The personal expenses of the candidate for travelling, postage, stationery, and clerk hire.

"(2.) Necessary committee and campaign-club expenses for rent, furniture, clerk hire, postage, and stationery.

"(3.) Necessary expenses of printing posters for use at public elections, unofficial ballots when they are required, and ballots for primary elections, caucuses, and conventions.

"(4.) Reasonable compensation for the services of watchers authorized by law at polling-places and places of holding primary elections and caucuses.

"(5.) Necessary expenses of printing and advertising, including the circulation of newspapers and the publication and distribution of pamphlets, circulars, addresses, and notices.

"(6.) A reasonable compensation to one person in each election district for making a canvass of voters.

"(7.) The necessary expenses of conveying poor and infirm voters to the polling places, and places of holding primary elections, caucuses, and conventions; but this shall not authorize the payment of any money or other valuable thing to such poor and infirm voter, or to any person as a compensation for procuring the attendance of such voter at the polls or place of holding the primary election, caucus, or convention.

"(8.) The necessary expenses for holding public meetings and conventions.

"(9.) The necessary expenses for providing uniforms and other paraphernalia for political clubs and music for street parades."

These provisions would be susceptible of gross abuse were they not coupled with the maximum limit to expenditures. Mr. Saxton, in addition to placing such limit, has drawn amendments to the section requiring sworn publication of expenses by candidates, which seem well calculated to prevent evasions similar to those which nearly all candidates committed in their statements after the last campaign. As amended, the section requires each candidate to file "an itemized statement showing in detail all the moneys which he has directly or indirectly, by himself or through any other person, paid or expended, or promised to contribute, pay, or expend, in aid of his nomination or election, or in aid of the nomination or election of any other person, or for campaign purposes, or to promote the success of a party ticket."

The third new section provides that "every political committee which aids in the nomination, election, or defeat of any candidate for public office, or assists in conducting a political campaign, or in promoting the success of the ticket of a political party, shall have a treasurer, and cause to be kept by him detailed accounts of all the money, securities, and equivalents of money received by or promised to such committee, and of the manner in which the same has been expended, and of all payments, liabilities, or promises of payment made by such committee, or any member thereof," and publish the same under oath after election. Any person not a member of such committee, or any person who is a member, who collects or disburses money in an election, or incurs liabilities to an amount exceeding five dollars, comes within the scope of this requirement.

The penalties for violation of the law remain the same as under the present act, with the exception that, in addition to imprisonment and loss of any office to which he may have been elected, a candidate convicted of any offence is disqualified for holding any kind of public office for five years.

REGISTRATION OF COPYRIGHT IN ENGLAND.

IN the development of legislation for the protection of literary and artistic property, there has been a noticeable tendency to make the statutory requirements for the securing and identifying of the copyright as little burdensome to the author or his assigns as possible. This has also been marked in the case of international agreements, and when the International Literary Property Convention was entered into, in 1887, after preliminary discussion of this point, it was agreed that an author, in order to secure full control of his copyright in the various countries of the Union, need only fulfil the conditions and formalities prescribed by law in his own country. But in England the law as to the registration of copyright and the deposit of copies is contained in what the *Law Quarterly Review* terms an " 'ungodly jumble' of statutes and orders in council," and is decidedly complicated, and a recent English decision has added to the perplexing and unsatisfactory state of the law.

The case of Fishburn vs. Hollingshead, briefly stated, was as follows: The proprietors of a panorama of "Jerusalem and the Crucifixion of Christ," painted by a Munich artist and copyrighted in Germany, assigned to the plaintiffs the copyright of the picture in the United King-

dom. The defendant attempted to exhibit a copy of the picture in London, and the questions for the determination of the court were, first, whether the panorama exhibited by Hollingshead was an infringement of the plaintiffs' copyright; secondly, whether the plaintiffs had secured the right to sue for an injunction, and, incidental to this last, whether registration in London is essential to the right to defend a foreigner's English copyright against infringement—a point of direct interest to all foreign authors who wish to obtain a valid copyright in Great Britain. The case was decided on February 4, 1891, and is reported in the Law Reports, 1891: Chancery Division, vol. ii., pp. 371–385. Mr. Justice Stirling, who rendered the decision, enters into an elaborate review of the stipulations as to registration contained in the various Copyright Statutes and Orders in Council, and arrives at the conclusion that, under the so-called International Copyright Acts, registration is not necessary unless distinctly provided for in the Order in Council under which aliens become the beneficiaries of the English copyright laws. But, to quote his own words, "Unless there is something in the Order which excepts the enactments with respect to registration contained in the General Copyright Acts, it seems to me that they must apply, and I have found nothing in the Convention or in the Order which makes any exception." In effect, the copyright proprietor must register in order to have the right to sue for the purpose of protecting his copyright property, and this because, "Unless express provision is made by the Order in Council for excepting from its operation some of its enactments, foreigners who claim copyright under the act are to be subject to the same obligations as are imposed by the statutes on British subjects"; and a passage from a decision by Lord Hatherley is quoted to show that if this were not so, "authors of foreign works would be placed in a better position than authors in this country, which certainly was not intended."

This reasoning seems not only narrow, but illogical, for under the operation of the Berne Convention, which requires of an author but one registration of his copyright for all the countries of the International Copyright Union, the English author loses nothing by the foreigner's exemption from registration in England, as he is given the reciprocal advantage of the remission of registration and deposit in all the countries of the Union except his own. Moreover, if each country of the Union should require a repetition of the registration and deposit in order to the securing of copyright within its own borders, the stipulation would be a very burdensome one. England's own plenipotentiaries, in their report on the Berne treaty, emphasize this, and say: "The only principle upon which an International Copyright Union can apparently be founded with any chance of success, is that the title to copyright shall be acquired in all States of the Union by the simple accomplishment of the formalities required by law in the country of origin."

In a note in the *Law Quarterly Review* for January, signed with the initials "T. E. S." (which we may safely assume stand for Thomas Edward Scrutton, author of 'The Law of Copyright,' 1883, second edition, 1890), British subjects are cautioned against republishing foreign literary or artistic works in England which they do not find registered at Stationers' Hall on the strength of the above case, as the learned Judge's opinion was clearly *obiter dictum*, he having decided that the work infringed had been properly registered. Mr. Scrutton briefly summarizes the various statutory provisions as to registration, and agrees that by reason of section 4 of the Act of 1886 the stipulations as to registry and delivery of copies do not apply to foreign works; but he contends that the provisions of the Act of 1844, instead of supplementing, superseded those of the Act of 1842, and that the Act of 1886 in turn superseded the Act of 1844, so that the new statutes do not revive the old provisions, but leave the foreign author to register in his own country, obtaining thereby copyright, by virtue of the International Convention, in all the countries of the International Union. We may add, as regards American authors who wish to obtain a valid copyright in England, that it would seem quite clear that their only safe plan is not only to register their claim of copyright, but also to deposit the five copies demanded by the English Copyright Law.

THE ACADEMY OF FINE ARTS.—I.

PARIS, January 7, 1892.

EACH of our Academies has what is called a Perpetual Secretary. Perpetual goes well with the name of Immortals, which is often applied, sometimes ironically, to the members of the French Academy of Letters. There is an Academy of Fine Arts, some members of which are as illustrious as the best-known members of the Academy of Letters. Our best sculptors, our best painters, our best musicians consider it an honor to be members of it. I will name for the present only Gounod, Meissonier, Gérôme, Paul Dubois, Bonnat, Baudry. This Academy of Fine Arts formed for nearly a century one of the divisions of the Institute of France, but for many years after its foundation (1795) it had no well-defined character or function. Its history has recently been written by Count Henri Delaborde, who is now its Perpetual Secretary.

Till the Revolution the "Royal Academy of Painting and Sculpture" could receive an unlimited number of members. It opened liberally its doors to all the notable artists, to women as well as to men; Mme. Vigée-Lebrun, the admirable portrait-painter of all the great ladies during the reign of Louis XVI., was a member of it, as well as thirteen other ladies, now forgotten. Among the members of this old company we find such names as Lebrun, Lesueur, Watteau, David; great amateurs like Mariette, archæologues like Caylus and Choiseul-Gouffier. After 1789, David turned against his colleagues, and referred to the Academy as another Bastille which should be demolished. In a memorial signed by him and twelve of his friends, he put this question: "Is it tolerable that an autocratic and permanent tribunal should receive, place, judge eminent artists?" In the name of liberty the Royal Academy was suppressed, though its statutes were conceived in a very liberal spirit and its doors opened to all. The action of David is all the more remarkable because he was not an envious, mediocre, unsuccessful artist, but a painter of immense and recognized talent.

The Convention suppressed all the academies, but in this respect its work was ephemeral; as soon as the revolutionary tide subsided, the Institute was founded by the efforts of Lakanal, Grégoire, and others. A division was reserved for "literature and the fine arts," a sort of Janus-like class, which received the writers as well as the artists; and this third division of the Institute was subdivided into eight sections, four for writers and savants, four for artists. These latter four went under the names of "painting, sculpture, architecture, music and declamation." Among the twenty-four members who filled these four sections, we find David, Houdon the sculptor, the musicians Méhul and Grétry. Who can go to the Théâtre-Français without admiring the sitting statue of Voltaire—the masterpiece of Houdon? He is well known also for his Diana, now in the museum of the Louvre, his busts of Franklin, Diderot, etc. Méhul is the author of an opera, "Joseph," which has great beauties, and of the celebrated "Chant du Départ," a second sort of "Marseillaise." Grétry had won a great reputation many years before.

The division of the classes of the Institute into sections still subsists, though the classes themselves have been reorganized. It sometimes puts great difficulties in the way of the best candidates; the members of some sections are too "immortal" at times, and will not give way to extraordinary rising men. In the Academy of Sciences, for instance, Élie de Beaumont, who was one of the fathers of modern geology, had to be elected in the section of astronomy. The number of the members was limited in the new organization, which was in this respect less liberal than the organization of the old "Royal Academy." The division into sections has another inconvenience: it makes a sort of Procrustean bed, in which it is sometimes difficult to find a place; it does not take into account, in the Academy of Science, the development of new sciences, in the Academy of Fine Arts, the composite character of many an artist; it lacks elasticity and pliability.

After the *coup d'état* of Fructidor, 1797, five of the members of the new Institute were proscribed. La Réveillère-Lepeaux, who was himself a member of the Institute, was among the proscribers. General Bonaparte took the place left empty by Carnot. After the campaigns of Italy there, was much discussion about the statues and pictures which Bonaparte wished to send to France. Quatremère de Quincy had the courage to say that the great works of art ought not to follow the fortune of war and of revolution; they were not common plunder, and ought to remain in the places for which they were made. Bonaparte and the Directors had decided otherwise; they intended to "make of Paris the universal museum of France and of Europe." To do justice to the French artists, eight members of the third class of the Institute (and David was among them) signed, with forty-three other artists, a petition to the Directory, in which they expressed their desire that the monuments of antiquity should not be removed

from Rome. Their wish was not regarded, and soon afterwards the Parisians had the amusement of a great fête given by the Directory (July 27, 1798) to celebrate the arrival of the colossal bronze horses of Venice, and a number of monuments, as well as plants and animals for the Jardin des Plantes, even lions, camels, and dromedaries, taken from the neighborhood of Pisa, immense carts full of books, manuscripts, and medals. Among the great monuments of art which had been *ceded* by the Pontifical Government were the Apollo Belvedere, the Laöcoon, the Dying Gladiator, the Virgin of Foligno, and the Transfiguration of Raphael, a number of pictures by Titian, Correggio, and Veronese. Few thought at the time that France was receiving all these objects only as a sort of deposit, and that a few years afterwards they would all return to Italy. I, for one, do not agree with Béranger, who protested in 1815 against the restitutions made by France, and "le vol fait par les rois."

The Institute was reorganized in 1803; the class of literature and fine arts was divided into two classes, one of which—the class of the fine arts—formed the fourth section of the Institute. An "arrête" of the Consuls determined the costume of the members of the Institute, a costume which has never been changed since. In all the sittings of the Institute we can admire what Arago called his "habit de perroquet" as the black coat—*la française*—is covered with embroidered green leaves of laurel. The Institute was transferred from the Louvre, where it sat at first, to the ancient college "des quatre nations," or Collège Mazarin. All the solemn sittings of the Institute take place in this building under the cupola which is familiar to all Parisians. Napoleon, when he became Emperor, founded, by a decree, great prizes, which were to be distributed by the Institute for the best works produced in science, letters, and arts.

Under the Restoration the fourth class of the Institute received its present name of Academy of Fine Arts. A class was created in it for "Académiciens libres"; this class was destined for distinguished amateurs, patrons of art, men who were not professional artists. There is, besides corresponding members, a class of members who are mostly foreigners. When the Academy of Fine Arts in 1816 received its definitive organization, we find among its members Houdon, Méhul, Denon, Gérard, Gros, Carle Vernet; the name of David does not figure on the list. David was one of "those regicides who had given their adherence to the *acte additionel* of April 22, 1815, accepted office from the usurper, and thus shown themselves irreconcilable enemies of France and of the Legitimate Government." These men had been condemned to perpetual banishment. David went to Decazes and asked for a passport. The Minister told him to remain. "This law is not made for you, M. David. The King does not intend to deprive France of the man who holds the sceptre of art. Stay in Paris; I promise you all security." David resisted these entreaties, and left for Brussels, where he died December 29, 1825. Louis XVIII. not only gave its final organization to the Academy of Fine Arts, he also was the real founder of the École des Beaux-Arts: the buildings of this new École, some of which are very remarkable, were, however, only finished by Duban under Louis Philippe. These buildings have even in our days received a great extension. Since 1824 it may be said that, notwithstanding several revolutions, the Academy of Fine Arts has always remained the same. Its constitution may be criticised—it is every day criticised by the young artists; but it has stood the test of time, and, with the École des Beaux-Arts and the École de Rome, which live, so to speak, under its patronage, has succeeded in giving to France a noble phalanx of great artists, some of whom have become world-famous.

During the reign of Charles X. the Academy opened its doors to Horace Vernet, to David d'Angers, to Ingres; at the very moment when Ingres was elected, the Academy, having to choose a musician as Académicien Libre out of a list of three candidates, chose Father Mattei, who was a good contrapuntist and had given lessons to Rossini, in preference to Beethoven. The great quarrel between the classicists and the romanticists filled the reign of Charles X., and had, of course, its echo in the Academy. The Academy became one of the favorite objects of the criticisms of the young school; its members were accused, many of them not unjustly, of a servile imitation of ancient forms and of an unjust contempt for nature. The romanticists studied life in living objects; they had men of great genius in their ranks, they despised tradition in every form of art.

The struggle continued under Louis Philippe; the romanticists found a strong ally in the eldest son of the King, the Duc d'Orléans, who encouraged rising artists and visited their studios; he bought for his gallery the "Stratonice" of Ingres and the "Assassination of the Duc de Guise" (both pictures are now in the galleries of the Duc d'Aumale at Chantilly). The King himself was more of a politician than an artist; he was fond of building, but was not happy in the choice of his architects. His children were almost all passionate for art, especially the Prince de Joinville, the Duc d'Aumale, and the Duc de Montpensier. Louis Philippe, however, much encouraged a great artist, Horace Vernet; it was because Vernet was an admirable painter of battles and helped the King in his splendid work of the restoration of the Palace of Versailles, which Louis Philippe intended to become a sort of illustration of the history of France. The historical galleries of the Palace of Versailles are now a monument of the greatest importance. Versailles gives to the visitor the best lesson in French history that can be given. Horace Vernet was a great favorite of Louis Philippe, who made him Director of the Academy of France at Rome, a post much envied, and very naturally envied, by all our artists.

COMMON SENSE IN NATIONAL ART GALLERIES.—II.

LONDON, January, 1892.

THE English has been one of the first national galleries to outgrow the period of fetishism. Even the Louvre, the Pitti, the Uffizi are centuries behind it in this respect; while in the Berlin Old Museum want of judgment in the selection and retention of pictures is as conspicuous as in the Dresden Zwinger. Indeed, the Berlin gallery has much the same good and bad points as the Dresden. It, too, is delightful in the plan of the building and arrangement of the rooms; by far the best impression being made when one enters from the Lustgarten, up the great stairway, into the Rotunda. Here the Raphael tapestries are more effective than in Dresden, though there is no difference in the hanging; but in Berlin the Rotunda serves as a palatial entrance hall, while in Dresden it merely cuts in two the line of long galleries. It may be a trifling matter to notice, but the care of the management is extended to the curtains, drawn in turn over each of the tapestries as the sunlight falls upon it from the cupola above, so that, though one or two or more may be covered, a few can be seen at all hours of the day. In the little room beyond leading to the passage to the new museum, beautiful old woodwork and bits of old church decoration adorn the walls; but in the galleries themselves decoration is of secondary importance to the pictures, as it should be. One might suggest, however, that the number of the room or the name of the school to which it is devoted, as in Vienna or London, would be more appropriate over the doors than gorgeous drapery. The light throughout, except in the narrow passages where pictures ought not to be, is good.

As in Dresden, pictures are arranged chronologically and according to schools, but with more thorough system and therefore with more satisfactory results. There is the same overflow into the cabinets, but these are fewer in number, while in them the order of periods and countries is more carefully observed. There may be many canvases which it ought to be the first duty of directors to get rid of, but, perhaps because the old masters of the Raczynski collection are in the National Gallery—more probably because there are really not so many—their numbers are less aggressive than in the Zwinger. It is now the guide-book platitude to say of Berlin that, if it has few masterpieces, its great merit is its historical completeness. But the best-ordered guide-book could not make good the first half of this platitude in comparing Berlin to Dresden. The Holbein at Berlin, the portrait of Gisze, with its simply marvellous detail, is no light rival to the "Morette" of Dresden. The little Crucifixion on the screen, the Bernard Van Orley, in the same collection are of minor interest by the side of the Berlin portraits of Moffel and Holzschuher, which make one wonder if perhaps Dürer may not have been a painter after all. The Ter Borchs of Dresden are not more Whistlerian and masterly, not better witnesses of the fact that in art as in literature there is nothing new, even in this very modern nineteenth century, than the luminous, harmonious little portraits which, if Ter Borch had painted them to-day, the world would call slavish imitations of Whistler. And what is there in Dresden finer than the deservedly famous Hille Bobbe of Franz Hals—the fishwife appears with much less success in the Dresden version—than his "Nurse and Child"? But to take one last supreme example, for it would be worse than useless to write a catalogue, what Sistine Madonna, what Rubens allegory, what Dutch or Flemish microscopic masterpiece, can approach the incomparable General Borro of Velasquez, the huge fat man, the Spanish Falstaff, ugly, gross, sensual, but, because he is alive on the canvas, a genuine man of unmistakable individuality and character? Because of the painter's achievement, he will be remembered when the great multitude of conventionally pretty ladies and conventionally fine gentlemen by Rubens and Van Dyck fade into one mental composite photograph, blurred and indistinct. This Velasquez is the great glory of the Berlin collection.

The other contention, that the Prussian gallery is the more historically complete of the two, is true enough. At Berlin there is no undue predominance of any one school or period, while the Italians and Spaniards are far more adequately represented, though there may be fewer examples of one or two individual artists. But in historical value the Berlin Museum cannot compete with the London National Gal-

lery. In the latter, the student not only follows quite as well the development of the art of painting throughout the centuries and in all countries, but he is shown some of the best results of this development in every period, and is spared much of the usual trash not yet swept from Berlin. There is hardly a school whose greatest master cannot be seen in at least one of his greatest pictures in London. But this cannot always be said of Berlin, while as a rule the Berlin masterpieces are eclipsed by those of London. To prove the truth of this assertion, take two or three of the most famous Italians, since it is impossible to go through the entire list. There is not one of the seven Botticellis, beautiful though the Virgin and Child surrounded by torch-bearing, flower-laden angels may be, which is as truly characteristic and full of Botticelli's decorative charm as that London Madonna, with the angels, in the circular frame. Fine as are two of the Titian portraits (Admiral Moro in the delightfully rendered armor, and the nameless young man in black and gold), the "Bacchus and Ariadne" is infinitely finer. And even Moroni's stunning portrait of himself against the beautiful greenish background must yield the palm to his unrivalled "Tailor."

It must be granted that with some of the lesser masters Berlin holds its own. It is there, and not in London, that you learn how well such men as Bronzino and Pollaiuolo could sometimes paint, while Giorgione's color could not be more gorgeous than in the Venetian youth arrayed in royal purple, with hair hanging straight over his ears and around his face. These, however, are exceptions. There are many Rembrandts at Berlin—too many, for every canvas the master signed is not a genuine Rembrandt in the artistic sense, and not the distinction of a star and Baedeker's borrowed dogmatism can make a picture like the "Susannah" one of his greatest and most mature productions. But even the "Saskia" and "Hendrickje Stoffels," which the artist, guide- and catalogueless, will find at once, would scarce be a fair exchange for the portraits of the old lady and himself in Trafalgar Square. Indeed, I think it doubtful if one would give up Franz Hals's young man in the same collection for the more famous "Hille Bobbe." The Lorraines and Poussins, too, are finer in London. And when it comes to the English school, no question of comparison can arise—there is no English work in Berlin; there is next to none anywhere on the Continent.

But to go further into detail would be to vie with Baedeker or the author of that prize puzzle, the Berlin Catalogue. I aim at nothing more ambitious than to point out what struck me as the chief characteristics, good and bad, of the Berlin Old Museum. The next visitor probably will differ from me; so much the better if he but base his opinions on his own observation, and not on ready-made cheap criticism. To pretend that directors should be influenced by the fancies of any and every one who goes through their galleries would be sheer nonsense. But if we defer to the literary man in questions of literature, the artist certainly should be thought competent to judge in matters of art; and one fact upon which all artists will agree is, that the sale value of a picture lies in its artistic qualities. Judged by this standard, the collection of Berlin would be no less improved by the judicious removal of scores of wholly valueless canvases now disfiguring the walls than that of Dresden. London has shown, in a measure, how this can be done. The great trouble at the present day is that directors are not artists, and that galleries which should be held sacred as legacies for artists and art students, are run for the amusement of the tourist. If a gallery is of no use to an artist, it is of no value whatever. Now that art is on the town, however, only the Young Person, whether from England or America, is considered.

The Old Pinakothek of Munich is, next to the Louvre, the gallery which the modern artist knows best, since nowadays the student who does not go to Paris is almost sure to study in Munich. And in the Old Pinakothek, while he would be the last to complain if a hundred years ago the French had made a clean sweep of second-rate masterpieces not thought of sufficient importance to be reclaimed, still the pictures of absolutely no use to him are not so aggressively conspicuous. In the first place, there are about half the number of canvases of which Dresden boasts; in the second, the historical arrangement is more perfectly carried out and the hanging better than in Berlin, so that the impression made is less confusing. If architecturally the building may not be as striking, the galleries themselves are as well designed, as well lighted, and as well decorated as those of Dresden and Berlin, and my experience is that they are less exhausting physically and mentally, which is no small test of their power to interest. The great work is seen to advantage; the careful historical sequence observed helps to reconcile one here more than elsewhere to the survival of much that is bad and more that is commonplace. Certainly there seems better reason in Munich for the honors invariably paid to the primitives, chiefly because one begins at the beginning, walking at once into the rooms devoted to early German and Netherlandish schools, instead of coming upon them after looking at the work of abler draughtsmen and painters of greater artistic breadth; partly because of the excellence of many of these primitives.

There is always more or less of the conventional in art, but necessarily it must be more when the convention does not originate with the painter, but is forced upon him by social or religious influences, as it was in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. But, hampered as he then was by his patrons in the Church, and immature as were his methods and knowledge, he could always show his artistic feeling and scope by the individual decorative quality he gave to the treatment of the motives he shared with all artists. It was not his shortcomings and his unavoidable defects that made him an artist, as a modern primitive like Holman Hunt seems to think. But the latter has not worked in vain, for, to compare his affected imitation of the earlier painters' defects, devoid of their compensating beauty, with the delightfully decorative altar-pieces, sincere in their crude draughtsmanship and perspective and conventional composition, by unknown Cologne masters, by mere copyists of Van Eyck, or by such men as Burgkmair and Wolgemut, as one sees them at Munich, is to understand more fully wherein they excelled. As a rule, however, the large church panels and triptychs exhibited out of their proper place serve but to confirm the fact, if confirmation were needed, that a picture-gallery is the most artless of inventions. Perhaps I was specially struck with this in Munich because I had just come from Schwabach, a town occupying too little space in Baedeker to attract many tourists from near Nuremberg, but where there is an old church with a marvellous altar-piece by Wolgemut, which, seen where he intended it should be seen, is twice or three times as effective as his "Resurrection" in the Old Pinakothek, though the latter may have held its own before it was taken from the altar at Hof.

But, on the whole, in Munich, the lesser-known earlier men suffer less than the more famous painters, whose work illustrates a still more inartistic tendency of the modern picture gallery—that is, to preserve and lend undue importance to canvases which can add nothing to the reputation of the artist, and at times must detract from it. To those who know something about art and can think for themselves, it is evident that too many of the Dürers, if they are really his, are but pot-boilers (I am not sure that I would except even the portrait of himself over which every well-informed visitor goes into the correct ecstasy); that the two Holbeins are to be counted among this painter's failures; that the one Franz Hals and the greater number of the Rembrandts can but remind one how very uneven both were in their work (it is only fair to remember, however, that the genuineness of the former's "Group of Family Portraits" has been questioned); and that a couple of Van der Werffs or Breughels, of Tenierses or even Ruysdaels, would have more than satisfied the reasonable man.

This may sound very like heresy. It is easier to be orthodox where Rubens is concerned. I remember once being in Venice when a group of young students from Munich came there to see its art treasures, and went back quickly, scoffing at Titian and Tintoretto and Veronese. "They would rather have Rubens every time," was their verdict, more candid than elegant. And though not to be endorsed unconditionally, it must be acknowledged that in Munich the genius of Rubens asserts itself most powerfully, and that the Old Pinakothek calls, less than any other gallery, for a wholesale reduction in the wall space devoted to the productions of his workshop. Rubens himself is seen rather than the pupils and assistants who did too much of his work for him. One recognizes not only the touch of the master, but the master's study of problems not to be solved by the conventions and traditions of the schools. Here are, not the St. Jeromes thrown off to meet the expenses of an Antwerp palace, but Christs and angels and other stock Scriptural subjects treated as means to a great decorative end; here are the smaller sketches, vigorous, rich, suggestive as the Dresden studies; here the satyrs which have since given inspiration to Böcklin, and here, too, portraits almost as fresh and clean as a good Franz Hals—"ripping," is what the artist calls his "Doctor Van Thulden"—and an astonishing landscape, with a rainbow, like a Constable in composition and color-scheme, though naturally not in treatment. Rubens painted so often simply to fill orders that it is a delight to find him, as in Munich, painting for his own pleasure. But how difficult it was for him to preserve his independence has a curious illustration in his portrait of Philip IV. of Spain, whose face Velasquez has made as familiar as that of any public man of to-day, but whose main characteristics Rubens has toned down, whose face he has sweetened, not daring to look at royalty with eyes free from the spectacles of convention or to represent it with the unflinching realism of Velasquez.

The preëminence of Rubens may be partly due to the poverty of the Italian sections, for Munich has but few fine canvases of Italian masters, none of those Venetians who rival him in decorative splendor. Nor can he lose by comparison with the Spaniards. The two Ve-

lasquezes are interesting necessarily—Velasquez could paint nothing that was not of interest; but they do not reach the standard of the "General Borro" in Berlin, of the "Philip" in London; while the Murillos, though popular, owing to the many engravings from them, and though all well-read American young ladies would call them sweet, are but prototypes of to-day's sentimental picture that tells a story. Rubens's competitors in Munich are his own countrymen. The painters who, after him, support the Old Pinakothek's claim to rank with the great galleries of the world, are the Fleming of his own age—Van Dyck, who not often is so free from conventionality, so much readier to paint his sitters as they looked to him than as they would have liked him to fancy them; Snyders, Boel, Fyt, De Vos—men whose work is never very interesting, but who are seen at their best here.

The directors at Munich have known not only how to classify and hang their pictures, but how to catalogue them, and a good catalogue is not made every day. In it the pictures are placed and numbered as on the walls; to pass from one to the next does not mean to turn over a hundred and more pages in the book in your hand. Herr Bode has devoted, I believe, long months to the catalogues of the Berlin collections, and has received great credit for them; here the names of the painters are given alphabetically, there are indexes and references and every elaborate aid to the proper understanding of the system adopted—everything, in fact, but the one simple requirement, which is, that the picture should be as readily found in the catalogue as on the walls. In the Dresden catalogue the arrangement is according to schools and painters, which would be admirable if all the works of one school or of one man occurred together in the gallery also; but they do not, and confusion is the result. If catalogues are published and sold for the greater convenience of the student or visitor, simplicity should be the one and only end aimed at in their construction. As it is, the chief object seems to be to give evidence of the compiler's learning, so that, the more complicated they are, the more honor they reflect upon him. Whoever has gone from the Salon, with its alphabetical catalogue, to the Royal Academy, with its plain, straightforward list of contributions arranged in the exact order in which they hang, with an alphabetical index of artists' names following, can appreciate the relief of the Munich catalogue after those of Dresden and Berlin.

The Young Person, who knows beforehand what to see, what to admire, what to worship in every collection of pictures, has a soul above such trifles as a poor catalogue and a worse arranged gallery. But to the man to whom love of art does not mean loss of common sense, these are evils the more irritating because they might be so easily remedied were it not for modern superstition and sentiment. Honest criticism of long-established institutions is at times more wholesome than repetition of traditional praise. N. N.

Correspondence.

THE MILITARY POINT OF VIEW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Whether we shall be justified or not in making war on Chili is a question not yet ripe for decision, depending, first, on full and accurate knowledge of what has really taken place; and, secondly, on what Chili may decide to do in the matter. But some of our public men are reported as having prejudged the question. Says Senator Kyle: "The sentiment of the people I represent is against any war with Chili. Such a contest would be a national disgrace. The bare idea of going to war with a country smaller than one of our States is criminally ludicrous" (Washington *Star* of January 19). Says Senator Peffer: "The statement that 60,000,000 of people—the biggest, richest, and most prosperous nation on earth—should entertain the idea of war with a little country like Chili, is an absurdity" (Washington *Star* of January 19). Other public men have been reported as insisting that the case is a proper one for arbitration; and others, again, have expressed the opinion that if Chili has instituted and completed a judicial inquiry into the facts according to her own forms of procedure, she has fulfilled her international obligations in the matter, and if the result shows that there is no just cause for our demand for reparation, we are bound by the decision.

Every one of these positions appears to me erroneous. According to the doctrine of Senators Peffer and Kyle, any nation much less powerful than our own has *carte blanche* to commit outrages upon our citizens without fear of being compelled to make reparation. In other words, American sailors cannot claim of their Government protection from outrages that may be committed on them in a port of a nation comparatively feeble—that is to say, in the far greater number of foreign countries.

As for a resort to arbitration, the objection is substantially the same. Would the United States Government dare to say to its sailors that, whether an outrage committed on them by some savage tribe, or in the port of some comparatively feeble nation, shall be atoned for or not, will depend on the decision—after proceedings more or less dilatory—of some foreign Government?

Finally, as to the result judicially arrived at in the country of which reparation is claimed being conclusive: such a doctrine has no shadow of foundation in international law. It means that, however overwhelming the evidence that the finding of facts by the foreign tribunal is contrary to the truth—whether owing to the perjury of witnesses, or the over-awing of officials by the populace, or their own hostile feelings—the complaining Government can have no redress.—Respectfully yours,

Francis J. Lippitt.

Washington, D. C., January 20, 1892.

[What would you do if the result of a judicial inquiry "showed there was no just cause for our demand for reparation"? Would you use your superior strength to exact reparation if the cause was unjust or inadequate? Surely not. Where did you get the notion that a civilized, Christian government did *not* fulfil its "international obligations," in case of outrages on foreigners on its soil, by a fair trial of the offenders according to the law of the land in which the offence was committed? Do you not know that this is a long-established principle and practice of international law, and was fully set out and adhered to and relied upon by us in our controversy with Italy over the New Orleans massacre? You surely do not suppose that Senator Peffer started it. International law offers no impunity either for small or for large States in case the trial is marked by manifest injustice. If it should be improperly conducted, however, and end in a failure of justice, there should be no greater display of resentment towards a small than a large State—in other words, no bullying. If the wrong be manifest, Chili ought to get no worse treatment than England. What you mean by your objection to arbitration we do not exactly know. In so far as we understand it, it applies to all trials of disputes before an impartial tribunal. Your interpretation, in the last paragraph, of the doctrine that the judicial findings of foreign tribunals in criminal acts committed within their jurisdiction are conclusive on all concerned, sounds so like burlesque that we pass it without remark. Nobody that we know of outside a lunatic asylum has put your construction on it.—Ed. Nation.]

ANGLOPHOBIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Prophesying is dangerous work, and if three-score years have done nothing else, they have at least taught me wariness in this respect. But sometimes there comes the luxury of saying, "I told you so."

On first reading the plan of governing London by a County Council, I said that if that could be made to work successfully, I must either give up all my theories of administration, or assume that the human material in London was very different from anything in this country. Mr. R. B. Carter, a member of the Council, has written a letter to the *Times* declining reëlection and stating his views, upon which the *Spectator* comments as follows:

"London has no visible Executive Government. So far as such a function has been intrusted to the County Council, it is not performed by visible persons at all, but by nineteen ordinary and five special committees of varying numbers—one containing the preposterous number of sixty members—varying attendances, and varying methods of selection, some being filled up from political motives, some because competent men are indispensable, and some because certain Councillors given to fads are urgent to be placed on those committees. The Executive Government is, in fact, intrusted to minute or large but always changeable groups of Councillors, who may be competent and industrious or incompetent and lazy, but who make up in either case formless bodies of men, whose names, ideas, and work are all equally unknown to their constituents."

What follows has a familiar sound:

"But if the electors will not attend the polls, or are taken in by false professions, or suffer themselves to be 'jockeyed' in any way, they must consent to bear the consequences of their own indifference or silliness."

Reconsideration, however, comes later on:

"We accept democracy in fact, but that is no reason why democracy should choose for itself an absurd method of selecting the men who are to do its executive work. There is nothing democratic about a committee which a ministry does not share; or, rather, a committee is the least democratic of the two, because the democracy cannot watch it, does not know its character, and cannot either dismiss it or send it before a tribunal to be sentenced. A committee with the powers of the Chancellor of the Exchequer would be the least democratic and most inefficient authority on finance conceivable, and it is through such a body that the London Council in every department elects to work.

"Busy men will not enter the Council to be forced to sit on those secret committees, and the representation of London will gradually be

left to idlers, to men whose trade is politics, and to men who hope indirectly to make money out of the position."

Of course, we have no cities organized on just this plan, but the argument is just as good for our boards and commissions, and for our Legislatures, both State and national. In this case, however, I will leave your readers to point the moral for themselves. G. B.

BOSTON, January 23, 1892.

ARCHÆOLOGICAL FORGERIES AT WYMAN, MICHIGAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Wyman, Mich., is a small village on the Stanton branch of the Detroit, Lansing and Northern Railroad, about sixty miles northwest of Lansing. It is in a region from which in recent years the pine woods have been cut away. Only a small portion of the land is under cultivation, and as the sawmills have been removed, the country presents a desolate appearance. The ground is covered with low, rounded elevations a few feet across, most of which were produced by the uprooting of trees in past times and the decaying of roots in the soil thrown up by them. Among these there are larger, sepulchral mounds of an aboriginal population, which yield human bones and a few neolithic remains of the common sort. The soil is sandy.

In October, 1890, a man digging postholes in a field near Wyman found a small cup of unbaked clay. In the spring and summer of 1891 other discoveries were made, and the inhabitants of the region passed into a state of great excitement, which has hardly yet subsided. In the enthusiasm for excavating, many hundreds of mounds and elevations were dug into. One man, while digging at a greater depth than usual, was caught and killed by the caving in of the sand at the sides of the pit. In a number of instances the excavations brought to light objects surprisingly unlike what might be expected from the archæological environment. The discoveries were made over an area three or four miles in diameter, the greater number within a mile and a half from Wyman; it is said that a few things have been found four or five miles distant. Some of the objects were taken from mounds, others from ground more nearly level, where no evidences of the former existence of mounds were apparent. The things unearthed lay at a depth varying from eighteen inches to three or four feet below the surface. They are nearly all of clay. The discoveries are attested by the number and credibility of the participants and witnesses, who in several instances have substantiated their statements by affidavits. That the objects were really taken from the ground as represented is beyond question. It is reported that some of the specimens were so connected with the roots of trees as to give the excavators the impression that they are of great antiquity.

The objects thus brought to light are numerous, and comprise a variety of classes. The most noteworthy are the cists, or caskets, of which it is said that about thirty have been found up to date. They are oblong, measuring from a foot to thirty inches in length, with a width of six to ten inches and height to correspond. The sides are generally covered with hieroglyphics and alphabetic characters drawn apparently from several ancient alphabets and stamped in the clay when soft. These signs sometimes run across the sides; in other cases they are grouped in panels. Several of the cists are adorned with human figures in rude outline; the circle and the pyramid are also favorite designs for decoration. The lids carry forms in heavy modelling. One has a city wall with towers and a high pylon. Another is embellished with a figure probably intended to represent a bull. Several have recumbent lions. One shows an upturned face, with an elaborate head-dress. No ashes were found in the cists; instead there were tablets and a few other objects. In one there were found fifteen of the stamps, or dies, of the characters stamped on the outside. The tablets from the cists, and those discovered by themselves, number perhaps seventy-five in all. They vary greatly in size and shape, most of them being of a size convenient for the hand. They are covered with characters like those of the cists. Besides these, a number of rude vases and smaller objects have been discovered. Among them are a few coins of copper beaten out thin, and adorned with various alphabetic signs. The weight of two coins which have been examined is suspiciously near that of our one-cent pieces.

Three or four archæologists have pronounced the relics forgeries; yet a considerable number of people believe in them, and are improving every opportunity to spread before the public information regarding the alleged marvellous discoveries. The favorite explanation is that these objects are the remains of a colony that in a remote period found its way to Michigan from the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates. As one writer naïvely remarks (in the *Christian Herald*): "They [the colony] must have left there in a period of remote antiquity. It must have been before the Exodus, for Moses speaks of the iron furnace and the iron bedstead of Og, King of Bashan. But these people used bronze or copper instead of iron, showing that the arts of iron were not known to them."

Three pieces, a sphinx, a vase, and a tablet, have recently come into the possession of the University of Michigan. They were taken from a low mound 150 rods northeast of Wyman. In view of the determined effort to palm off the Wyman finds as genuine, it was thought best to subject these specimens to a more than cursory examination, and to make public the results. The sphinx rests upon a thin base, fourteen inches long and six wide, rounded at the corners, and ornamented with a stamped figure repeated about the margin at the rear and sides; the figure is like a V followed by a circle. The sphinx itself measures about ten inches from throat to tail, and is six inches in height to the top of the head-dress, which hangs down on both sides, and is adorned with a figure like an arrow-head repeated in seven vertical rows. The modelling is crude in the extreme, particularly in the legs, haunches, and face. The maker has failed in just the point in which the primitive artist rarely fails, the emphasis of prominent features. In this respect the modelling is far inferior to the carving of the prehistoric stone pipes occasionally found in this State. It is the crude bungling of an unintelligent imitator, who had seen only pictures of a sphinx.

The vase, which might pass for an odd-shaped candlestick, has a flat circular base five inches in diameter. From the central portion two wings project in opposite directions. These measure eight inches between extreme points; the vessel is also eight inches high. The wings and body are ornamented with triangular stamped impressions. After these were made, a cloth was rubbed over them to remove the irregularities of the surface, leaving marks made by the texture.

The tablet is oblong, rounded at one end. It is four inches long at the edges, nearly five across (the centre), and three inches wide. It has the thickness of an inch at the square end, of half an inch at the other end. It was pressed in a frame of machine-sawed boards, as may be seen from the edges, which were not rubbed down enough to remove the impressions of the splinters. It is crowded with characters stamped close together. There were seven stamps used, which were so repeated as to give nineteen impressions on one side, twenty-four on the other, without any apparent relation to one another.

The material of the three pieces is a light-colored clay, containing a large percentage of drift sand. They were dried either in the sun or in contact with mild heat. In drying, the clay opened in cracks, the edges of which are sharp and fresh. The surface shows no traces of discoloration. Fragments of the clay dissolve immediately in water. In view of the perishable character of the material, the slight elevation of the mound, the nearness of the objects to the surface, and the amount of the yearly rainfall in this region, it is clear that the objects could not have been in the ground more than one year.

Here is evidence, then, of a deliberate and laborious attempt at imposition. There must have been a stronger motive than the mere desire to mystify people. Is this the work of an unbalanced religious fanatic, for whom some prophet will arise in due time and interpret the supposed mystic symbols into a new creed? More likely the fabrication is to be credited to a thorough villain, who has thought thus to palm off his crude work at a profit, and trifle with sacred human interests at the same time. On either supposition there is no reason why honest people should be deceived any longer as to the true character of these forgeries, or be misled by the fanciful interpretations of misguided enthusiasts. FRANCIS W. KELSEY.

ANN ARBOR, MICH., January 16, 1892.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the wide publicity given to the report of the discovery of "Assyrian" antiquities in a Michigan mound, I beg of you to announce that the tablets and monuments claimed to have been excavated are wilful forgeries, remarkable only for their clumsy character and the great ignorance betrayed by the forger. Photographs of the objects have been sent me, and a glance is sufficient to reveal the true character of the "find." The inscriptions are largely a horrible mixture of Phœnician, Egyptian, and ancient Greek characters taken at random from a comparative table of alphabets such as is found at the back of Webster's Dictionary. As for the cuneiform characters found on some of the tablets, they are, in the main, variations of a single character which the forger happened to have stumbled across, perhaps in the article "Cuneiform" of Appletons' Encyclopædia, while the sculptures, which include a sphinx of an "Irish" cast of features, are evidently copied from some illustrated hand-book of archæology, or from illustrations in encyclopædic articles.

The purpose of the forger is also clear, for one of the tablets contains a pictorial representation of the "Deluge," divided into three sections—the catastrophe, the ark, and the exit of Noah, his family, and the animals out of the ark; all in conventional style, though very crude and awkward. Again, a number of the monuments have the traditional shape of the two Hebrew tablets of stone; and the numerals from one to ten on these tablets, indicated now by a series of dots and again by lines placed in

fanciful positions, clearly reveal the thought in the mind of the forger.

It is surprising that any sensible person should have been for one moment deceived by so evident a fraud, and yet a correspondent writes that there are fifty-seven affidavits in existence testifying to the genuineness of the discovery—just fifty-six more than there ought to be, for I am perfectly ready to accept the affidavit of the forger that he found underneath the ground what he had been careful to place there.—Very truly yours,

MORRIS JASTROW, JR.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, January 19, 1892.

WOMEN IN THE UNIVERSITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your Zürich correspondent has no doubt already informed you not only that women *may* become Privat-docenten at Zürich, but that, after due consideration of her trial lecture, the Faculty of that University has granted to Dr. Emilie Kempin the *venia legendi* for Roman, English, and American law. Another lady, a German, from Stuttgart, has recently taken her degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Zürich with so much distinction that there was no doubt of her rapidly passing on to a professorship. She decided, however, to modify her career by marrying a Zürich professor. The world moves so rapidly now in regard to the woman question that it is hard to keep pace with it. The sneer of the *Saturday Review*—"Who will be found to marry these learned women?"—sounds already as old-fashioned as a quotation from 'Evelina'; as this passage, for instance:

"'But I am a sad, weak creature; don't you think I am, my lord?'

"'O, by no means,' answered he; 'your ladyship is merely delicate; and devil take me if ever I had the least passion for an Amazon!'

"'I have the honor to be quite of your lordship's opinion,' said Mr. Lovel, 'for I have an insuperable aversion to strength, either of body or mind, in a female.'" X.

BOBBIN AND LATCH-STRING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The question raised by "W. H.W." in No. 1383 of the *Nation* with regard to "bobbin" and "latch-string" is an exceedingly interesting one, but information on the subject seems to be very hard to obtain. The lexicographical authorities within my reach have but one reference. Larousse and Littré quote the passage from Perrault, and the American and English dictionaries merely give a translation of this passage.

As to the mode of fastening the door in France by means of the *chevillette*, it can be shown to be 600 years old at least. Adenès le Roi, who lived and wrote in the latter part of the thirteenth century, uses *chevillette* as a door-fastener in one of his poems entitled "Cleomades." The hero, as he travels along, sees a magnificent castle, approaches and resolves to enter it. Then

"Les chevillettes si tourna
Que droit sour la tour aresta."

That is, he turned the pegs until he stopped right on the tower. That a method of fastening radically different from that of Perrault is here intended is evident from the two verbs *tourner* and *tirer*. And so in England and America we have used both these methods of fastening. Mary Howitt says in one of her poems:

"Our good old friend he tirled the pin,
He opened the door and entered in."

As for the latch-string, it is familiar to our rural denizens all over the country. One of the earliest recollections of my childhood is a leathern thong which hung outside our kitchen door, and which was always pulled in at night. Our negro "quarters" were also fastened in the same way; and this seems to have been the customary form of door-latch from a very early period of our history, as I remember to have read somewhere that some one of our colonial celebrities (possibly William Penn or Roger Williams) was in the habit of leaving his latch-string on the outside, both night and day, to show the Indians how completely he trusted them.

As regards the *turning* latch, we undoubtedly have its survival in our present door-knob. We now twirl the knob, and the latch springs back; but the direct descendant of the *chevillette* and *bobinette* was the lock in which, when the knob was turned, the latch was raised over the catch. This is still to be seen in some of our older houses.—Yours respectfully,

SAMUEL GARNER.

ANNAPOLIS, MD., January 20, 1892.

Notes.

MR. M. D. CONWAY'S 'Life of Thomas Paine' heads the list of forthcoming publications by the Messrs. Putnam. It will form two octavo volumes. Other announcements are the 'Writings of Thomas Jefferson,' edited by Paul Leicester Ford, in uniformity with the Hamilton, Franklin, Jay, and Washington; the 'Life of George Mason,' by Kate Mason Rowland; the fifth and concluding volume of Talleyrand's Memoirs; 'Primitive Man in Ohio,' by Warren K. Moorhead; a translation of the Marquis de Nadaillac's 'Customs and Monuments of Prehistoric Peoples'; the second of four volumes of Evelyn Abbott's 'History of Greece'; 'Outlines of Roman History,' by Prof. Henry F. Pelham of Oxford; 'Pagan Residuum in Christianity,' by Abram Herbert Lewis, D.D.; 'Walter Savage Landor,' a critical study, by Edward Waterman Evans, jr.; 'The Odes and Epodes of Horace,' translated into English verse beside the Latin text, by John B. Hague; 'The English Language and English Grammar,' by Samuel Ramsey; 'From Palm to Glacier,' travels in Brazil, Bermuda, and Alaska, by Mrs. Alice Wellington Rollins; 'Politics and Pen Pictures,' by the Hon. Henry W. Hilliard, of Georgia; and 'Three Hundred and Sixty-six Dinners,' by Mary E. Nicol.

D. Appleton & Co. are about to begin a Holland Fiction Series for the refreshment of jaded palates, the first number being 'Eline Vere,' by Louis Couperus, with an introduction by Edmund Gosse. They also announce 'Evolution in Science, Philosophy, and Art,' lectures before the Brooklyn Ethical Association by John Fiske and others; 'New Fragments,' scientific mostly, but with personal recollections of Carlyle, by Prof. Tyndall; 'The Horse: A Study in Natural History,' by Prof. W. H. Flower of the British Natural History Museum; and 'Moral Teachings of Science,' by Arabella B. Buckley.

Harper & Bros. will publish immediately 'Lyrics,' by the late Cora Fabbri; and 'The Marquis of Salisbury,' by H. D. Traill.

A translation of Prof. W. Windelhard's 'Geschichte der Philosophie' is in the press of Henry Holt & Co.

'Wagner as I Knew Him,' by the late Dr. Ferdinand Praeger, and a translation of the Abbé Fouard's 'St. Peter and the First Years of Christianity,' are nearly ready to be issued by the Messrs. Longman.

The Historical Printing Co., 97 Clark Street, Brooklyn, N. Y., is printing a limited edition of unpublished writings of men of the Revolution, under the title 'Fragments of Revolutionary History,' and editorship of Gaillard Hunt.

Sampson Low & Co., London, propose to publish by subscription a work on 'The History of Engraving in England,' edited by Louis Fagan of the British Museum, with 100 illustrations in photogravure.

The fifth volume of the new Cambridge Shakspere (Macmillan) contains "Henry VI.," "Richard III.," and "Henry VIII." In the preface, a new note discusses briefly the relation of the quarto and folio of "Richard III.," bringing the subject down to date and giving the authorities. We have already called attention, as each volume appeared, to the merits of this edition, and in particular to its adaptability for the library; but we cannot neglect any opportunity of repeating our commendation.

Mr. Oscar Browning contributes to the Dilettante Library two monographs on 'Dante' and 'Goethe' (Macmillan), being expansions of articles in the last edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' They do not aim at perfection beyond that natural to their original purpose, and are frankly biographical and bibliographical, without refinements of criticism or philosophy. They contain a sound and simple account of the lives and works of these authors, and indicate sufficiently well the typical place that each holds in culture and civilization. One seeking such an introduction cannot do better than consult these convenient handbooks.

Books in elucidation of Browning continue to fall from the press, and distinguished among the rest is a really excellent, if late-born, 'Primer' (Macmillan). The author, F. Mary Wilson, confines the introductory portion to a short sketch of Browning's life, and a somewhat longer one of his genius, more remarkable for frankness than for originality; the remainder, that is to say, four-fifths of the volume, is occupied with introductions to the separate poems, in which each is described and its relation to the philosophy of Browning, as understood by her, is set forth. The volume is the result of careful study, and unites with an admirable simplicity a very welcome freedom from obtrusive hero-worship.

An empty place among our anthologies is filled by 'Political Verse,' edited by George Saintsbury, in the Pocket Library (Macmillan). He begins with Skelton, but soon gets into the period of party government and makes the body of his volume out of the last two centuries. On the list we find Rochester, "The State Poems," Defoe, Prior, Glover, Churchill, the 'Rolliad,' Peter Pindar, the 'Anti-Jacobin,' Scott, Canning, Byron, and a great deal from Moore and Praed, besides extracts from Ebenezer Elliott, Mackay, Mansel, and more particularly Mr. H. D. Traill, for whose inclusion, in a work otherwise confined to writers not living, there is no excuse but friendship. The volume is curious rather than interesting, and is chiefly valuable for a few odds and ends, not easily come by, being usually confined to the library of the special literary student.

The series of attractive classics, beautifully printed and admirable in every point of the book-maker's art, now issuing as the Temple Library, adds to its previous volumes Goldsmith's 'Citizen of the World,' under the competent editorship of Austin Dobson (London:

J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan). Mr. Railton furnishes some small, pretty etchings, which distinctly add to the charm of the two volumes. Mr. Dobson finds the original suggestion of Goldsmith's work in a squib by Horace Walpole upon Admiral Byng's trial, and his theory in respect to the matter is certainly plausible. As to the body of the work, the editor emphasizes its principal interest as Goldsmith's commentary upon London, of which he was a good observer, and points out what it contains of the germs of Goldsmith's later works, particularly in the delineation of humorous characters forecasting the 'Vicar' and the comedies; he calls attention also to some passages which Goldsmith worked over and reproduced afterwards. It is to be hoped that this edition of a neglected work may serve to bring it forward as from the same hand, if not of the same rank, as more finished productions, and worthy of a more familiar place on the shelves of literary students than it has lately held.

Out of two series of Sunday lectures delivered at South Place Institute, London, during the past three years, has been made the volume 'Religious Systems of the World,' which comes to us in a second, revised and enlarged, edition from Macmillan. Brief sketches or expositions are given in Part I. of twenty-seven "Pre-Christian and non-Christian" religions—counting "The Religions of Ancient America" as one. Then comes like treatment of thirty-two "Christian, theistic, and philosophic" systems, including "The Religion of Dante," "Mysticism," "The Evolution Theory," "Secularism," etc. In Part I. the writers are nearly all recognized authorities in their several subjects, and their method is objective and critical; in the second part an advocate expounds each system, with sympathy as the resultant note too often, rather than impartiality. The book is necessarily fragmentary; but the collection and juxtaposition are curious, and the whole may be fairly said to merit the sub-title, "A Contribution to the Study of Comparative Religion."

'Argentina and the Argentines,' by Thomas A. Turner (Scribners), professes to be only "notes and impressions of a five years' sojourn in the Argentine Republic," yet it is a thoroughly readable and distinctly veracious and illuminating book. Without any comprehensive plan, the successive chapters give a good insight into the social, and particularly the political, life of Argentina, while the pages devoted to the period of mad financial legislation and insane speculation throw a great amount of light upon a catastrophe of which some competent hand ought to write the entire history. Occasionally one hears the genuine English snort of contempt for things not liked or understood; but, after all, this is only part of the author's personality which, on the whole, lends interest and pleasure to what he writes.

Under the title of 'A Conversation on Music,' we have received from C. F. Tretbar, Steinway Hall, an English version of Rubinstein's new book, reviewed in this journal two weeks ago. The translation, by Mrs. J. P. Morgan, can hardly be termed elegant or idiomatic, but it will give those who cannot read German or Russian a chance to study the "paradoxical opinions" of Rubinstein, as he himself calls them.

A volume on the 'Historic Storms of New England,' by Sidney Perley, comes from the Salem (Mass.) Press. It is a diligent compilation of accounts of violent gales and distressing wrecks, of floods, snows, and tornadoes, with liberal additions on yellow and dark days, comets and earthquakes. The book is distinctly historical, not meteorological, the greater part being narrative of the effects produced by the storms. The omission of all indication of the sources of information lessens the value of the work as a guide for further study. Although no quotation marks are used, the descriptions appear to be but little changed from ancient and modern records. The terminology adopted is not uniform, as hurricane, whirlwind, cyclone, and tornado are all applied to storms properly designated by the last of these names.

By order of the Grand Duke of Baden, all the universities of that principality have just been opened to women in the departments of science and mathematics. Women were already admitted as students in all departments at Freiburg and at the Polytechnical School at Karlsruhe, and hence the new order has to take effect on Heidelberg alone, but this, of course, is of very great importance. The Swiss universities have long been open to women; at Leipzig, women have for some time studied by the side of men exactly as if that had been the order of nature from the beginning of the world; Heidelberg, Berlin (and probably Göttingen, too) have succumbed this year; Oxford and Cambridge are victories of an older date. In face of this Old World progress, one may read in the last Harvard University Bulletin, from the records of the Corporation, acknowledgments (three times) to Mrs. Henry Draper for $833 given towards the expenses of the Observatory, and to Miss Catherine W. Bruce for $500 towards astronomical publications, and the following entry: "The petition of Miss Marion Hamilton Carter, that she be allowed to take the graduate course in psychology with Prof. James this year, was considered, and the Secretary was directed to say to Miss Carter that such a request cannot now be granted by the University."

The high marks scored by women in the recent Honors Examinations held at London University indicate the quality of intellectual work being done by English college women. Of the six B.A.'s who won a "first class" in classics, five were women; of the four rated "first class" in French and in German, three were women, the "inferior" sex also contributing four out of five post-graduate students bracketed as "first class" in the Art, Theory, and History of Teaching.

There still exists, notoriously, a very widespread inequality between the salaries of men and women holding identical posts in our public schools. A special committee appointed more than a year ago in Baltimore to consider the regrading and equitable adjustment of the salaries of public-school teachers, has just made its report, and the most significant item in the proposed new schedule of pay is the equality in the salaries of male and female assistants in all grammar schools.

Oberlin College has resolved to follow the fashion of Library Bulletins. Its first number, for the current month, is a "Popular Bibliography of Sociology," by John R. Commons, Associate Professor of Political Economy. It can be had free on application to A. S. Root, Librarian. Prof. Commons has aimed to "furnish the general reader, especially the Christian minister and worker, a list of the best available books on important Sociological problems." Each title is annotated.

We have already mentioned part of the contents of the January Bulletin of the Boston Public Library. It remains to call attention to the first instalment of a third and enlarged edition of this Library's important 'Chronological Index to Historical Fiction,' including prose fiction, plays, and poems. The list embraces titles of works not owned by the Library, and these it wishes to procure. It appears that an extensive demand exists for the new edition, which is in charge of Mr. James L. Whitney, as its predecessors were of Mr. Justin Winsor.

Prof. William Morris Davis, of Harvard, issues from the "Geographical Laboratory, Department of Geology," at Cambridge, Mass., a circular of great interest both to professional and to amateur photographers. In brief, he offers to examine, with a view to buying, landscape views as particularized, and indicates how to cater to his wants. The prints should not be smaller than 5x8 inches. Cost of transportation is liberally provided for. Gifts, of course, will be welcomed. The circular will be sent to anybody, and ought to prove a great stimulus to scientific photography from nature, the aim being to accumulate material for the broadest illustration of the physical geography and geology of the United States.

It is a pleasure to greet the Bulletin of the State Library of New York for January, containing the second comparative summary and index of State legislation all over the Union (for 1891). This remarkable contribution to coherent, scientific law-making was conceived by the "ingenious" Mr. Melvil Dewey, as our forefathers would have dubbed him, and has been executed by his assistant, Mr. W. B. Shaw. The Albany lawmakers, having access to the MS. card catalogue from which this Bulletin is finally printed, have a temporary advantage which ought to be apparent in their work.

The *Revue Bleue* of December 26—the last number of the year—published as usual its table of contents and of writers of the last semester, and thus gave occasion to speak of the wide and varied excellence of both. Readers of the review feel this more or less consciously from week to week, but a backward look over a six months' space brings it out in a way that is most striking. One might go very far before finding better criticism than here appears in the work of MM. Henry Bérenger and Édouard Rod; or more solid and weighty political and historical articles than those of M. Alfred Rambaud; or pleasanter sketches of travel than M. Maurice Bouchor's; or more abounding wit and fun than one gets from M. Alfred Capus and M. Ferdinand Vandérem. Yet these are only half-a-dozen of the hundred names before us, and not by any means the names that are most widely known.

—The city of Boston has in preparation a series of biographies of deceased members of its City Council, a task for which its Record Commissioners stood ready constituted. The plates have been finished for a chronological list of all the members, showing their entry into and term of service in either branch, and these have just been used as the first 116 pages of a 'List of Members of the City Councils of Boston, Roxbury, and Charlestown, 1822-1890,' issued at the close of last year. The second part consists of the officers of government displayed for each year. Indexes furnish a clue to the several divisions, and the dead are starred. The bulk of this great labor has fallen on Mr. W. H. Whitmore, Chairman of the Commission. So far as Boston proper is concerned, the lists are, to the initiated, eloquent as mere names; but, also, any one may study the fixity of tenure, the rise by promotion, the changes in the nationality of the population. Beginning in 1822 with the father of Wendell Phillips, Boston has had 29 Mayors, of whom several have been members of Congress and

Governors of Massachusetts. Harrison Gray Otis took office at the age of 64, and held it for three years; Jonathan Chapman at 33, the present Mayor at 37, his predecessor at 60; but the average has been 50. Josiah Quincy had six annual terms, but no other Mayor has had more than four, and ten have had but one; only three have been reëlected after an interval. Only six were born out of the State, and five of these were New Englanders; the sixth was a native of Ireland brought young to Boston and educated in her common schools. It was not till 1868 that a "dyed-in-the-wool" Democrat was elected Mayor. Three chairmen of the Board of Aldermen, as many presidents of the Common Council, were advanced to the mayoralty. In 1837, under Mayor Eliot, occurred the famous Broad Street riot between the firemen and the despised Irish population; nine years later the Irish famine increased enormously the emigration, but not till 1859 does a distinctively Irish name appear in the list of the Common Council, where four, and perhaps five, make their début at once—Doherty, Mooney, McCarthy, Riley, and(?) Kelly. Hugh O'Brien, the future Mayor (1885-1888), became an Alderman in 1875—the first, we guess, of his race, unless his colleague, James Power, who reached the Board in 1873, deserves the distinction. In 1890 we reckon in the city government three Irish Aldermen, and at least fifteen Irish Councilmen (out of 74), besides a Rosnosky, a Ratshesky, a Von L. Meyer, side by side with old Boston names like Lowell, Sprague, Parker, Brooks, Bryant, Talbot, Park—to mention no others. Through all these years there have been but six city clerks, a father and son having held the office for sixty consecutive years (1822-1852, 1852-1882).

—A new edition of Gray's poems might seem an impertinence, but Dr. Bradshaw's Aldine edition, 'The Poetical Works of Thomas Gray, English and Latin, edited with an Introduction, Life, Notes, and a Bibliography' (London: Geo. Bell & Sons), claims greater accuracy in the text and fulness in the contents than any previous issue, and the claim is well supported. The corruption of Gray's text is well known, and his poems are misprinted, both in his own works and in all anthologies; for example, not less than six errors in the "Elegy" alone are noted by the present editor as appearing in some one or other of such careful collections as Ward's 'English Poets' and Palgrave's 'Golden Treasury.' It was to be presumed, however, that Mr. Gosse's late edition would be final; on the contrary, the present editor says that in it "the text of the poems is far from accurate"; and also, while paying the compliment to Mr. Gosse of calling his biography "the most complete yet published," he states that "it contains many inaccuracies." Those who recall our review of the Rev. E. C. Tovey's interesting and valuable volume, 'Gray and His Friends,' will be prepared for some increase in the volume of the text. Dr. Bradshaw has made use of these additions, and it is fairly to be said that, in the present work, we have for the first time all of Gray's verse in an exact text. He tells us, however, that "a great deal of Gray's work still remains unedited," despite the preface to Mr. Gosse's edition. It consists of notes and essays in Gray's commonplace books at Pembroke College, and something also exists in manuscripts in the British Museum, where with the rest are some verses said by Cole to be by Gray. These verses, which were discovered too late to be included among the doubtful poems, will be found in Dr. Bradshaw's introduction, but all the other matter remains unpublished. The editor's notes are very full, and are especially interesting from the number of parallel passages quoted, and various readings, mostly from the original manuscripts. It is not necessary to add that, for the student, this edition must supersede all others.

—In the *Revue Historique* for January-February, Jules Flammermont renews the discussion of the authenticity of Talleyrand's memoirs. His especial object is to demolish the theory that the memoirs, in regular form, never existed, the supposed memoirs consisting, previous to the preparation of Bacourt's "copy," only of a mass of MS. in the shape of loose sheets written at odd times, during a long course of years, as the impulse to write seized their distinguished author. Against this view, the *Revue* writer cites Vitrolles, who says that Talleyrand read him long extracts, sixty or eighty pages at a time, from "large blank-books." This was in 1814, and Talleyrand's object in preparing and privately publishing the memoirs was to persuade the royal family that he had always been a friend of their cause. He hoped to use Vitrolles as a vehicle of communication. Now, the Duc de Broglie says he never received anything except Bacourt's copy, and that the present family representatives of Talleyrand never had any MSS. This being the case, what became of the "large blank-books"? They were destroyed, M. Flammermont thinks, in order that the interpolations and suppressions which Bacourt made at the request of the Duchess of Dino might not be discovered. We have not mentioned all the evidence, but Vitrolles's testimony is the most important.

—In the Paris *Chronique des Arts* of December 26, 1891, M. Adolphe Guillon, correspondent in Paris of the English Society for the Protection of Ancient Buildings, is of the opinion that a communication from "T. B." in the *Nation* of November 19 does injustice to Mr. Ruskin. "Il proteste," says M. Guillon, "contre la doctrine de M. Ruskin, qui voudrait qu'on ne touchât jamais à un ancien monument." Thereupon, though heartily approving most of what our correspondent says, he maintains that Mr. Ruskin does *not* ask to suffer old buildings to fall down without touching them, but merely that they shall not be completely made over under the pretext of restoring them. To show that this is the extent of Mr. Ruskin's demand, he quotes several sentences from "une note intitulée: 'Restauration ou Destruction.'" M. Guillon seems to us to misapprehend both our correspondent and Mr. Ruskin. We do not understand the former to allow uncontrolled license to such "restoration" as means destruction and reconstruction, but to vindicate the replacement of a ruined stone which has lost its artistic value and its structural utility, by another which shall check dilapidation and shall at the same time, so far as archæology and art permit, serve the æsthetic purposes of the former—and this, if need be, on the large scale. We find, however, the passages quoted from "a note" of Mr. Ruskin—in which, no doubt, he urges conservation of whatever there is to conserve—to be merely extracts from paragraph xix. of the "Lamp of Memory" in the 'Seven Lamps.' But the same paragraph contains these much-quoted sentences:

"Do not let us talk, then, of restoration. The thing is a Lie from beginning to end. You may make a model of a building as you may of a corpse, and your model may have the shell of the old walls within it, as your cast might have the skeleton, with what advantage I neither see nor care; but the old building is destroyed, and that more totally and mercilessly than if it had sunk into a heap of dust or melted into a mass of clay. . . . But, it is said, there may come a necessity for restoration! Granted. Look the necessity full in the face, and understand it on its own terms. It is a necessity for destruction. Accept it as such, pull the building down, throw its stones into neglected corners, make ballast of them, or mortar, if you will; but do it honestly, and do not set up a Lie in their place."

So when he allows us only to "bind it together with iron," or to "stay it with timber," we can hardly be blamed, notwithstanding his explosive manner of speech, for taking him at his word.

—Some years ago Dr. Gustav Wustmann, librarian of the city of Leipzig, delighted the lovers of literature by publishing, under the singular title 'Als der Grossvater die Grossmutter nahm,' an equally singular book: a collection of old-fashioned songs, nursery rhymes, ballads, librettos, tales, which formed the stock of popular quotations in the Germany of two or three generations ago. Just now he has come forward again, and again (as was to be expected) in the part of *laudator temporis acti*. In a little volume, entitled 'Allerhand Sprachdummheiten' (Leipzig: Grunow), he vents his wrath and indignation on what he calls the maltreatment and desecration of the German language by contemporary writers. He thinks that the German language never was in more imminent danger of complete degeneracy than now; that it is flooded with provincialisms, permeated with official absurdities, encumbered with foreign monstrosities; and that, if the present tendency is allowed to go on unchecked, the classic language of the great eighteenth-century writers will soon sound like a foreign tongue to German ears. The degree of exasperation felt by the writer may be imagined from the following astounding proposition: "Take at random from the shop-window of a bookseller a new book written in German prose, no matter on what subject, no matter by whom composed—a professor, a teacher, an official, an architect, a musician, a manufacturer, a 'leading' author, a bluestocking; open it where you will, and put your finger on any part of the page—within a circle of five centimetres diameter around the point of your finger you will find at least one gross grammatical blunder. That is what we have come to." One may be disposed to doubt the wisdom of such exaggerated statements as these, one may be inclined to see in a large part of what Dr. Wustmann calls symptoms of linguistic decay nothing but a natural growth; but there is at least one point in which he will meet the approval of all thinking men, not only in Germany but everywhere, because it touches a question of international importance: the baneful influence of newspaper language upon the common speech.

—One of the most amusing instances of the effects of slipshod newspaper style given by Dr. Wustmann is the change which the verb *bedingen* has undergone during the last forty years. Grimm's Dictionary (1854) gives the following definitions: *aushalten* (*vorbehalten*), *bestimmen*, *ausnehmen*. Sanders (1860) adds to these: *beschränken*, *von etwas abhängig machen*, *erfordern*. At present it is approved fashion to say: "It is a fact that certain emotions *bedingen* (bring about) stammering," "This corset *bedingt* (insures) a well fitting dress," "With Lessing, critical insight *bedingte* (influenced) his poetical production," "The tension of Laocoon's mus-

cles *wird bedingt* (is explained) by bodily suffering," "The growth of Berlin *wurde bedingt* (was made possible) through political events." In short, as Dr. Wustmann says, whenever a writer entertains a dim suspicion that two things have some connection with each other, without being able or inclined to define to himself or others the nature of this connection, he says: This thing *bedingt* that thing. In what order the two things are mentioned—whether he says, Power *bedingt* heat, or Heat *bedingt* power—is a matter of absolute indifference to him. We hope Dr. Wustmann's little book will find many and careful readers. It cannot fail to further linguistic tact and literary refinement even in those who have no immediate interest in the subject with which it deals.

SCHOULER'S UNITED STATES UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

History of the United States of America under the Constitution. By James Schouler. Vol. V. (1847–1861). Dodd, Mead & Co. 1891.

In this volume, the fifth and concluding volume in his projected series, Mr. Schouler covers that stirring period in the political history of the country which extends from May, 1846, under the Administration of President Polk, to March, 1861, under the Administration of President Buchanan. The author claims, and justly claims, to have been the first who has traced out, with "historical painstaking," and with "consecutive research," the nexus of the events that fall under the first era of our national existence, and to have thus bridged over the long intervening chasm which stretches from the Revolution to the Civil War. It is a task which has called for breadth of view, for lucidity of treatment, and for condensation of style. Even those who may find themselves constrained, at many points, to dissent from Mr. Schouler's political prepossessions and from the color which they give to his narrative, will none the less be frank to admit that he has brought to his *magnum opus* a commendable industry in the compilation of his materials, a rare talent for consecutive exposition, a large share of that "ignited logic" which is skilled to fuse the most intractable materials into literary form, and a vivacity of phrase which is never dull because it sometimes errs on the side of excessive piquancy.

In the present volume he is called, like Pollio in the verse of Horace, to walk over the embers of civic feuds that still glow beneath the ashes under which they are covered from sight; and it is hardly to be expected that any historian, however circumspect and wary, should be able to pick his way among these scoriæ of the volcanic period in our politics, without dashing his foot ever and anon against some of the live coals which still hold their wonted fires. And Mr. Schouler takes no pains to conceal the fact that the same set of ideas which seemed pleasing to him in the fluid forms of a once current politics, do but seem still more pleasing to him now that those fluid forms have hardened into the rigid outlines of our *ante-bellum* history. If "history," in the familiar phrase of Freeman, "is past politics, and politics present history," it should not surprise us that the same projections of honest thought are found habitually to reappear in each.

Mr. Schouler makes it abundantly clear that in the great leading differentiations of political opinion among the people of the United States before our civil war, there is one party, and only one, which deserves his approbation as an historian. It is that party which, at any given juncture, adhered tenaciously to the Constitution and its compromises, but sought, as far as practicable, with an opportunism born of the moment, to conciliate submission to law with the aspirations of humanity. Even when the organic law was at variance with the moral order of the world, he seems to think it was entitled to political respect, in the faith or hope that the ameliorations wrought in public opinion by the incidental discussion of this variance would eventually lend a stimulus towards changing the law, so far as it was in conflict with "Divine injunction." With this working hypothesis he finds it easy to demonstrate that the "Conscience Whigs" and the Republicans must be held to have rightly divided the word of truth and found the way of wisdom in each new emergency of our politics from 1846 to 1861, while the Democrats, the "Cotton Whigs," and the Garrisonian Abolitionists, for reasons peculiar to each, were evil continually.

Mr. Schouler sees very clearly that the way of the political compromisers was always hard under the difficulties imposed on them by the presence and antagonism of two distinct social and economic systems in our civil polity. He sees, too, very clearly that the attempt to erect, on the unstable equilibrium created by these conflicting systems, any sentiment and standard of constitutionalism which should be above and beyond the sentiments and standards based on the moral law, was foredoomed to failure. In the case, therefore, of the Democrats and of the "Cotton Whigs," he is able to discern in every instance that their sense of "constitutionalism" was to them a potent source of illusion; and that even when they supposed themselves to be yielding to the most exigent considerations of patriotic duty, they were only blinding their eyes to the eternal verities. With all his admiration for Henry Clay, Mr. Schouler cannot forbear to remark that "this wonderful old shepherd of the people" was too much given to schemes for "log-rolling the moralities," and that, in pursuing a devious way "along the narrow path of national conciliation," he was liable to stumble into the snares and pitfalls set by politicians of the baser sort, who were bent on political gain where he was bent on the public weal. But while Mr. Schouler is severe on Clay and Webster for "log-rolling the moralities," and for having a "slippery grasp of moral differences," he is also severe on the impracticable virtue of the Garrisonian Abolitionists, because they would not "log-roll the moralities" at all, and because, in standing "upon the high platform of moral assertion," they stood too much aloof from the sphere of concrete politics. When Garrison refused with scorn to take part with slaveholders in a Boston course of lectures on slavery, it seems to Mr. Schouler that he acted "as one who kept truth clear of the contamination of free discussion." Between the parties which were too ready to make compromises, and the Garrisonian Abolitionists who would not compromise at all, Mr. Schouler finds, as we have already hinted, that the *via media* was chosen by the "Conscience Whigs," and by the Republican party after the latter had organized itself for the exclusive purpose of preventing the spread of slavery over the free territory of the Union.

Compromise, in matters outside of morals, is of the very essence of politics. "Republics," says the author, "incline to temporize with problems which are found difficult to manage, and temporizing is the essence of all government which is carried on by popular assemblies." The slavery question, because it was a complex of moral and political forces, became the permanent seed-plot of ever-germinant and springing compromises in our civil annals. The problems grew so difficult and so numerous that the people were fatigued by them into the acceptance of any make-shift solution for the pressing emergency. After the compromises of 1850, hollow as was the truce they effected, "the country grew sick of the slavery question," says Mr. Schouler, "and wished agitators at the devil. Good men, North and South, made the Constitution their fetish more than ever, and, like a prudent husband who is yoked with an irritable spouse, they forced themselves to love for the sake of quiet." With the advent of Pierce, and even at a later date with the advent of Buchanan to the Presidency, the great mass of the people, says Mr. Schouler, grew speedily responsive to every prospect of peace, because they "wearied of this moral agitation, and wished to change the subject."

In so writing, Mr. Schouler might have found a natural reason for the existence of the compromisers whom he condemns. It might be supposed, too, that where a false constitutionalism was perpetually crying peace when there was no peace, he would have found some use for the austere prophets and restless agitators who, in season and out of season, set their faces like flint against all compromises outside of the moral law. But he has a more optimistic view than this. He prefers to believe that the very compromises of the Constitution which, in the matter of slavery, were perpetually generating a *false* constitutionalism that wrought to the confusion of Democrats and "Cotton Whigs," served in the end to generate a *true* constitutionalism, which, in the hands of the Republican party, became the very *vis medicatrix* of the nation. This *vis medicatrix*, when used as a salve to mollify the *vulnus immedicabile* of the Republic, had worked like poison; but when used, in the natural selection of events, as a single specific against the extension of slavery, it wrought more potently and more efficaciously, Mr. Schouler thinks, than any affiliation with what he calls "the mischievous agitators who preached down the Union and its restraints." Mr. Schouler is quick to perceive and denounce the constitutionalism of those who undertook to serve two masters under the Fugitive-Slave Law of 1850—that is, to serve the State, which passed "Liberty bills," and the Government of the United States, which passed a bill for the speediest possible recapture of runaway slaves. "Massachusetts," he says, "would not tolerate the idea that any one holding an office of honor or emolument under her should earn the blood-money of slave-hunters." Yet he records it as a homage justly due to the constitutionalism of the Northern opponents of slavery-extension that "they never meant to meddle or interfere with slavery in its local domains." Mr. Lincoln, we know, accepted this constitutionalism in all its length and breadth; and, while professing, in his debates with Douglas, that he had "no taste for catching niggers," he yet said that he yielded his support to *a* fugitive-slave law "because he did not understand that the Constitution which guaranteed that right could be supported without it." This was constitutionalism pure and simple.

It is easy enough to see how the "Cotton Whigs" could justify themselves in supporting the compromises of the Constitution, even when some of its engagements seemed to impinge on the moral law, for they had a "slippery grasp," so Mr. Schouler holds, on moral

differences; but it would have been interesting if he had explained how it was that the "Conscience Whigs" could justify themselves in making concessions to slavery, on the simple ground that slavery was entrenched behind the muniments of the Constitution. In so doing they joined hands with "Cotton Whigs" in making the Constitution "a fetish," as Mr. Schouler phrases it. This was the point of view which used to trouble Garrison when he was called to interpret the attitude even of "Conscience Whigs" in the light of the "moralities," and we regret to say that this is a point of view which Mr. Schouler leaves out of sight, while strict to mark the iniquity of the men who had *no* conscience in the service of slavery. He even complains that Calhoun was bitterly unjust to the North on this point. The complaint against Garrison is that, taking the people of the North at their word, and seeing no prospect of putting an end to slavery behind the defences of the Constitution, where "Conscience Whigs" joined hands with "Cotton Whigs" in protecting it, he felt constrained to uphold the "moralities" with what Mr. Schouler calls "his customary Catonian utterance, 'The Union must be destroyed.'"

Without coming to any clarification of ideas under this head, where a clarification was greatly to be desiderated, the author inclines to believe that it was the Mexican war, with its exposure of a Southern ambition to preponderate in the Union, which gave to the moral agitation against slavery a greater force than any inspired by Garrison. What seemed to Garrison a defect in the Republican attitude, because it shuffled moral forces out of sight as against slavery in the States and under the Constitution, or at least masked those forces behind a simply defensive tactics against the extension of slavery, seems to Mr. Schouler a piece of good fortune for the country, however equivocal it may have been in strict ethics. For while this obscurer process of quasi-moral and quasi-political agitation was working in the medley and muddle of public opinion, the Union, he says, was unconsciously nearing the great crisis of our civil war, which was destined to "melt up infallibly all national prepossessions on the subject of domestic systems of labor, and remit the [then] existing era to the irrevocable past." It was at this point that the intense constitutionalism in which the country had been educated was turned into a coigne of vantage and tower of strength for the preservation of the Union. The idea is not novel, but Mr. Schouler gives it a forcible expression in the following words: "So admirable had been the general training and influence of our solid institutions, so deeply loyal and affectionate to the cause of national unity had become the great mass of our American people, that an unseen force bore the Constitution and the vast confederacy bravely and buoyantly through a strife which demolished violently the whole false fabric of race oppression that fifteen States had constructed society upon."

In pointing the moral of his long and interesting story, Mr. Schouler reminds his readers that the rebellion which came in 1861 to try the strength of the Union "had been ripening ever since slavery became a growing force in our Union, partaking of the national spirit of expansion." The collision which compromises had but temporarily postponed was, he sees, "sooner or later inevitable," but he thinks there was an opportunism in the date at which the crisis came, and in the mixed modes under which it emerged. It came when the force of compromise could go no further, and it came in a shape which gave to the "moral agitators their share in the glory of results."

It is not until the reader clearly apprehends the point of view taken by the historian, in so completely subordinating the moral aspects of the anti-slavery agitation to the political, that he can understand why it is that Mr. Schouler practises a good degree of lenity towards compromises when they were made by President Taylor, and looks with allowance on prudent *ménagements* when they emanated from Seward and Lincoln. He denounces the Whigs of the Old School as "trimmers from instinct," who "placed prudent limitations to the contest they waged against slave extension and inhumanity"; but he applauds President Taylor for the prudence with which that chieftain headed off the Wilmot Proviso. The friends of Taylor avowed at the time that his whole policy for the admission of California into the Union, without waiting for an enabling act to be passed by Congress, was in its essence, as Crittenden phrased it, the sum and the substance as well as the foundation of all the other trimming policies devised at that juncture; because, in common with them all, it sought to *avoid* the Wilmot Proviso. Yet this policy commands the approval of Mr. Schouler. The "defection" of Webster, in his "7th of March speech," is roundly scored in the volume before us, but what seemed to many the "defection" of Seward, in *his* "compromise speech" of January 12, 1861, on the eve of the Rebellion, seems to Mr. Schouler an eloquent plea made in the cause of "kindness and conciliation." Yet Mr. Seward confessed in that speech that he was far from having suggested in it "what would have been in harmony with cherished convictions of his own." That is, he was willing to compromise.

It is to be regretted that in giving expression to his contrasted judgments on the men and measures here passed in review, the author should have sometimes indulged in an objurgatory tone which transcends the judicial summing up of candid and impartial history, however germane it may be to the dialect of contemporary politics, in journals of a certain sort. The cause of truth does not gain by embalming in Mr. Schouler's historical amber the gad-flies of an obsolete political vituperation. In the case of a public functionary who has so many other sins to answer for, it seems hardly necessary that the finger of scorn should be three times pointed at Franklin Pierce in this narrative as the hero who fainted on the battle-field of Churubusco, when nothing was proved by that historical syncope save that he was over-forward in rising from a sick-bed at the call of military duty. We are far from sharing in the admiration awarded to Lewis Cass by his latest biographer, but Mr. Schouler exceeds, we submit, the limits of dignified criticism when, after putting that worthy in a pillory as the man who "truckled contemptibly to slaveholders," who "trained among Northern doughfaces," who was "always ready to turn a popular penny with the South," and who, "not content to lick the dust," sometimes "rolled over and over in it," to do obeisance to the Slave Power, he continues to pelt his hapless quarry with the epithets of "doughty," "blinking," "tremulous," "somnolent," etc., etc. Such acrimony of style defeats the ends of just condemnation.

The proof-reading of the volume leaves room for correction. "Soubriquet" does duty for *sobriquet*, and "pronunciamento" for *pronunciamiento*. "Paixham guns" is written instead of Paixhan guns. Gen. Cadwalader is treated to a superfluous "l" in his name. Nicholas P. Trist, Polk's roving diplomatist, is once styled Nicholas B. Trist. William B. Preston of Virginia, President Taylor's Secretary of the Navy, is assigned to South Carolina. Humphrey Marshall of Kentucky is classified in 1855 as a "Democrat and Know-nothing." We believe that at that time he was an "Old Line Whig" and Knownothing. It was not until a later date that he was graduated as a "Breckinridge Democrat." The reference to "Schmucker's Chase" should of course be to Schuckers's 'Chase,' etc., etc.

On the Border with Crook. By Capt. John G. Bourke, Third Cavalry, U. S. A. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

THIS handsomely illustrated volume of 491 pages is devoted to a purpose which does Capt. Bourke great credit. An ardent admirer of the late Gen. Crook, under whose orders he served in the Southwest, he has in these pages reared to the memory of that distinguished soldier (equally distinguished by his private character) a monument of respect and of gratitude which could neither be better deserved nor more ably framed. Capt. Bourke accompanied Crook through most of that general's career in the West, and his statements acquire the greater value since in most instances he speaks as an eye-witness of the events which he relates. Many of these events are depicted with a vividity and freshness quite in accordance with the author's former publications. He takes us from New Mexico to Arizona, thence to the Platte. From the Apaches and Moquis we are led among the Sioux and the Shoshones; finally to the Apaches again in Sonora and Chihuahua, on Crook's remarkable "armed peace-mission" into the Sierra Madre. Along with all this we find numberless personal reminiscences, with kindly mention of men who have served well in the army or who have otherwise made themselves prominent. We also find descriptions of local scenes and customs, and especially much in relation to the Indian tribes among which Gen. Crook had to command, to watch, and to fight—an armed peace-maker, and, at the same time, from the impulses of his generous and humane nature, an educator for the savage. It cannot be denied that the "Indian policy" pursued by Crook was one of the most beneficial ever adopted in this country towards the aborigines, and it is only to be regretted that he was not always allowed to carry it out for a sufficient length of time. Capt. Bourke, very naturally, also tries to relieve the regular army of many a reproach brought against it by outsiders, and especially by such as have never found themselves in the trying positions in which our soldiers (and chiefly the officers) are often placed. He is usually successful, but his zeal in that direction also leads him gravely astray.

The marked defect of his book is the same which appears so glaringly in the 'Apache Campaign' published by him a few years ago. In his desire to be the champion of the Army of the United States, he becomes too much of a champion of the Apache. There is an honorable feeling at the bottom of this extreme—the feeling of respect towards a foe who has defended well, or at least tenaciously, his range, and who has at last been subdued. But generosity should not entail injustice to others. The Apaches are not, and have not been, innocent sufferers, except in a few instances, and it is unjust, unhistorical, and untrue to place the blame for the devastations committed by the Apaches on the Spanish régime. If Capt. Bourke would study the Spanish history of the

Southwest thoroughly, and not merely consult an occasional source at random for the sake of "points," he would understand the insuperable difficulties of living at peace with that tribe, under which the Spaniards labored from the very beginning of their colonizing efforts. He also misconceives the nature of the Apache, his true tribal relations.

The Apache was only a detached fragment of the southwestern Tinneh stock; his bands only outlying hordes, more or less original outcasts, of their mother-tribe, the Navajos, with whom they nearly always were at war. Their entire subsistence was derived from plunder, murder, and rapine, and that before the Spanish entered the North American Southwest. After the first colony had been planted upon New Mexican soil, the Apaches showed an inclination to live at peace with the whites, but on one condition, namely, that they should be free to prey upon the Pueblo Indians, as had been their custom from time immemorial. This the Spaniards could not consent to; and hence the constant warfare which has desolated the Southwest until the United States, with ample power and ample means at their disposal, succeeded in subduing the unruly savage. There is not the slightest doubt that during the nearly three centuries of warfare between the Spaniards and the Apaches, the former committed many wrongs; but then, exasperation may be pleaded as well for the Spaniard as for the settlers of any part of English America.

Captain Bourke is careful not to touch upon pages of the modern history of Arizona and New Mexico which find a worthy place by the side of his quotations regarding Spanish cruelties. His version of the Arivaypa massacre omits a very essential point. It is true that women and children were the majority of sufferers, but it should also be stated that the Papagos had been cruelly worried for a long time previous by the Apaches, and that they were anxious to take some terrible revenge. That revenge accidentally fell upon non-combatants, but only accidentally, and not intentionally. Captain Bourke is careful, again, in his book not to mention such occurrences as the "Pinole treaties," the killing of Mangas Coloradas, and the attempt to seize Chis (Cachise) undertaken by an officer of the United States Army. He lays all the blame of Apache hostilities upon the Spaniards. Only ignorance of well-established historical facts can excuse this injustice on his part.

We have now indicated the weak side of Capt. Bourke's otherwise very interesting and, for contemporaneous history, valuable book. The weak points cover but a few pages, comparatively speaking. The remainder is, as already stated, an interesting sketch of the life of a good man, written by one who was associated with his labors for some time and often under very trying circumstances. For a knowledge of life in the Southwest, too, the book is a valuable contribution.

Jerusalem, the Holy City; Its History and Hope. By Mrs. Oliphant. With wood-engravings from drawings by Hamilton Aidé and photographs by F. M. Good. Macmillan & Co. 1891.

Mrs. Oliphant has often before now abused the confidence of a generous public, but she has never heretofore done anything so unworthy of herself as is her latest book. For the critical study of the Bible and for its results, she has an unqualified contempt, and has not allowed them to affect her rhetorical improvisation in the least degree. "I have no claim," she says, "to set myself forth as one who has any authority in these matters, but I may say on my own part, what every individual has a right to say, that to transfer my faith and confidence from the writers of the Old Testament to the Herrn Wellhausen, Kuenen, etc., would seem to me the wildest insanity. Moses and Samuel I know, but who are these?" It is not to be expected that a lady who enjoys a personal acquaintance with Moses and Samuel should care much for modern scholars; but if there is any further excuse for her ill opinion of these, it is that it is based, apparently, upon an almost exclusive acquaintance, however moderate, with Renan. What she says of his spiritual incapacity is true, but she has no right to impute it to the whole company of scholars. The most presumptuous of them does not presume so much as she in her assertion that in the Old Testament stories we have "the unvarnished record" of the lives of Abraham and David and other heroes of antiquity. Such catering to ignorance and prejudice is very pitiful in a woman who need not strain beyond her sphere to win an honorable fame.

The erudite are warned away: "Let them not lose ten tickings of their watch on this unprofitable writing." But the unlearned people could go further and fare better. This hasty paraphrase is of the "easy writing" sort that "makes hard reading." For interest and attraction it does not compare with the semi-critical and immensely picturesque pages of Dean Stanley, covering the Old Testament and Maccabean parts. In the first chapters the author has imposed no restraint upon her intolerable diffusiveness. David has 142 pages. It was evident that, like the sudden increase of the Frenchman's family, "this must be stopped," and consequently we have 100 pages for the prophets and 139 pages for Jesus. Renan could hardly show less incapacity than this for spiritual appreciation of relative values. The upshot of the whole matter would appear to be that, if criticism is to be absolutely discarded, there is no occasion for such books as this. The style is no improvement on that of the Scriptures, and the windy paraphrase and expansion of their simplicity and homely beauty find us often wondering why a gifted woman should have taken so much trouble to rewrite what is written so perfectly. Few, if any, of the critics have done the Bible worse irreverence.

John Winthrop. ["Makers of America."] By Joseph Hopkins Twitchell. Dodd, Mead & Co. 16mo, pp. 245.

The list of persons to be portrayed in this series contains several to whose right in it exception will be taken, but no one will dispute the claim of John Winthrop to a prominent place. Gov. Bradford, in Plymouth, is his only rival, and that colony had very little influence upon later times. But not only was Winthrop the leader in Massachusetts by virtue of his wealth and position in England, he was the best type of the earnest, devout, yet practical Puritan. We feel instinctively that had he appeared in any subsequent generation he would have been a prominent man, in full sympathy with each successive development of the Puritan character.

It would be absurd to attempt to write even a brief sketch of Winthrop's life, apropos of this memoir. The pious care of Robert C. Winthrop, in his two volumes of the Life of his great ancestor, has furnished us with a well-nigh complete record. This sketch is merely a recasting of old materials, giving also some desirable information as to the surroundings of the central figure. Unlike the previous volume on the Rev. Francis Higginson, this volume covers a subject on which retrenchment and condensation are to be studied; and the compiler has certainly done his work with good judgment.

We cannot refrain from criticising the plan which selects Winthrop, Higginson, and Cotton Mather as the three "makers" for Massachusetts. If Increase Mather had been selected instead of his preposterous son, we should gladly assent. But among "makers" we should certainly prefer to see Shirley for colonial times, Hancock and the two Adamses for Revolutionary times, and Josiah Quincy, the great Mayor, for later times. However, "Makers" is a catching phrase, and need not be too closely examined. All the names on the publisher's list are worth consideration, and the series will doubtless furnish sound instruction to readers everywhere.

The Theory of Credit. By Henry Dunning Macleod. Vol. II., Part II. Longmans, Green & Co. 1891.

In some respects this portion of Mr. Macleod's book shows no improvement upon those which have preceded it. There is the same reckless abuse of all other writers who have presumed to enter this field, the same furious denunciation of views advanced a hundred years ago and now utterly without influence or entirely forgotten, the same intolerable deal of repetition. These faults, too, are less excusable because in almost all that is sound in his conclusions the author has been anticipated by Mr. Bagehot, whose work he never mentions. For a clear idea of the development of deposit banking, of the part played by the Bank of England in the financial history of that country, of the causes of panics, and of the policy, forced by experience upon the managers of the Bank, to be adopted in dealing with panics, we should recommend 'Lombard Street' rather than 'The Theory of Credit.'

Yet those who are interested in following the progress of financial theory in its historical development will find a great deal that is valuable in this book, if they will be at the pains to separate it from the masses of "scandalous and irrelevant matter" in which it is embedded. The substance of most of the statutes affecting banking in England generally, as well as of those relating particularly to the Banks of England, Scotland, and Ireland, is given, and is for the most part intelligently summarized. The details of the great panics for a century past, their causes, progress, and termination, are stated so as to exhibit effectively the disastrous working of false theories and the beneficial effects of those which are sound. It is impossible not to be impressed, as we review these incidents, with the wonderful advances made in monetary science during this period, although, so far as our own country is concerned, our legislators have not displayed great proficiency in the art. Nor are we disposed to disagree with Mr. Macleod, except as to tone and manner of expression, in his animadversions upon the wisdom of Parliament in retaining the act of 1844, under which the Bank has failed three times, while compelled to keep £10,000,000 in gold in its vaults which it was unable to touch.

In one respect, we think that Mr. Macleod has added to the principles that should govern the Bank in dealing with a financial panic. He points out, in describing the crisis of 1890, that raising the rate of discount is too slow a

remedy for sudden emergencies, and that if Mr. Lidderdale had waited for Barings to fail, with their £21,000,000 of liabilities, the Bank could not have withstood the strain that would have come upon it. But by borrowing £5,000,000 gold on the Continent, it put itself in so strong a position that apprehension was allayed before it had time to become uncontrollable, while at the same time the other banks of the United Kingdom were called upon to join in subscribing for a guarantee fund. From this Mr. Macleod deduces the conclusion that, with its present limitations on issue, it may happen that the Bank may encounter danger in applying the ordinarily safe rule of raising the rate of discount, as too great a rise might aggravate the panic and bring on a run for notes and gold. He also argues that hereafter it should be the rule in serious emergencies for all the banks to combine. These conclusions seem unexceptionable, and mark a distinct advance in the evolution of banking; not only a change from remedial to preventive treatment, but also a broadening to an international basis. It is, perhaps, unnecessary to go so far as to maintain, as Mr. Macleod does, that there should be no restriction whatever on the power of the Bank to issue notes. He has abundantly shown that such a power is liable to dangerous abuse.

Short Studies in Literature. By Hamilton Wright Mabie. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1891.

MR. MABIE in his preface expresses a hope that this volume of essays may prove "a book of insight, rather than a contribution to the large and invaluable mass of books of literary scholarship." He appears to mean by this that he deals with literature in general, rather than with particular authors, and uses the latter purely for purposes of illustration. The ideas which he brings forward make no pretence of originality. He treats of material and form, of race and personality, of nature and the spirit of the age, of naturalism, classicism, and romanticism, of the epic, the drama, and the lyric, of criticism and the novel, and of the interaction of one nation upon another in the world's literature. He thus passes in review the whole historic field of literary form, and examines the watchwords of all critical schools. In general, his presentation is just, his illustrations sufficiently apt, and his own remarks show both a tolerant and progressive spirit. As an introduction to the general ideas which are involved in the knowledge of literature and the critical appreciation of it, his work could hardly be bettered. It is a first-book for the more reflective class of readers. He succeeds in the rather difficult task of attempting to throw into a popular and easily apprehended shape notions which for their full understanding require large knowledge, but which nevertheless are useful as guides, even in crude form, from the start. Perhaps those chapters which deal with the history of the poetry of nature, and which define the epic as a form of popular poetry created by the imagination and life of a race, have higher usefulness, owing to their greater definiteness; but even in the more abstruse portions relating to form and spirit, what he has to say is distinctly suggestive, and should prove valuable.

Personal Recollections of the War of the Rebellion. Addresses delivered before the New York Commandery of the Loyal Legion of the United States, 1883-1891. Edited by James Grant Wilson and Titus Munson Coan, M.D. Published by the Commandery.

THE danger in editing these volumes is that stale or trifling matter be admitted. The typical papers which contain the authentic personal recollections of officers who served in the civil war cannot be too highly estimated. In the present volume, the paper on Gettysburg, by Col. Rafferty; the Red River Dam, by Gen. J. G. Wilson; the Sassacus and the Albemarle, by Dr. Edgar Holden; and the Mortar Flotilla in the Mississippi, by Lieut. Brown, are all of the highest order in value, and the stories are well told. The paper by Gen. Swayne on the Fruition of the Ordinance of 1787, though not immediately connected with the war history, is an able résumé of the history of the great Act of Congress which was at the foundation of the free-State policy whose ultimate fruition was the abolition of slavery at the close of the great convulsion. Gen. Burnett's two papers on the trial of President Lincoln's assassins preserve important facts as seen from the inside by a responsible officer of the Judge Advocate's department. Several of the obituary addresses must be regarded as excerpts already published elsewhere; and interesting as they are, it is questionable whether the rigid rule of admitting to these volumes nothing but original matter first read before the Commandery ought to be relaxed.

The volume is a handsome octavo of 400 pages, in the bright blue and gold, with the cross of the Legion on the cover, which the Ohio Commandery first adopted. It would be well if all the Loyal Legion publications should be put in this uniform, as they are the papers of one society, and the necessary distinction of commanderies could be indicated in the titles.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barker's Facts and Figures for 1892. Frederick Warne & Co. 50 cents.
Brief Counsels concerning Business. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Choate, I. B. Wells of English. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Corson, Prof. H. An Introduction to the Study of Robert Browning's Poetry. 2d ed. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Credo and Credulity. Charles T. Dillingham. $1.50.
Crump, C. G. Landor's Imaginary Conversations. Vol. IV. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Cumming, C. F. G. Two Happy Years in Ceylon. 2 vols. Scribners. $9.
Cyclopædia of the Manufactures and Products of the U. S. 2d ed. Seeger & Guernsey Co.
Gosse, Edmund. Gossip in a Library. John W. Lovell Co.
Hopkins, A. A. The *Scientific American* Cyclopædia of Receipts, Notes and Queries. Munn & Co. $5.
Infantry Drill Regulations, U. S. Army. Appletons.
Jokai, Maurus. Pretty Michal. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Joynes, Prof. E. S. French Fairy Tales. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35 cents.
Keene, H. G. The Literature of France. [University Extension Series.] Scribners. $1.
Keener, Prof. W. A. Selections from Leake's Elements of the Law of Contracts, etc. 2 vols. Baker, Voorhis & Co.
La Brête, Jean de. Mon Oncle et Mon Curé. William R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
Ladd, H. O. The Story of New Mexico. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Littell's Living Age. Oct.–Dec., 1891. Boston: Littell & Co.
Long, George. A Selection from the Discourses of Epictetus, with the Encheiridion. [Knickerbocker Nuggets.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Marshall, G. L. O'er Rail and Cross-Ties with Gripsack. G. W. Dillingham.
Maspéro, G. Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria. Appletons.
McKillop, D. Shorthand and Typewriting. New York: Fowler & Wells Co.
Mendeléeff, D. The Principles of Chemistry. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $10.
Meredith, George. The Tragic Comedians: A Study in a Well-known Story. Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Middleton, E. S. A Study in Girls. G. W. Dillingham.
Mills, Wesley. The Dog in Health and in Disease. Appletons.
Morley, Charles. Teufel the Terrier. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Morris, William. The Story of the Glittering Plain. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Perley, Sidney. Historic Storms of New England. Salem, Mass.: Salem Press Publishing and Printing Co.
Pinero, A. W. The Cabinet Minister. J. W. Lovell Co. $1.25.
Purves, John. Selections from the Dialogues of Plato. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Religious Systems of the World. 2d ed., enlarged. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $4.50.
Richardson, Warren. Dr. Zell and the Princess Charlotte. L. Kabis & Co.
Ritter, Fanny R. Lyre, Pen and Pencil. Edward Schuberth & Co.
Robida, A. "Yester-Year": Ten Centuries of Toilette. London: Richard Clay & Sons; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Ross, Albert. The Garston Bigamy. G. W. Dillingham.
Ross, Clinton. Improbable Tales. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Rubinstein, Anton. A Conversation on Music. Chas. F. Tretbar. $1.
Russell, W. C. A Strange Elopement. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Schele de Vere, Prof. The French Verb. William R. Jenkins. $1.25.
Scollard, Clinton. Giovio and Giulia; A Metrical Romance. Clinton, N. Y.: The Author. $1.
Sergeant, Adeline. Sir Anthony's Secret: or, A False Position. John A. Taylor & Co. 50 cents.
Shoup, W. J. The History and Science of Education. American Book Co. $1.
Skating, Curling, etc. [The Badminton Library.] London: Longmans, Green & Co.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

FEBRUARY
EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

ARTICLES.—The Idea of Liberal Education, Daniel C. Gilman; Growth of the Colleges of the United States, Arthur M. Comey; College Entrance Requirements in English, Henry S. Pancoast; Certain Dangerous Tendencies in Education, James P. Munroe.
DISCUSSIONS.—Elementary Science in School Courses, Louisa Parsons Hopkins; An Instructive Experiment in College Government, John Bigham; City School Supervision, V., William T. Harris.
EDUCATION IN FOREIGN PERIODICALS.—Henri Pestalozzi.
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NO. 59 WALL STREET, NEW YORK.

Anton Rubinstein's
New book, entitled "A CONVERSATION ON MUSIC," translated by Mrs. John P. Morgan. Cloth, $1.
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Condensed Statement, June 30, 1891.
Capital authorized.....$4,000,000 00
Paid (in cash).....2,049,550 00
Surplus and undivided profits.....830,396 67
Assets.....14,074,813 56
This company solicits correspondence about all first-class investment securities.
Buys and negotiates Municipal, Railroad, Water, Industrial, and Irrigation Bonds.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 4, 1892.

The Week.

HILL is giving the country a perfect exhibition of what Hillism really is. Having had his State Committee call the State Convention in February to choose delegates to the Democratic National Convention of next June, he has begun grinding out delegations to this State Convention before the end of January. The call for the Convention was issued on the afternoon of January 25, and on January 27 the Hill managers in Hornellsville went through the form of holding primaries, and elected a "solid delegation for Hill." It is also given out that the Hill machine proposes to abandon the old Democratic plan of selecting delegates to the National Convention (outside the delegates-at-large) by Congressional districts, and to have them all chosen in bulk, and that the men who are to represent districts in the central part of the State have already been picked out in this city. Believers in decent politics cannot be too grateful to Hill for thus giving the nation an exact measure of himself. All that was necessary to make the Democrats of the United States understand what a cheap wire-puller he really is, and how preposterous is the idea of nominating him for President, was an exhibition of his methods such as he is now giving.

The meeting of Democrats in this city on Friday evening, which resulted in a formal protest against the Hill "snap" Convention, and a call for a mass-meeting on the 11th inst. to "consider and decide upon the necessary measures to secure the best interests of the Democratic party," is an encouraging sign that the spirit of manliness and honesty yet exists in the Democratic party in this city and State. Surely if that spirit did not manifest itself now, it never would. The party has been seized by the throat by a political highwayman whose character is so despised by respectable Democrats that they never think of inviting him to their houses or attending receptions at clubs, or elsewhere, which Tammany organizes in his honor; yet these same respectable Democrats have been allowing him for seven years gradually to take complete control of their party organization, and to fill the offices of the State with his "pals" and heelers, without lifting their voices in any except the feeblest and most timid protest. We trust that the present movement means a new departure, and that from this time on the intelligence and manhood of the party will not merely demand but will openly assume control of its councils. That is the only kind of opposition within the party that Hill dreads. The moment all efforts to remain harmonious and friendly with him are abandoned and his debasing and demoralizing leadership is repudiated, the beginning of the end of his boss-ship will have come. Friendliness with him before election means always the same thing after election—contemptuous treatment of all the decent men in the party, and rewards for all its tricksters and cheats.

The main business of the Senate at Washington thus far has been passing bills for public buildings. Loaded upon the calendar in hot haste, they are taken up through the instrumentality of "Senatorial courtesy," and passed on the well-understood system of "Vote for my bill if you expect me to vote for yours." One of the tricks of the trade is a voluntary reduction of the amount originally asked for. Thus, Senator Stewart introduced a bill for a $100,000 public building at that well-known metropolis of 5,000 souls in Nevada named Reno. The Committee cut the amount down to $75,000, and when even that amount was objected to in the Senate, the Senator from Nevada generously exclaimed: "We will agree to reduce it to $60,000." This reminds one of Webster calling, in a moment of spirituous elevation, for the amount of the national debt, and offering to pay it himself. But the thing is to get an appropriation once made and the building started; then the deficiency can be made up easily enough, for is it to be supposed that the Government will carry a building up to the third story, and then let the walls crumble for lack of money to put on the roof and a statue of the Goddess of Liberty?

The trouble with the Senators is, as Messrs. McPherson and Allison had to remind them last week, that they wish to continue the methods of the flush days of the Treasury in these poverty-stricken times. When the surplus was upwards of $100,000,000, and kept averaging that for a series of years, the money was fairly aching to be appropriated, and the readiest way of "getting it into circulation again" was in public-building bills. They were the easiest to slip through Congress, inasmuch as the most rigorous economist in matters of general public expenditure would always have some modest little bill for his own "deestrict" on the anxious list, and would know that he must be tolerant of other people's schemes of the sort if he was to get his own through. There can be no question that, under the constant temptation of the surplus and the perfecting of the log-rolling method, the evil of appropriations for unnecessary public buildings grew alarmingly. President Cleveland did much to check it by his vetoes, and President Harrison has followed his example in that particular, though with halting steps. He may now, however, be expected to display much greater severity towards such measures, since the condition of the Treasury will admit of no raiding.

When Secretary Foster sent in his annual report to Congress on December 7, he gave the estimate for pensions during the fiscal year 1893 as $147,064,550. This was among the estimates "as submitted by the several Executive Departments and offices," and came, of course, from Commissioner Raum. Yet that gentleman informed the Committee on Pensions last week that he should need $160,000,000 for the year in question. An estimate which is $13,000,000 out of the way is highly valuable for a Secretary of the Treasury to figure on, and makes his estimated surplus of but $14,000,000 look particularly silly. It is only another instance of the thoroughly muddled condition of our present Treasury reports.

Senator Hale made a labored attempt on Thursday to disprove the fact that Mr. Blaine's original reciprocity schemes were flouted by the Republicans in the Senate. He admitted explicitly, what of course everybody knew before, that the amendment which he introduced on June 19 "had been prepared in the State Department." But he proceeded to say:

> "As some attempt has been made to show that the original reciprocity amendment received rude treatment at the hands of the Senate, and that its original authors were not considered in the legislation of Congress, I may state here that, after the changed condition resulting from the repeal of nearly all of the sugar duty, the Aldrich amendment was heartily accepted by the friends of the original amendment in the Senate, by the Secretary of State, and by the President. The basis of the original amendment was the retention of the sugar duty till reciprocal treaties could be negotiated. When that basis was changed and the repeal became a fixed fact, it is difficult to see what other plan than the Aldrich amendment could be devised."

This is delightful. When did this "changed condition resulting from the repeal of nearly all of the sugar duty" appear? On May 21, the date the McKinley Bill passed the House. It was nearly a month later, June 19, that Senator Hale introduced the Blaine amendment. It was not called up and debated till September 2, over three months after the time when, Senator Hale now says, its "basis was changed and the repeal became a fixed fact." The very point and force of the amendment was to avert that repeal. What Mr. Hale really says, therefore, is that Mr. Blaine's plan did not receive "rude treatment" in the Senate, because after that plan had failed to receive a single Republican vote, after its author had thus been trampled upon in the house of his own friends, he gathered himself together, in his customary "here

we are again" style, and loudly claimed as his own a measure which he had bitterly fought, but which was crammed down his throat. Senator Hale will have to try again.

Those whose memories reach back to 1876 will have no difficulty in understanding how Mr. Blaine has come to have a constitutional dread of facing documentary evidence. If his agreements cannot be produced against him in writing, he feels at entire liberty to repudiate them, even when the other evidence against him is conclusive. His reply to the Chilian Minister is very like the one he made last spring to the Brazilian Minister. When the latter, at the time the Spanish Treaty was announced, sent a messenger to Mr. Blaine with bitter reproaches for having deceived him into assuring his Government that the United States would make no agreement with Spain affecting Cuban sugar, the Secretary's ready answer was: "Does he claim to have any formal and written assurance of mine in that matter?" So important did he regard this that he got Gen. Foster to obtain from Minister Mendonça, as an "anchor to windward," a letter admitting that no formal promise on the subject was passed. The inference is that Mr. Blaine considers a clear understanding between gentlemen as of no binding force whatever unless reduced to writing. He fooled and then flung over Mr. Mendonça, and now tries to do the same thing with Minister Montt. At this rate he will soon have in every country of "Pan-America" a victim of misplaced confidence in his honor.

Some of our contemporaries, and the President himself, seem disposed to throw the blame of the President's ignorance of the receipt of Mr. Montt's note at the State Department on Monday week, before he sent in his War Message, on Mr. Blaine solely. But this will hardly hold water. Mr. Blaine was undoubtedly guilty of negligence that looks malicious in not warning the President that a Chilian despatch had been received and was undergoing translation, knowing, as he certainly must have known, that a war message had been prepared. But the President knew well that some such communication was *probably* on the way, for he had sent his "ultimatum" on the previous Thursday, and had been asked for and had conceded two days' delay for the answer. Now, a peaceable man, seeking peace and prizing it, would have grasped at every known chance of peace, and waited patiently for every possible excuse for delaying warlike action. There was no date on which war *had* to be declared. A quarrelsome man, bent on a fight, would, on the other hand, have done just what the President did —hasten any action that would be likely to cut off negotiations. His eagerness, in fact, to get in with his message, *coûte que coûte*, as the *Tribune* would say, was well revealed by his Sabbath-breaking on Sunday, for, according to Mr. Allen, he kept the compositors at work on that day setting up a document which was certainly far from sacred. No Presbyterian Elder would do this in order to increase the chances of a bloody war, who was not nearly beside himself with martial ardor. Poor Mr. Blaine has burdens enough of his own to bear without having to shoulder the whole of this one.

In the course of a little cooing between the "gentlemanly" *Tribune* and the "high-minded *Sun*," the former concurs with the latter in the following pregnant observation:

> "It is worth a hundred millions to have the world know that there is a united country behind the flag, and it is also worth a great many millions to have public men in this country know that there must be a united country behind any Administration in any sincere and wise endeavor to promote the public welfare."

If it be really true, Simplex, that "the world" did not know until we had this squabble with Chili that there was "a united country behind the [American] flag," and if "public men" were ignorant of the fact that "there must be a united country behind any Administration" in order to make its blunders conducive to its continuance in office, your estimate of the money value of the Chilian squabble is ridiculously low. We should put it, were we in your place, at five million millions of dollars, and we would refuse to lower it except under physical compulsion. We thought the world had been made acquainted with the fighting capacity of the American people in the years 1861-1865, at an expense of $4,000,000,000, or thereabouts. If that lesson has been already forgotten in twenty-five years, how long would a $100,000,000 advertisement retain its virtue? Why, only seven months and two weeks, and we should have to have a squabble with some other Power next fall in order to retain the respect of "the world."

The dreary and long-spun-out Connecticut deadlock appears to have reached a final phase of partisan scandal likely to continue until next January. When, some three weeks ago, the Supreme Court of the State gave its too vague decision in the Morris-Bulkeley suit, it implied in one part of its finding that the "two-day" limit had cut off a declaration of State officers, while in another part it suggested that the Legislature might yet declare them. The Democratic Senate then brought up the case of Phelan, who received at the last election a clear majority of 544 votes for Secretary of State, and asked the Republican House for a conference committee. This committee disagreed, but before its House members could report, the Bulkeley men flung in a resolution giving the Speaker power to "recess" the House for two months in any absence of a quorum. To defeat this, the Democratic members of the House broke the quorum by going out into the lobby, and the Speaker declared a recess for one week, as the existing House rules allow him to do. Thereupon, the private secretary of Gov. Bulkeley, who is also Secretary of the Republican State Committee, sent notice to the Republican majority not to come back until ordered to do so. At present, therefore, each Wednesday the Speaker goes to an almost empty House and declares "no quorum" and a recess from week to week. His "sharp" tactics also tend to prevent the Democratic claimants from taking the Supreme Court's advice and going under the common law to the Superior Court, as there the Republicans can now raise the technical plea that the Legislature, being in session, may yet "declare" the State officers. Thus the deadlock is complete, and the two houses apparently must sooner or later adjourn to draw their pay for work they have not done.

The decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, that Boyd, the Democrat who was elected Governor of Nebraska a year ago last November, is entitled to the office out of which he has been cheated most of the time since his term began, accords with the popular sense of fair play. Boyd came to this country when a boy, and always supposed that his father had perfected his naturalization papers so that the son was a full-fledged citizen. Moreover, he had served as a soldier in the Union army and had held various offices, including the Mayoralty of Omaha, without any question ever being raised as to his full rights. It therefore seemed a peculiarly mean piece of business that the Republican politicians of his State should try to keep him out of the Governorship, to which he had been fairly elected, by bringing up a technical point against the regularity of his father's naturalization papers, and should succeed for about a year by securing a decision in their favor from the Republican Judges who constituted a majority of the State Supreme Court. All but one of the judges of the United States Supreme Court, five Republicans and two Democrats, concur in deciding that the State Supreme Court was wrong, in reversing its judgment, and in remanding the cause, "to be proceeded in according to law and in conformity with this opinion."

But while this decision accords with the popular sense of fair play, it must be admitted that there is great force in the dissenting opinion of Justice Field, the veteran Democratic member of the bench. He takes the ground that the Supreme Court of the United States has no jurisdiction to determine a disputed question as to the right to the Governorship of a State, however the question may be decided by its authorities, right or wrong. He holds that the States, by the express declaration

of the tenth amendment to the Constitution, are independent political communities, except as to such powers as are ceded to the General Government or prohibited to them by the Constitution; and that the powers of the General Government to interfere with the administration of affairs of a State and its officers extend only so far as may be necessary to secure to it a republican form of government, or to protect it against invasion and domestic violence. Nor does Justice Field consider that the fact that one of the qualifications prescribed by a State for its officers can only be ascertained and established by considering the provisions of a law of the United States, authorizes interference by the General Government with the action of the State. These theoretical objections of the dissenting Justice to the position taken by the majority of the court are sustained by the practical consideration which he suggests, that there is no power to enforce upon the State of Nebraska the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States. "How could this court," he asked, "in case of refusal of the incumbent to vacate his office, enforce its order? An attempt to do so by force would not be sustained by the Executive, or by Congress, or by the people. He could see only mischief and trouble to follow from the assertion of any such power over the authorities of a State as is claimed in this case." It is difficult to impugn the force of this reasoning.

The Supreme Court rendered another important decision on Monday, in which all of its members concurred—a somewhat unusual circumstance. It upholds the law of Congress which prohibits the sending through the mails of newspapers containing lottery advertisements. The New Orleans lottery people have fought this law with the greatest persistence, and employed the ablest lawyers to argue against its constitutionality. It is easy to understand why they wanted to overthrow it. The advertisement in the newspaper—and particularly when it appeared in that most deceptive of guises known to the counting-room but not to the ingenuous subscriber as a "reading notice"—was the surest way of luring the unsuspicious into their toils. It would be difficult to exaggerate the amount of patronage which was secured by those seductive stories appearing in the columns devoted to selected matter, telling how a grocer in one distant city, a clerk in a second, and a shoe-maker in a third, had drawn large prizes, and received the money from New Orleans by express-package. Prohibition of any use of the newspapers is a terrible blow at any business in this age of newspapers, and it is no wonder the lottery people dreaded the application of such a rule. The moral effect of such a decision in helping the opposition to the lottery in the pending campaign in Louisiana must be great.

The arrest of Henry H. Yard on freshly discovered evidence of complicity with Marsh, the fugitive President of the Keystone Bank, may possibly lead to interesting developments in the carefully hushed-up Philadelphia scandal. Yard is already resting untried under two indictments for conspiracy with Bardsley for the unlawful use of public funds. It came out during the investigation in June last that Yard was a partner with Lucas, the former President of the Keystone Bank, who was discovered after his death to have robbed it of $998,000. He joined Lucas in some real-estate speculation, as good Mr. Wanamaker joined him in some speculations in Reading stock. It came out, also, that Yard raised money for some of his speculations on one of the bogus certificates of Keystone Bank stock which Wanamaker had sworn that he had received from Lucas as security for money advanced and had never allowed to go out of his pocket-book. Yard in some mysterious manner got possession of one of them, even as Wanamaker's brokers got possession of others, and used them to raise money on. Yard has never been forced to trial on his first indictments, but he may be on the new evidence which is now said to have been discovered by a United States Secret-Service officer who has been engaged with experts on the Keystone books. On this evidence he is charged with aiding and abetting Marsh in the misappropriation of nearly $70,000 of the bank's funds. We trust that his trial will be pushed, for as a connecting link between Lucas and Wanamaker on the one hand, and between Bardsley, Marsh, and Lucas on the other, he has from the first been a most interesting figure in the scandal.

The opposition in Spain to the reciprocity agreement with the United States has found expression in the Cortes, and the Government has consented to the appointment of a committee to investigate the whole question. The arrangement is most stoutly attacked by Spanish protectionists, and as the present Administration came into power upon an ultra-protectionist platform, the choicest dialectics of protection will have to be put into play to show how an arrangement which makes trade freer is really a protectionist measure. The Spanish Premier could learn a valuable lesson in this matter from some of our own Irrefragable Doctors of protection of the new school. But it is going to be exceedingly awkward for him to risk incurring the enmity of the group of unattached protectionists, of whom Gamazo is the mouthpiece, and who distinctly notify him that he can count upon their votes only as long as he gives their constituents all manner of protective duties. Perhaps the Investigating Committee will bring out the actual circumstances under which the treaty was originally forced upon Spain. The secret history of that affair would show that the Government of the United States gave Spain an "ultimatum," as well as Chili, and that a scheme of international brigandage affecting Cuba was sedulously cultivated by some of the finest patriots among us.

The embarrassment in which the Germans are placed by the eccentricities of their Emperor steadily increases. That the son of his father, educated as he has been, in the latter part of the nineteenth century, in perhaps the most highly cultivated community in the world, should have, at the age of thirty, the opinion he has of his own power and wisdom, seems to a growing number of his subjects hardly consistent with perfect mental sanity. His mind is apparently that of a fourteenth or fifteenth-century king. Many of his accounts of his own mission to the German people and of his responsibilities on their account seem strongly symptomatic of that form of lunacy which consists in an inordinate self-importance, known technically as megalomania. He has tried the public patience a good deal already by his claims to almost superhuman knowledge and sagacity, but none of his legislative undertakings has been quite so serious as his Educational Bill, now before the Reichstag, providing for the religious education of the children in the public schools in such creeds as the Government approves of; or, in other words, the transfer of the children of Jews, Turks, and infidels to the cure of the Christian clergy. The object of this legislation is, according to the Emperor, to abolish "atheism" among his subjects, and bring them all into a religious fold specially constructed by himself or under his approval. The number of atheists in Germany is very large. The number of sceptics—that is, of persons who have a private religion of their own, the nature of which they consider nobody else's business—is still larger. But larger than all is the class who dislike and despise the clergy, and will on no account permit them to educate their children. All these classes together include a very large proportion of the German culture and intelligence. To attempt to force an official religious creed on them, after the fashion of Queen Elizabeth or King Charles I., is one of those fantastic ventures which shake thrones to their foundation. There is probably no country in Europe in which it would be more preposterous than in Germany, for in none have the commercial and professional men got so far away from the Church. They have, in fact, got so far away that to the great bulk of them American and English piety is absolutely incomprehensible. To attack these classes on their tenderest point, in the character of "the Lord's anointed," may fairly be considered evidence of some kind of unsoundness.

THE SHAME OF IT.

We presume no gentleman in the United States will read these remarks of Mr. Blount, Chairman of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs, on the Chilian apology without hearty concurrence: "I was almost smitten with a feeling of pity that people who seemed to be animated by such generous sentiments should be placed in the position of making so humble an apology." But we are sure that every gentleman who agrees with Mr. Blount will feel something besides pity, namely, shame over the means employed to extract this apology. No episode nearly so discreditable is to be found in the annals of American diplomacy. The President is at this moment an object of ridicule in Congress, and in fact all over the world, for having sent a war message to Congress without waiting for the answer to an "ultimatum," as the Warriors called it, which he had sent to Chili.

The ultimatum was sent on Thursday, January 21. It was not received at the Foreign Office in Santiago till the 23d. Answer was at once made asking for two days' delay in replying—*i. e.*, until Monday—as President Montt was absent in the mountains. This ultimatum, as is well known, made peremptory demands, compliance with which was sure to be felt as more or less humiliating by a high-spirited and martial people. It was, in fact, the communication of a duellist asking for "satisfaction." But it did not emanate from a duellist: it emanated from the President of a peaceful Christian republic, himself a prominent church member, and was addressed to a little republic just emerging from a bloody civil war. As Mr. Allen of Mississippi—himself a member of a duelling community—pointed out in Congress on Thursday, a duellist in his State is bound to wait a reasonable time, on pain of social disgrace, for an answer to a "hostile message." But our President did not obey even the duelling code. After having received this request for a brief delay on Saturday, he deliberately sent a message to Congress on Monday, the 25th, virtually asking for authority to attack the Chilians with his fleet, and bristling with gross insults to the Chilian Government. He gave the lie to nearly all its assertions touching matters of fact, and discredited the decisions of its courts of law. It was, in fact, such a communication as is never addressed to a disputant or antagonist, even by duellists, except with the view of forcing a quarrel.

More than this: he sent this warlike message to Congress at twelve o'clock on Monday, either knowing or not knowing that an important communication had been received that morning at the State Department from the Chilian Minister in Washington, touching the matter in hand. If he knew it was there, but was determined not to wait for it, having his own document all ready, his conduct deserves to be characterized in stronger terms than we care to use. If he did not know of it, and failed to make any inquiry about it before launching a missive which might consign thousands of men to destruction, what are we to say of the way in which he and his Secretary of State conduct the business of a great nation on a question of peace or war? Think of an elder in a Christian church getting up on Monday morning, after a Sabbath's reflection, and deliberately suggesting a bloody war to Congress without asking, up to noon, whether the enemy, *from whom he was expecting to hear*, had been heard from. What are we to call this in the United States in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ninety-two?

There could hardly be stronger evidence than this, taken in connection with previous events, of a determination to force a quarrel on a weak antagonist. If the management of this quarrel with Chili had previously been gentlemanly, considerate, forbearing, it might be treated as the blunder of a small and nervous man, brought suddenly face to face with a serious and novel crisis. But, as President Harrison's ill-luck will have it, his unseemly haste with the ultimatum is a perfectly fitting close to the controversy as it has been carried on from the beginning.

We began the process of alienating and irritating the Chilians by the appointment of Egan as our Minister—in itself contemptuous to the verge of insult. We continued it by open displays of sympathy with Balmaceda during the civil war; by our seizure and pursuit of the *Itata*, in disregard of the law as laid down by our State Department; by permitting our naval officers during four months to sneer at, abuse, defy, and threaten the Chilians, with the permission or approval of our Navy Department and the loud encouragement of our Government press. When the riot occurred, we forced on the Chilians, with an absolute disregard of the decencies of diplomatic intercourse, a view of governmental responsibility for mob violence which we had ourselves a short time previously utterly repudiated. That all this should end in an attempt to forestall an apology by a snap declaration of war, is simply what consistency called for.

The Chilians, with the exception of Señor Matta, have acted all through as gentlemen and men of sense. They have gone through the agony of a civil war, and borne our insults and abuse with patient courage. They have promptly responded to a demand for "satisfaction" in terms which ought to be read with shame and compunction in every Presbyterian church in the country. The exception of Matta ought not to count against them when we remember that he is a journalistic Warrior—for of course Chili has her journalistic Warriors also—suddenly and for a brief period put in an office evidently too high for him, at the close of the Civil War, in a provisional government. This indiscretion was promptly atoned for when it was found to have given offence. And it must be remembered that the Chilian Government has behind it a martial, proud, and very ignorant population, whose susceptibilities in making concessions to foreign Powers have to be consulted. It would seem as if, in exacting concessions from it, the Ministers of a sister republic would have borne this fact in mind, and have had chivalry and magnanimity enough and sympathy enough to avoid all language which would make its task more difficult. It is not too late for the display of these qualities now. If the President and Mr. Blaine do not exactly know how gentlemen settle misunderstandings with unfortunate and erring friends, they ought to ask somebody in Washington who has had a larger and nobler experience.

PATRIOTISM.

In the military ages—that is, in all the ages before our own—when war was the principal business of the Government, and the soldiers were *ex officio* the chief class in the State, the patriot was necessarily and inevitably the man who was ready to fight and, if need be, die for his country on the battlefield. There is hardly any other definition of patriot to be found in Greek or Roman or mediæval literature. The attempt in Dr. Johnson's day to apply the term in English party politics to the man who opposed a corrupt ministry and tried to effect some sort of reform in the Government, excited his good old Tory wrath, and led him to describe patriotism as "the last refuge of a scoundrel," and the patriot consequently as a scoundrel at the end of his tether.

The modern Christian and industrial definition is something wholly different. The patriot in our day, and especially in the United States, is the just man, and not the fighting man of the ancients. He is the man who, in a private station, lives honestly, injures no one, and gives everybody his due, does the best work he can in his calling, is helpful and kindly to his neighbors and friends; who, in a public station, discharges the duties of his office as faithfully and efficiently as he knows how, without fear or favor, and indifferently between rich and poor; who makes no profit beyond his lawful salary, and obliges no friend or relative at the public expense; who acts in all things with a single eye, not to his own interest or that of his party, but to the public interest, and, in fact, in his whole walk and conversation so conducts himself that his fellow-citizens can point to him with pride, and that, in the eyes of foreigners, he reflects honor on his country and on his government. If he is a newspaper editor in a democratic country, in which public opinion is all-powerful and is largely shaped, on the issues of peace and war, by the press, he writes and collects news in such manner as, if possible, to deceive nobody about matters of fact, and mislead nobody in matters of opinion, to secure full and careful deliberation on all great matters of public

concern, to bring the best thought of the world and the experience of the human race to bear on them, and to protect national decisions at great crises from the influence of pride, passion, ignorance, animal combativeness, and selfishness. In other words, he is above all things loyal to civilization, and includes under this head everything which brings human affairs under the control of reason, and fosters the larger hopes of the race for the good time coming when the war-drum shall beat no longer, and the battle-flags be furled.

If the above definition of patriotism be correct—and we think few will question it—it will be readily seen that it is no easy matter to be a patriot, and it will be readily seen, too, why real patriots do not abound. It also does something to fortify Dr. Johnson's definition, for every country swarms with men in search of the means of being considered patriots with the smallest possible outlay of labor and sacrifice. The great drones and malefactors, the whole tribe of corruptionists and shirks and charlatans, in and out of politics, are naturally the most eager in this quest. They want to be good patriots without giving up cheating at the polls; without ceasing to sell their votes in the Legislature; without ceasing to defraud the Government in their offices or in their contracts; without ceasing to trade for their own profit on popular passion, or prejudice, or ignorance; without ceasing to invent bogus news, or write disingenuous or silly or reckless articles, in order to sell their paper; without ceasing to sand their sugar or unload worthless stocks on the innocent, or to wreck railroads; or, to sum up, without ceasing to disappoint the hopes of all the generous spirits who look to see their country stand before the world for law, for reason, for "truth and justice, religion and piety."

Now nothing suits this class so well as a definition of patriotism which makes it consist in readiness to go to war to avenge slights and insults under the duellist's code. Patriotism does in this sense furnish a ready refuge to the greatest scoundrel, because he can be a patriot without desisting for one moment from his ordinary avocations, or making the smallest sacrifice of his comfort. A patriot of this kind can air his patriotism without the smallest abatement of his nefarious activity. He is not restrained, as the ancient patriots were, by having to take arms in wars of his own making, for he hires other men to fight, and can make money by betting in the stock market and by selling "extras" of his paper on their battles, sieges, and fortunes, on the devastation of fertile lands, the destruction of great cities, the multiplication of widows and orphans, and the crowding of hospitals, and by filling the breasts of his fellow-citizens with the savage joy of the Red Indian over other people's death and ruin and humiliation. He can show patriotism of this sort while lying on a sofa smoking cigarettes, or drinking brandy and water in a café, or playing poker in a gambling-house. In short, there is no one so criminal, or so vicious, or so silly or empty-headed that he cannot be a patriot by longing and "hollering" for war, and feeling "insulted" by some foreigner, and wanting to have the insult washed out in somebody else's blood in a fight of which he will be a spectator merely.

As this nation grows in strength and size, these patriots are sure to grow more numerous and active. When it numbers 200,000,000, as it will before very long, and possesses, as it probably will, one of the greatest fleets, and possibly armies, in the world, the force which "patriotic" charlatans will have within their reach for offences against law and morality will be tremendous if those Americans who wish to see their country continue to be the great exemplar of the higher modern civilization, as it has been hitherto, do not cultivate the courage of their opinions. The timid silence which good people maintain while the "Patriots" are yelping for some sort of external trouble that will turn attention away from their own treasons, stratagems, and spoils—the fear of even honest and good men of raising their voices against a war they know to be unjust, lest they should "get left" and have the Scoundrels call them names—is an unhappy and dangerous sign of the times. They should remember that in a modern republic, and above all in a modern democracy, the presumptions are all in favor of peace. There is nothing in our day rarer than a "just and necessary war." There has not been one such offensive war, in our estimation, since 1640, except the Revolutionary War and the Civil War of 1861. The burden of proof lies always on the Warriors. It is for them to make out their case; it is for them to stammer, and hesitate, and shrink, and justify themselves in the presence of that great tribunal, the Conscience of a Christian Nation. It is the solemn duty of that tribunal to see that their proofs are perfect.

MODERN CHURCH-MEMBERSHIP.

CONSIDERABLE stir was excited a short time ago when the best-known church in Brooklyn received an application for membership from a man who had just been on trial for murder. He had killed a man in the rooms of a disreputable woman, but was acquitted on the ground of self-defence. Before his trial came on, he had professed conversion in jail, and immediately on securing his liberty expressed his desire to join the church in question. Its pastor has declared himself favorable to the application, though it yet has to be passed upon finally.

Now, taking into account the fundamental theories of Christianity and the original practice of the Christian Church, the sensation made by this incident is wholly inexplicable, and the idea that a church should hesitate for a moment in receiving such a candidate is altogether preposterous. It is impossible to conceive of the Apostles making any account whatever of the previous character of a convert so long as he would heartily accept the tenets they preached. As a matter of fact, we know that the primitive Christian Church counted many among its membership who had been open criminals and debauchees. Writing to one early Christian community, the Apostle Paul catalogues a long list of offenders against the civil and the moral law—some of the vices being now unnamable — and adds with perfect naturalness, "and such were some of you." And throughout the Christian literature of the first two centuries there runs the unmistakable implication that Christianity made its first and greatest conquests among what we should now call the lower classes of society, including many from the criminal or vicious class. That any church of those days could have feared lest its reputation should be damaged by receiving a member who had been guilty of gross licentiousness and homicide, is quite impossible. The theory of the new religion called for the reception of such a man as an equal and a brother, and the practice of the new religion made such receptions the common thing.

The theory has persisted, and it is that which compels a Christian minister to-day to maintain that foregoing bad character must be no bar to admission into the Church; but the practice has greatly changed, and it is this which makes the sensation among church-members who are asked to receive into their fellowship a man whom a great many of them would certainly not receive into their houses. However one may explain it, the fact is patent that the churches have come to stand more and more exclusively for the respectable classes in society. This is one of their greatest merits. They are the result of a long-continued moral selection. They represent the effects of a good moral environment upon successive generations—of the highest ideals of Christianity and civilization handed down from father to son. It is unfortunately true that a great deal of social conventionality has now got mixed with all this, so that wealth and standing, having so long been associated with good character, have come to be identified with it or taken as a substitute for it. Just here comes in the danger that people may seek entrance into a church for the sake of the commercial and social value of a certificate of membership. In the days of the early Church, a man's social position was sacrificed and suspicion thrown upon his character by his becoming known as a Christian; now, it is all the other way. But the fact remains that the churches, as a whole, do embrace selected individuals and families, morally speaking, in whom the fruits of carefully guarded associations and inspiring examples and excellent teaching are manifest.

Is it surprising that such organizations should be startled at the thought of re-

ceiving alien and possibly dangerous elements into their membership—elements that would in so far impair the great value of the churches as the home of unexceptionable influences? Admitting that the original theory of the Christian Church knows nothing of such moral exclusiveness, the view advanced by the late Dr. Hatch in another connection becomes pertinent. He said that a great deal of discussion had been expended on the question whether the restoration of primitive Christianity were possible, when the more pressing question is whether such a restoration is desirable. Having in mind the vital and now universally admitted truths regarding the power of habit and heredity, the slow and dubious recovery from the grip of the grosser vices, the insidious moral contamination of bad companionships—even of a bad reputation—it is at least debatable whether more would not be lost than gained by a reversion to the methods of the early Church in this particular.

This is not the sentimental view or the ecclesiastical view, we are fully aware. In the few actual cases of the kind occurring nowadays, we suppose that the sentimental and the ecclesiastical view will prevail. The candidate will be received with great professions of brotherly feeling, and then the good fathers and mothers of the church will quietly avoid the new member and enjoin their children to shun him as they would a pestilence. The instances of the sort are too rare to have much practical effect. There is no likelihood that modern Christians—unless it be in missionary lands—may be regarded, as the early Christians were regarded by the stern moralists of Rome, in the light of social and moral inferiors. But on general principles we think it would be a great pity for the churches to do anything to destroy or weaken the reputation they have won as selected social centres of moral influence.

THE SOCIALIST MILLENNIUM.

ONE of the leading German Liberals, Eugene Richter, has written a satire, somewhat in the style of Bellamy's 'Looking Backward' ('Sozialdemokratische Zukunftsbilder'), on Socialism in the shape of a picture of what is to happen after the Social Democrats get possession of the German Empire. It consists of the history, during the Social revolution, of the family of a bookbinder employing a few men in a small business and living in a flat in a populous quarter of Berlin. The capitalists are in the first place driven out of the country. Then all the buildings and machinery of transportation and manufacture are seized by "the State," represented by a committee, consisting of the Socialist members of Parliament. Private property of all kinds is abolished. Labor is made obligatory on all persons of both sexes between the ages of twenty-one and sixty-five, and each person continues to follow the calling in which he is actually engaged until further orders, the product of his labor being, of course, the property of the State. Everybody has to make and deliver to the authorities an inventory of all movable property in his possession and to surrender all gold. The army is disbanded and taxes, of course, abolished. Doctors and lawyers practise gratuitously, their board, lodging, and clothing being supplied by the State. Every person between twenty-one and sixty-five, who has no occupation already, has to choose a trade and register him or herself as following it. Women are relieved from the care of children and all other domestic labor. The children are brought up in State nurseries. Everybody eats at a public restaurant, and the washing is done in State laundries. The ministry of religion as a profession is forbidden.

The applications for places in the service of the State are innumerable. The pressure for light work, such as inspectors, and bookkeepers, and policemen, and coachmen or teamsters, is great, but very few want to excavate, or clean or pave streets or do any dirty or hard work. So the State makes all draw lots, and those who draw the bad numbers have to do the dirty jobs. The State issues orders on the public storehouses, in lieu of money, in payment of services, and things promise very well for a few weeks. But an army has speedily to be organized in order to subdue the farmers, who absolutely refuse to surrender their land, buildings, and cattle and implements, and they have to be subjugated by force. The agricultural laborers then, hearing of the fine times people are having in the city, start in throngs for Berlin, so that there is no one left in the country to cultivate the land. They have to be sent back to their villages under military escort and told to stay there. All houses and apartments in Berlin become State lodgings, and are distributed by lot, but nobody is allowed to have more furniture in his lodgings than is absolutely necessary. Luxuries are not permissible, because there cannot be enough for all, and equality in all things is the law of the State. Everybody has to get his photograph taken and lodged with the State so as to prevent his cheating when drawing his rations. All the public restaurants have the same menu each day, which is drafted by a public functionary. In order to make room for all, each person is invited by an inspector to eat diligently and leave when he has finished; the menus are based on scientific data, so as to supply each person with the proper quantity of albumen and nitrogen, etc. These menus form an "issue" at the elections, as does also marriage, which cannot be contracted without permission, and the young men and the girls chafe under these restraints.

All these absurdities, and many others which we have not space to enumerate, are fairly deducible from the platform adopted by the Socialist Congress at Erfurt in 1891, which included the transfer to the State of all the instruments of production, including, of course, the capital or the savings from past production. Minute regulation of the lives of individuals is, in other words, a necessary consequence of the fundamental principles of Socialism. On a certain day named by law, "the State" must begin to direct the activity of every man and woman in the community, and see that every one gets his fair share of the results of the industry of all. No Socialist writer except Mr. Bellamy, so far as we know, has traced out in detail the way this system would work. These writers content themselves, as a rule, with demonstrating the failure, from the humanitarian point of view, of the régime of competition, and then assume that the fraternal system would only need to be started in order to run on satisfactorily. The great success of Mr. Bellamy's book was due in large part to its furnishing a picture of the Socialist's day in the New Jerusalem, by describing the exact way in which he would get his clothes, food, and amusement.

Of course this picture is made possible only by ignoring human nature as now constituted—that is, by assuming that a keen capacity for the enjoyment of carnal pleasures would survive the total extinction of animal selfishness. It is, therefore, easily disposed of by a picture like this of Herr Richter's, in which this selfishness is made to play in the Social organization the part which it now plays, and which it will play in almost as great a degree as now, it is reasonable to suppose, within any period worth thinking about. But this is, after all, not really the weakest point in the Socialist programme. The point at which the Socialists are really most assailable is one which they never take the trouble to defend. In none of their books or pictures do they explain where they are to get the talent and experience necessary for directing all the individuals of large communities in the whole conduct of their lives. Herr Richter ridicules a great many absurdities, but he does not touch on that greatest of all, which assumes the existence in any country of a Council, Committee, or Parliament, or dictator, capable of taking charge of all affairs, both public and private, and seeing that each man does his duty and gets his share; of discharging the duties of the general of an army, of a great manufacturer, of the head of a large retail store, of the head master of an immense school, of the father of a large family, of the prime minister of an empire, and of a hotel-keeper, all in one. There are no such persons in any State. This is what gives an air of farce to all Socialistic schemes.

LABOR AND TARIFF PROBLEMS IN NEW SOUTH WALES.

SYDNEY, December 28, 1891.

THE year 1891 saw the end of the strike by nearly all the unions of laboring men in Australia. The funds of the societies were exhausted; the situations vacated by unionists

were being rapidly filled by non-unionists; members of the unions were quietly deserting the organizations whose leaders had so misled them; these leaders, therefore, seeing their power at an end, ordered a surrender all along the line. As there had been no question of wages at issue, the only concession the laborer had to make was that his employer should have the right to hire whom he chose, unionist or not.

Though this particular conflict was over, the opposition of labor to capital was as marked as ever. The next steps in the campaign are not without interest to other parts of the world. In New South Wales the progress of events has been more rapid than in the other colonies of Australia; hence here it can best be traced. However mistaken the labor leaders may have been in the conduct of their great strike, they were not long in appreciating where their weakness lay. All through Australia the railways are run by the governments, and however much a government may favor any particular party, it must act to preserve order and prevent violence. It cannot prevent a unionist from refusing to work, but it can and must prevent his refusing to allow another to work. While the railways were running and non-unionists could work, the unions could never have the country at their mercy. The labor leaders, therefore, decided that their next step must be to control the Government; and, as a general election was near at hand, they decided to stand for Parliament.

Labor matters being quiet on the surface for the moment, the special questions before the people were free trade (the then prevailing policy) and protection; also, the system of allotting votes. Manhood suffrage prevails here for the elections to the lower house; but apart from the vote in the district where a voter resides, one additional vote is given in each electorate to any one owning or leasing a piece of property having an annual value of £10. Under this rule, some men have eight or ten votes in all; but the districts are usually so far apart that not all could be availed of within the time given for an election.

The labor party were strongest in sections where most of those engaged as stevedores and dock laborers lived; hence their sympathy was with foreign trade and all that brought shipping to the port. Their cry was, "Free trade" and, "One man one vote"; and on these issues thirty of the labor party were elected to a House of about 150 members. The other members were nearly equally divided between free-traders and protectionists; the labor party were thus holders of the balance of power, and for a time gave their support to the free-trade Ministry of Sir Henry Parkes. Soon a bill came up making eight hours the legal limit of a day's work. Though the limit is recognized fully by custom, there is no law to this effect, and Sir Henry was not in favor of one. On this point the labor party deserted him, and, beaten on a division, Sir Henry at once resigned.

The Opposition leader formed a Ministry avowedly protectionist. The new Treasurer immediately proposed a customs tariff, alleging that the public finances were in such a state that new taxation was necessary. To prove this he maintained that the current year would show a deficit of about $3,000,000. This the former Treasurer denies, stating that there is really a surplus of at least $1,500,000. The annual expenditure of New South Wales is about $50,000,000, and it seems to be largely a matter of bookkeeping which statement is correct, the point involved being what items are properly chargeable to this year. This expenditure is entirely apart from the money borrowed in London, which is chiefly spent on reproductive works—railways, common roads, etc. The question for the labor leaders to decide was, therefore, whether to vote for protection pure and simple, or to be loyal to their promises and vote with the free traders. It would seem to have been an easy position, but a vote for free trade now meant a victory for the Opposition, and therefore a general election. On this the party fell. Members of the House receive £300 per annum, railway passes, etc., and still have time to attend largely to their regular occupations. Reëlection was by no means sure for many who had promised much and performed little. The majority of the thirty decided to "stay in" at all costs, and threw in their lot with the protectionists. Later they again voted against a proposal of the free-traders, that no change should be made in taxation till a House had been elected on the principle of "One man one vote."

Thus the old story repeats itself: the labor party is betrayed by its leaders, who seek only their own aggrandizement. Such it must ever be till a new generation arises and laborers choose as their leaders men very different from the loud-voiced, much-promising demagogues who at present seem everywhere to secure their confidence. The tariff now passed, thanks to the labor-leaders' votes, places a duty on wheat and many food products which New South Wales does not fully supply itself with. This is doubly bitter to the wharf laborers, who will have fewer produce cargoes to unload and more to pay for their own food. The colony has too long enjoyed free trade to suffer protection for more than a short period, and this is too well understood for many capitalists to embark in any of the protected industries. One curious incident is that shopkeepers are charging many goods at the old prices, adding in a separate line, at the foot of the bill, the amount of the duty—a very effective object-lesson.

Changes are rapid here. A year ago the labor party was entering on a gigantic struggle with capital, with as fair prospects of success as it can ever have. Now it has its second defeat to face—a defeat due, even more directly than the last, to the bad faith of its leaders.

J. E. Bullard.

PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS IN JAPAN.

Tokio, December 26, 1891.

The Parliamentary crisis has come sooner than was expected, and the members of the lower house find themselves

"Shipped, dissolved, and loosed"

by a Cabinet ready to face affairs boldly, and to go to the country upon the merits of the issue. Yesterday (Christmas Day), at 6:50 P. M., the House adjourned for the New Year's recess, and at seven o'clock the Cabinet, which had been deliberating since four, sent down an Imperial order dissolving the lower house and proroguing the upper.

Such a result had been often talked of, but few believed it to be so near. The situation during the last month (Parliament opened November 27) has been this: The Opposition, which, by the defection of certain Moderates, gained but a partial victory in the last session, found itself much stronger at the opening of the present session. The chief reason was the definite accession of Count Okuma (the victim of attempted assassination in 1889) to their ranks, and his elevation to the real leadership. This again was due to the positive and final breach, during the summer, between Count Okuma and his old associates, Ito and the others. When Okuma's Treaty-Revision plan was defeated in 1889 by the jealous obstruction of rivals, no definite break ensued in the coterie of Restoration leaders. The Count was given a place in the Privy Council, and thus remained in effect in the Government. But there is no doubt that, during the interval, he and his aids have increased their efforts to embarrass the Government in all ways. Certain allies of his—but let us say without his knowledge—have taken satisfaction, for example, in throwing the financial affairs of the country into confusion, and creating mercantile distrust. An open effort at conference with Count Itagaki, the time-honored leader of the Radicals, finally made it necessary for the Government to notice these doings, and Count Okuma, alleging illness, retired from the Privy Council. Since that time he has effected a union of the so-called Progressists (*Kaishin-to*) and Radicals (*Jiyu-to*), and they have been enabled to heal their dissensions and work together in the Diet. The master hand of Count Okuma could easily be seen in the almost machine-like method in which the various Budget items were treated. The Budget Committee recommended an impossible reduction of some eight millions out of ninety-odd, and the report of the Committee was in almost every case accepted and voted without even a semblance of debate. The report of the proceedings during the past week read something like this:

"The estimates for the Foreign Department were then taken up. Mr. Takahashi, Government delegate, explained that the reductions proposed by the Committee were absolutely inconsistent with the interest of good government. The closure was moved, and the items were passed as amended by the Committee. The Finance Department was next taken up. Mr. Suzuki, Government delegate, protested that the proposed reductions were out of the question. The closure was moved, and the report of the Committee was accepted."

This went on for several days. The Opposition presented a solid phalanx. No words were given or taken. If once in a while a clearly unreasonable reduction was voted, and a moral necessity for explanation arose, it was usually said that the Government was not to be trusted. Other Government bills, the rejection of which was a plain inconsistency on the part of the House, were rejected without greater ceremony. The not unnatural, yet somewhat precipitate, consequence was the dissolution of yesterday. A new election must take place within five months.

An issue has thus been squarely raised between the Government and the Opposition. But there are necessarily two aspects to the contest. There was last year an equally vital Opposition, but there was conspicuously no definite practical issue. The antagonism was quite independent of particular policies or measures. It was a struggle by certain sections unrecognized in the make-up of the Government to secure a place there for their representatives. The clans of Satsuma and Choshu had, since the Restoration, practically monopolized the power. The feeling was that this had gone on long enough, and that a compromise must be reached on the basis of a coalition clan-Cabinet or of party government. But without issues of policy the latter was impossible. To-day, however, issues have arisen. A clan coalition is now an idea of the past; Count Okuma (of the Hizen clan) declares that he will not accept office on that basis. Yet, though definite popu-

lar issues outwardly exist, the historical origin of the Opposition—personal and clan antagonism—cannot be forgotten. It still underlies all politics. It thus forms the second or inside aspect of the situation, and a few words upon it are necessary.

The difficult question is, Does a desire to oust the individuals—Count Ito and the lesser lights—who now control the Government, form the chief motive of the Opposition, and are the ostensible issues of policy (which will be mentioned later) a mere pretence? On this question I must first present you the statement of Count Okuma, as furnished by him to-day especially for the *Nation*. He says:

"The real point of attack is not the Sat-cho combination, but their deeds during the past twenty-four years. The Opposition thinks that the commercial and industrial policy of the Sat-cho men has on the whole been detrimental to the national interests. They have undertaken works which might better have been left to private enterprise, and the result has for the most part been complete failure. They have favored a few capitalists, selling them Government plants at low prices. They have aimed to further their own prosperity and security, instead of the interests of the people, and have corrupted political morality. They have used Government patronage to crush private competition, by starting new enterprises on a large scale and then selling out to their favorites. Now the Opposition wants, first, to oust the men who are responsible for this; and, second, to reverse this paternal policy and try *laissez-faire* for a while. These undertakings, even if rightly carried out, cost money, and expenditures must be decreased without delay. The Opposition does not desire to forego works of construction absolutely, but to make some opening for a reduction of taxes. Thus, the reduction of the land tax will be the great issue upon which we shall go to the electors. The farmers are in debt to the extent of two hundred millions merely for the necessaries of life, and both the valuation of their lands and the rate of the tax must be lowered. But the Opposition, it must be understood, does not see any reason for changing the Government policy as to expenditures necessary to promote amity with foreign nations. For example, it voted, without hesitation, 650,000 yen for the representation of Japan at the Columbian Exposition. The Opposition will undertake to revise the present treaties, but on a basis of reciprocity."

The Count, as might be expected, refused to prophesy as to the membership of the new Cabinet in the event of a change. It is of course not for me, a disinterested spectator, to question the direct statements of Count Okuma. But those who represent the Government would doubtless say that the historical element of personal and clan antagonism has not yet been entirely eliminated. There is certainly a widespread feeling, they would affirm, that the Sat-cho men have held office long enough, that it is time for them to step down and out, and that the issues of to-day, even though they be real ones, are merely fortunate pretexts upon which to appeal to the people. But even supposing this view to be true, it does not necessarily cast a stigma upon the Opposition. In the opinion of Count Okuma, the time has come when party government is best for the country. He believes that his following commands the national support, and that a change of Government is therefore proper, morally and politically. He is justified, he would say, in employing all legitimate parliamentary tactics to gain his end. On the other hand, the present Government is, from its own point of view, equally justified in not yielding. While doubtless its members are not without the self-regarding sentiments of all men, and, having tasted power, hesitate to resign the hold they have obtained, their argument is that the Opposition is not competent to take the helm; that on the one side are experience and proved capacity, on the other side superficial demagogy and crude impracticability. But, whatever be the true extent of this element of personal rivalry, the parliamentary institution has now forced the contestants to offer to the nation reasons for their respective claims; and here we come to the outward aspect of the situation, the practical issues. With this topic is closely connected the question of the probable decision of the people and the result upon the Cabinet; for it seems to be generally conceded that if the electors do pronounce positively in favor of the Opposition, the present Government will not hesitate to yield.

First and foremost among the living questions is the reduction of the land tax. Here, no doubt, the Opposition has an immense advantage. It requires very little argument to make a voter believe that the party which will reduce a direct tax on his product is the better party. Moreover, the only agricultural voters here will be the rich land-owners, who alone would benefit by the reduction. The tenants and small farmers, who are greatly in the majority, but would be little helped by it, have no appreciable vote. As to the economics of the land tax, I have little doubt that the Opposition seeks a fallacious benefit. The Japanese peasant is no doubt living close to the margin of decent subsistence, sometimes below it. He is a proletarian. But his real bugbears are rent and interest, not taxes. The best opinion, I think I may say, is that the reduction of the land tax would give a scarcely appreciable and at best temporary relief to the cultivator of the soil. The lapse of the small owner into tenancy, the hold of the money-lender upon those who still retain nominal ownership—these are the disheartening economic facts which it will take real statesmanship to deal with. But these facts give no chance for making political capital, and the reduction of the land tax does. Again, the revaluation of the land was the subject of a bill passed last week by the Lower House. This is a living issue, but the advantage here is not entirely with the Opposition. In many districts the valuation is too low, and, although this bill provided that the valuation should nowhere be increased, these localities would lose, under the readjustment, the advantage they now have. With them the lower house has not helped its cause.

On still another bill, that for the Relief of Earthquake-Damaged Districts, the Opposition has made a bad blunder. The Government, during the long recess, appropriated several millions for repairs of dikes, etc., destroyed by the earthquake. But the popular party raised the technical objection that the occasion was not an "emergency" within the meaning of the Constitution, and this item, when laid before the House, was pigeon-holed in committee. A supplementary appropriation for the same purpose was cut down one-third because the estimates were not sufficiently detailed. The Government, however, has refused to abide by this action, and has put both appropriations into force, as it is entitled to do. All this has set the people against the parliamentary Oppositionists; and certainly one cannot imagine a Western party making such a mistake of policy on a non-essential point.

The Government bill for the issue of bonds to aid the purchase of private railways by the State was also rejected by the House. This bill would have released a large amount of capital now locked up in private and unprofitable roads; and, whatever the permanent economic benefit, it would have commanded the support of the commercial class. With them the Opposition has weakened itself. Moreover, Iwasaki, Japan's chief millionaire, is heavily interested in this class of securities, and as he is a co-mate of Count Okuma's, the vote of the House must have proved to him that the Count does not absolutely control the Opposition. Finally, as to the issue above spoken of, that the Sat-cho combination has lined its own pockets by creating favorites on whom patronage is bestowed, it can only be said that Count Okuma himself, up to 1881, was a member of the combination; that the Iwasaki firm, the most prominent example of Government-made merchant princes, notoriously owe their prosperity to the Count's own influence. No doubt there have been good grounds for too many scandals, and no doubt that Okuma, who is now by no means a rich man, is above suspicion of personal profit in such matters. But, in the first place, it is a subject as to which no Japanese leader is able to cast the first stone, and, secondly, the policy in question has, on the whole, developed the resources of the country as no other policy, even though more straightforward, could have done. On the whole, therefore, the Diet has been dissolved at a moment most favorable to the Government, but how far the latter can diminish the present large majority of the Opposition, no one can yet tell.

The interesting query of course is, Who will go in should the Cabinet be changed? Whether Okuma alone will have the making of it, or whether he with Ito will make a joint arrangement, is impossible to say. The former result would be not unlikely, in case a very clear national endorsement should be given; but the difficulty is to find strong men enough to go in with him from the Opposition ranks. The general opinion is that the men who have been talking themselves to the front—such as the long-haired Tanaka, the voluble Arai, the seditious Oi—would never be trusted by the people in office. In Ministerial seats they would be the butt of Tokio. It is a sign of the good sense and sobriety of the people that the political sheets called newspapers have only one-quarter or one-third the circulation of the great commercial news purveyors, the Tokio *Ji-Ji Shimpo* and the Yokohama *Boyeki Shimbun*. The average citizen still venerates the man of experience and fame, the man of the Restoration, as his leader, and such a one he has in Okuma, but in no one else in the Opposition forces (except Count Itagaki, the great agitator for the Constitution in the seventies). With Okuma at the helm, however, the country is safe. His talents as a practical statesman are excelled by no living man in Japan. Who his colleagues in office will be, when he himself will reach that goal, no one can foretell. But party government is coming nearer, as an inevitable step in the evolution of Japanese politics; and the man who will control the first party cabinet will probably be the man who first had the keenness and ingenuity to apply the fable of the bundle of fagots to the problem of Treaty Revision, and, taking the western nations one by one, to try to break the bonds of international compact which still chafe the sensitive spirit of his countrymen.

J. H. W.

Correspondence.

THE RIGHT TO GO TO WAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As your comments on my letter touch-

ing the Chilian imbroglio might give the impression of my being an escaped lunatic, I doubt not that the *Nation* will allow me space to set myself right with its readers.

(1.) I agree with you (and have intimated nothing to the contrary) that "if the wrong be manifest, Chili ought to get no worse treatment than England."

(2.) You assert that by a fair trial in the offending country its government has fulfilled its international obligations. But that is not the point. My contention is, that the result of such a trial is not necessarily conclusive on the complaining government; that if it be so (permit me to repeat my words), "however overwhelming the evidence that the finding of facts by the foreign tribunal is contrary to the truth—whether owing to the perjury of witnesses, or the overawing of officials by the populace, or to their own hostile feelings—the complaining government can have no redress."

Chili and the United States being independent nations, you cannot mean that the judgment of a tribunal in one of them is, in the ordinary, technical sense, binding on the other. You refer, of course, to those principles established by the usage of civilized nations that constitute what is known as "international law." But even in this enlarged sense, your position is not tenable. One instance for illustration: A national cruiser captures a vessel of a neutral. The neutral nation claims restitution on the ground that the capture was illegal. The Admiralty court of the cruiser's nation decides, under provisions of its municipal law, that the capture was valid. This judgment, it is well settled, is not binding on the complaining nation.

If you think this case not applicable, here is another illustration: A dispute between two nations is left to arbitration, as in the case of a mixed commission. The arbitrators or the commission constitute an international tribunal, to whose jurisdiction both parties have voluntarily submitted themselves. Here is a case where, if anywhere, the decision should absolutely conclude both parties. But this is the doctrine of our own Government:

> "An award under a treaty, even where the arbitrators have judicial powers, is not binding if shown to be unconscionable and unjust." (Secretary Bayard, Pelletier's Case, January 20, 1887.)

But on this point there is, after all, no disagreement between us. You candidly admit the inconclusiveness of the trial, "if it should be improperly conducted and end in a failure of justice." And you must admit, I think, that if it end in a failure of justice, even if not improperly conducted, the aggrieved nation should not be bound by it.

So much for my interpretation of the doctrine touching the conclusiveness of judgments under international law, which to you seems "so like burlesque."

As to the remedy by arbitration, which you understand to apply "to all trials or disputes before an impartial tribunal," I have only to say that its applicability in any particular case is not a question of international law, but of international ethics, about which there may fairly be two opinions. Let me illustrate: John Doe deals Richard Roe a severe blow. While Richard Roe is drawing back to return the blow with interest, John Doe exclaims, "Let's leave it to arbitration!" The only question is, By which course will Richard Roe be most likely to protect himself against future insults of a similar kind—by returning the blow, or by agreeing to the arbitration?

FRANCIS J. LIPPITT.

WASHINGTON, January 30, 1892.

[What Gen. Lippitt seems to be contending for is the right of every nation to go to war if it pleases, all international rules, usages, or precedents to the contrary notwithstanding. No intelligent person, so far as our knowledge goes, has ever denied this. No nation submits to arbitration, or any other form of settlement, unconditionally. There is, in the forum of international law, no power charged with the duty of enforcing the decisions of any tribunal whatever. Submission to them is a voluntary act always. If we are satisfied that in any arbitration, or in any trial before an admiralty or municipal court, we have been treated with gross injustice, we can always appeal to the sword. This is so plain and well known, so generally assumed in all international controversies, that we have been unable to understand Gen. Lippitt's object in arguing it.—ED. NATION.]

THE ADVENT OF THE AUSTRALIAN BALLOT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of January 14, 1892, appeared a letter from Mr. L. N. Dembitz, in which he claims "the authorship of the first Australian Ballot-Law in the United States"—referring to the Kentucky Act of February 18, 1888, relative to elections in the city of Louisville. This act is familiarly spoken of in Kentucky as "the Wallace Law"; it was introduced by me, and I have been commonly regarded as having had some part in its authorship. As I have without protest permitted this opinion to be entertained, Mr. Dembitz's letter places me in the attitude of having claimed credit which I do not deserve. This is an attitude which I cannot permit myself to occupy. I have never claimed to be the *sole* author of the act mentioned, but have repeatedly and publicly sought to divide such credit as attaches to its authorship with Judge B. F. Buckner, the Hon. Frank Straus, and Mr. L. N. Dembitz. These three gentlemen, together with myself, are the authors of the law, and no one man has the right to make an exclusive claim to its authorship. You will find enclosed herewith an interview on the subject, which appeared in the *Courier-Journal* of January 24 last, and which fully states how and when the Louisville Australian Ballot Law was first conceived by me, and the manner in which, and by whom, it was drawn.

Very truly, ARTHUR M. WALLACE.

LOUISVILLE, KY., January 30, 1892.

[The significant part of the interview referred to is to be found in this extract.—ED. NATION.]

"The fact of the matter is," says Mr. Wallace, "that I got my first idea of applying the Australian ballot system to our elections from an article by Mr. Henry George in the *North American Review* some months before my election to the Legislature. About that time I spoke to Hon F. P. Straus about the matter, and he promised to aid me in drawing such a law if I were elected in the ensuing August election. I next asked Judge B. F. Buckner to give me his opinion on the constitutionality of such a measure, which he did, citing authorities in its favor. . . . We had worked at the bill for fully six weeks when Mr. Dembitz happened in Mr. Straus's office on business. . . . I have only the kindest feeling for Mr. Dembitz, and duly appreciate his interest and valuable aid in assisting me to draw up the bill."

LEE AND EWELL AT GETTYSBURG.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of January 7, reviewing Drake's 'Battle of Gettysburg,' you question the statement made by the author that Gen. Lee went to Ewell on the evening of July 1 to see if the latter could not carry Cemetery Hill, and also the further statement that at the end of the second day Gen. Lee shook his clinched fist at Cemetery Hill. You refer to the matter again in your issue of January 21. You did well to question both statements, for both are erroneous and one absurd.

I was at the time Assistant Adjutant-General of Johnson's division, formerly commanded by Gen. Jackson and called the "Stonewall Division." Late in the afternoon of the 1st, as the division approached Gettysburg, and when it was several miles from the town, Gen. Johnson sent me hurriedly to Gen. Ewell to announce the approach of the division, and to say that he would be ready to attack as soon as he could be put in position. After some miles' ride across country, I found Gen. Ewell and several general officers and his staff with him on a hill overlooking Gettysburg. I remember that Gen. Gordon (now Senator from Georgia) was one of the officers, for, standing by as I gave Johnson's message to Gen. Ewell, he added that if he should be allowed to place his brigade with Johnson's division, they could take that hill (pointing to Cemetery Hill) before dark. Gen. Ewell was, it seemed to me, unusually grave and silent; but, after telling me to direct Gen. Johnson when he got well to the front to wait for orders, he added, "*Gen. Lee is still at Cashtown, six miles in rear.* He directed me to come to Gettysburg, and I have done so. I do not feel like going further or making an attack without orders from him."

No orders to Gen. Johnson looking to an attack that night were issued. What time Gen. Lee reached the town of Gettysburg and met Gen. Ewell, if at all, that night, I do not know—certainly not until after dark. I remember the feeling of disappointment that I and those around me felt at the remarks of Gen. Ewell, put impetuously into words by an officer who had been with me on Gen. Jackson's staff: "Oh, for the presence and inspiration of Old Jack for just one hour!" But Jackson was dead; it took Gettysburg to convince Gen. Lee and the Confederacy of that fateful fact.

As to the little romance anent Gen. Lee's fist-shaking at Cemetery, it is too absurd to be seriously combated. Gen. Lee was doubtless the loftiest, most dignified, self-contained, non-explosive, un-Don-Quixotic gentleman who commanded an army during the war. He would no more have made such an aimless demonstration than Stonewall Jackson would have danced a jig on Sunday. H. K. D.

HAGERSTOWN MD., February 1, 1892.

Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS announce 'A Dictionary of Hymnology,' edited by John Julian; 'The Pauline Theology,' by Prof. Geo. B. Stevens; 'The Realm of Nature,' by Hugh R. Mill; 'Germanic Origins: A Study in Primitive Culture,' by Prof. Francis B. Gummere;

'Oriental Religions and Christianity,' by the Rev. F. F. Ellinwood; and 'Vain Fortune,' a new novel by George Moore.

A. C. Armstrong & Son have nearly ready two new volumes by Perrot and Chipiez, 'History of Art in Persia, Phrygia, Lydia, Caria, and Lycia,' with some 500 illustrations.

Macmillan & Co. are about to issue 'A Guide to Electric Lighting for Householders and Amateurs,' by S. R. Bottone. Mr. John Morley's 'Chatham' and Prof. Beesley's 'Queen Elizabeth' are to be the next volumes in the series of "Twelve English Statesmen."

John Wiley & Sons have in preparation 'Valve-Gears for the Steam-Engine,' by Prof. C. H. Peabody.

Those who remember with pleasure, or remember at all, 'The Recreations of a Country Parson,' by Mr. A. K. H. Boyd—a book of essays somewhat in vogue thirty years ago, but flat as Salisbury Plain, written "Concerning" a number of matters that never were of concern to anybody—may be willing to hear that the reverend author has in press his reminiscences of St. Andrews. The first volume of these, covering the period from 1865 to 1878, will be published at once by Messrs. Longman.

The greater attention given to the subject of English composition in our schools and colleges is shown by the increase of manuals endeavoring to simplify the subject and render it practical. Altogether the best of these recent attempts is Prof. Carpenter's 'Exercises in Rhetoric and English Composition' (Boston: Willard Small). This is a series of sixteen exercises, each on a particular topic, preceded by a summary of the rules and principles applicable to the particular subject in hand. The text thus represents the substance of teaching which a freshman may fairly be expected to compass, and it is set forth with clearness and directness, and brevity so admirable as to make the volume seem almost the realization of that impossible short method of learning to write which has been often sought for, but never with a nearer approach to being found. The author modestly ascribes all this excellence to his own teachers, but older heads are not to be so deceived, and will give him credit for a condensation and arrangement and unfailing practicality which are so rare in such manuals, and at the same time so indispensable, that we do not hesitate to give unreserved commendation to this little book.

Prof. Gilmore also publishes on the same subject a work of somewhat wider scope, 'Outlines of Rhetoric for Schools and Colleges' (Leach, Shewell & Sanborn). He follows more closely the older method, and reduces it to a more formal procedure, which is sufficiently indicated by saying that he divides the subject into inventive rhetoric, founded on logic, and having to do with matter; æsthetic rhetoric, founded on æsthetics, and having to do with form; and ethical rhetoric, founded on ethics, and having to do with the purpose of discourse. Under these various heads he covers the old ground of the nature of argument, of clearness and force and purity, and of figurative language, and he illustrates these matters with well-chosen examples. Such a formal treatment renders the subject more dry, and in our judgment more harsh, than a freer and more plastic treatment, but it shows a clear advance on manuals of the old style.

Private students of literature, as well as college classes, are appealed to by a new advisory volume, similar to several which have already received attention, of which the purpose is to lay down courses of study in such a way that they can be followed to good advantage without personal instruction. The little book by Prof. Winchester, entitled 'Five Short Courses of Reading in English Literature, with Biographical and Critical References' (Boston: Ginn & Co.), takes up courses from Marlowe to Milton, Dryden to Pope, Gray to Burns, Wordsworth to Keats, and Carlyle to Tennyson. First is given a selection of the author's works advised to be read; second, editions are recommended, with additional works to be read; third, works of reference, general, biographical, and critical, are named for each author. Good judgment is shown in the selection, and scholarly information in the survey of works of reference, though perhaps the caution may be excused against minor essayists, whose criticism appears to be referred to rather because it is recent than because it has been found to be sound. The book is free from all unnecessary matter, and, with its blank pages for additional notes, and its specimen examination papers, will be a convenience to instructors as well as to students.

The literature of the theatre is enriched by a sumptuous edition of Churchill's 'Rosciad' and 'Apology' (London: Lawrence & Bullen), with editorial preface and notes by Mr. Robert W. Lowe, and eight full-page illustrations. The editor has done his work with most commendable thoroughness. He has presented the dramatic conditions under which the satire was produced with almost contemporary nearness, restored in the notes the suppressed passages, and recorded the changes made in successive editions, and elucidated the allusions that have grown dark with time. The article in the *Critical Review* which gave rise to the 'Apology,' the sequel of the 'Rosciad,' is reprinted, and there is a useful index of names. The illustrations include portraits of Churchill, Mrs. Pritchard, James Quin, and Mrs. Yates, and of Garrick as *Hamlet* and *Kitely*, Barry as *Macbeth*, and Mrs. Clive as *A Shepherdess*. The edition, which is limited to 400 copies, reaches the acme of "luxury" in fine book-making, being perfect in all material details; and as to the substance of the work, Churchill is certainly represented here at his best, with a satirical talent vigorous though coarse, with a perceptible regard to justice, no little irascibility of temper, and a certain grossness of organization and rude respect that allies him with Dr. Johnson. It is rather as a page of theatrical annals, however, than as literature that the work is interesting, there being more of history and manners in it than of style.

'Selected Poems of Robert Burns' (Scribners), edited by Mr. Andrew Lang, gathers into a beautiful little volume the best of Burns's lyrics and songs, a service well worth attempting for the sake of both poet and reader. Mr. Lang's prefatory essay is a more careful production than is his wont, and, though it strikes one as too apologetic in tone, is an admirable estimate of the man and his work. Mr. Lang seems to think it needful to fall into a quasi-quarrel in behalf of Scott as a rival genius of his native land, and observes that Sir Walter was a man of broader patriotism than Burns and represents more of his country, that he was more kindly, and so on; but the world beyond the Tweed can only look on this as an amusing neighborhood difference, and will take both Scott and Burns without any ado as to which should be dearer to their own people. Similarly, Mr. Lang compares him with Homer, mainly by way of negatives; but to what end? Apollo should not be summoned to hold a sessions of this sort without more excuse. In marking the traits of Burns and the naturalness of his mixed spirit, Mr. Lang is more happy, and in his criticism he makes one or two suggestions of historical interest, as in the paragraph on Ossian as one of the elements in the burst of national feeling which culminated in the two men of genius in Scotch literature; but he gives his praise somewhat as if he deprecated the national enthusiasm for Burns, and were bidding his countrymen not be so obstreperous. Now Burns is not a poet who is best read on one's guard against being carried away.

Mr. William Black has undertaken to assist in producing a uniform edition of his novels, with a little touching up, and the series is begun with 'A Daughter of Heth' (Harpers). The form is handy and the type large; in other respects the manufacture is inexpensive. A photogravure portrait of the author serves as frontispiece.

The fourth of the very beautiful volumes of Landor's 'Imaginary Conversations' as reprinted by J. M. Dent & Co. (New York: Macmillan) and edited by Charles Crump, is before us, leaving but two to come. A most characteristic portrait of Landor at the age of sixty-five from a daguerreotype precedes the continuation of the Dialogues of Literary Men, in three of which he himself figures, with Southey and Archdeacon Hare; the last possessing still a curious interest for purists in the English language and for reformers well or ill advised. Landor stands up for the (American) usage of dropping the *u* in *favor*, *honor*, etc., and writing (with Webster) *theater*, etc., "in their English form." On his part, Archdeacon Hare says, "To *repudiate* was formerly to put away what disgraced us: it now signifies (in America, at least) to reject the claims of justice and honor." Nor is the judgment of contemporary poets in the same dialogue to be overlooked.

A number of annual publications having an approved reputation lie on our table. Seeger & Guernsey's 'Cyclopædia of the Manufactures and Products of the United States' (New York) appears in a second edition for 1891, and has been completely overhauled and reset. It aims to be comprehensive as to the articles produced in this country, with a select list of the firms that make them. In a case like this, the accompanying advertisements very much enhance the value of the work. The 'Cyclopædia' is beautifully printed. It is sufficient to name the 'Banker's Almanac and Register and Legal Directory for 1892' (Homans Publishing Co.), now in its forty-second year; 'Dod's Peerage, Baronetage, and Knightage of Great Britain and Ireland' (Macmillan), now in its fifty-second year, and ranging from princes and peers down to "all persons styled Lord, Lady, or Honorable"; and 'Barker's Facts and Figures' (Frederick Warne & Co.), launched in 1890, but recognized at once as a welcome addition to statistical hand-books. The present issue contains the census of the United Kingdom for April 6, 1891, and the Parliamentary pollings in 1885, 1886, and subsequent bye-elections. A great variety of information is brought compactly together in dictionary form. We may class with the foregoing a quite new compilation, 'The *Scientific American* Cyclopædia of Receipts, Notes, and Queries,' edited by Albert A. Hopkins (Munn & Co.). This is the garnering of nearly half a century's accumulations in the journal named in the title, and fills more than 600 octavo pages of fine print. Cough medicines, pills, cosmetics, pomades,

wrinkles, beers, syrups, soaps, preserving, cleansing, dyeing, bread (aerated), ice-cream, proof-reading, photography, microscopy, etching, electro-metallurgy, pyrotechny—almost everything is to be found in this volume, subject to the searcher's discrimination over and above the editor's.

D. Appleton & Co. send us their revised 'Handbook of Summer Resorts,' and the Messrs. Longman the third edition of Charles Ledyard Norton's excellent and comely 'Handbook of Florida,' which has been decidedly improved by an index. Of all the topics there mentioned, that of phosphates probably has the greatest significance for the future of the peninsula. In connection with these guides we may pertinently speak of C. V. Hine's 'On the Indian River' (Chicago: Chas. H. Sergel & Co.) and 'In Biscayne Bay,' by Caroline Washburn Rockwood (Dodd, Mead & Co.)—the one a story of a canoe voyage, the other (in the guise of a novel) of a yachting voyage, in the respective waters of the east coast. Both are somewhat rhapsodical, and both have attractive photographic illustrations.

Rand, McNally & Co. catch at the wave of present interest in southern South America by reproducing from their 'Indexed Atlas of the World' a map of the Argentine Republic, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Chili. The scale is seventy miles to the inch, and the map is folded to pocket size.

A new weekly, literary and artistic in its aims, the *Mahogany Tree*, appeared at Boston with the new year. The first few numbers of such a venture rarely afford grounds for an exact and infallibly just appreciation of it. In the present instance they produce the impression of a certain jaunty, amateurish cleverness not wholly unpleasing. The typography of the paper is to be praised—save for the rather sprawling title-page; its character is French, or of a French-like sort, graceful, and perhaps clear enough, though somehow it has the air of being crowded. The first number printed at length Thackeray's "Ballad of the Mahogany Tree."

The prospectus of another new venture, this time a quarterly review of high aspirations, is now being sent out. It is to be called the *Knight Errant*, and devoted to criticism of all the arts, "working to this end without hope or, indeed, desire of pecuniary return." The expenses of the first year are assumed by forty guarantors. Only five hundred (numbered) copies will be printed at present, but the proprietors reserve the right to increase the issue at the beginning of the second year, should this seem advisable. The first number will appear in February, and will be in royal quarto form, with wide margins, printed from a special type upon a hand-made special linen paper. It will be mailed flat, between boards, to its subscribers. We fail to find in the lines of the handsome prospectus, or between them, any definite intimation of the course which the *Knight Errant* is likely to follow.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will publish in March the first number of the *New World*, "a quarterly review of religion, ethics, and theology." It will be under the charge of an editorial committee consisting of Profs. Charles Carroll Everett and Crawford Howell Toy of Harvard; the Rev. Orello Cone, D.D., President of Buchtel College, and the Rev. Nicholas Paine Gilman (managing editor). The new periodical will have 200 pages in each issue, a fourth of which will be given to the careful review of important books in its field.

We must also direct attention to the new *Philosophical Review* (Ginn & Co.), edited by Prof. J. G. Schurman of Cornell, a bi-monthly. The first number contains a paper, by Benjamin Ives Gilman, on such an out-of-the-way topic as the "Psychological Aspects of the Chinese Musical System"; and the department of book reviews is noticeable, as well as the "Summaries of Articles." The *Thinker*, "a review of world-wide Christian thought," comes to us from James Nisbet & Co., London, with its summaries of "Current English Thought," "Current American Thought," etc., and its reviews. Finally, one may wish well to *School and College*, "devoted to secondary and higher education," monthly, except during two summer months, edited by Ray Greene Huling, and published in Boston by Ginn & Co. All these magazines are very presentable in appearance.

The appearance of the first part of Dr. Paul Fredericq's 'Geschiedenis der Inquisitie in de Nederlanden' (Ghent: J. Vuylsteke) accentuates one's regret at the mishap of mankind in the confusion of tongues. The author's position of an acknowledged master of the subject, and the inherent interest and importance of the long struggle for freedom of conscience in the Low Countries, invest the work with no common claims on the attention of all students of history who are fortunate enough to possess familiarity with the Hollandish in which it is written. Even those not thus happily gifted can appreciate from the footnotes and references the conscientious labor which has gathered its materials from all accessible sources, and can find in them a satisfactory guide to the bibliography of the theme.

The most effective pamphlet that has yet been written on the woman question has just appeared as the latest number of the series of *Zeit- und Streitfragen*. It is written by Hedwig Bender, whose valuable contributions to philosophy, and especially to the modern forms of Spinozism, we have already had occasion to chronicle. It is entitled "Frauenwünsche und Frauenbestrebungen." Its simplicity and force, its freedom from exaggeration, and its moving quality are such as are not often found equalled in any argumentative writing, and still less often, perhaps, in writing on this very subject. If Germany had had many writers like this, German women would not now be the stunted, Chinese-like, fancy-work-making machines that they are. The book deserves translation. Although it is especially written to meet German conditions, it is, unfortunately, not without much scope for application in other lands as well.

The Legislature of Barbados has voted £500 for putting in order the ancient records of that colony. In supporting the vote, Mr. Knollys, the Colonial Secretary, said: "In one book especially which struck him, here and there the minutes had been entirely painted over with something like printer's ink. It was found out that those were the minutes of the Council during the period of the Commonwealth, when Oliver Cromwell was in power; and after the accession of Charles II., the early settlers of Barbados blotted out all the minutes which were signed by the Governor who was appointed by Oliver Cromwell." The Governor referred to was Daniel Searle, who held office from 1652 to 1660.

—Dr. Gould and Prof. Pickering of Cambridge, Profs. Upton of Providence, Todd of Amherst, Safford of Williamstown, Newton of New Haven, Boss of Albany, Young of Princeton, Holden of the Lick Observatory, and many other astronomers of America, have united in a memorial to Congress calling attention to the question of the future administration of our Navy's new Observatory, the buildings of which are now being completed on a scale and at an expense which have never before been equalled. The magnitude of the appropriations for this purpose made by four successive Congresses may be regarded as expressing the popular will that the nation should have an astronomical observatory second to none in the value and interest of its work. It is greatly to be regretted that money and buildings have not secured this end in the past, and there seems to be no reason for assurance that the future will show anything different. The so-called Naval Observatory, originally a "depot of charts and instruments," has existed for years without a scientific head, its superintendent being appointed, with frequent and disastrous changes, from the line officers of the Navy. Occasionally this method of routine appointment has secured a good executive head for the Observatory, but as a rule the "line" of the Navy have regarded the Superintendency as a capital shore-billet, and have successfully resisted the repeated attempts at a change of management. Such change is now, however, favored by the Secretary of the Navy, and it is clearly a wise one; for without a scientific head, a well-considered plan for prosecuting scientific research is obviously impossible. Even supposing the Observatory to possess a body of the ablest astronomers, if they are thrown together without adequate guidance, and without any problem to solve, they can hardly achieve success. The movement to place in the position of Superintendent the ablest and most accomplished astronomer who will accept this office, may be expected to institute a concerted plan of work which will restore the Observatory to the respect and confidence of the scientific men, as well as of the legislators, of the country.

—That the lack of competent expert direction of the Observatory has been harmful to the interests of science, is prominently demonstrated by the fact that more than a half-million of dollars has been expended in mere buildings and equipment without consideration of their adaptability to any specific lines of research. Of course if a new observatory was to be built at all, this condition of things had to be, because the establishment and its corps of astronomers have no specific instructions to work out any problem, but are pegging away at space pretty much in general. No private business concern would spend $50,000 annually in this haphazard manner, and there appears to be no sufficient reason why a Government observatory should be managed by unsound business methods. But the new Superintendent, whoever he may be, will find himself hampered by the costly outfit imposed upon him; and the inability to undertake modern lines of work with inappropriate instruments cannot fail to prove an embarrassment. It may be expected, however, that this great responsibility will not burden the willing shoulders of a single astronomer who may accept the directorship, as the proposed new management will include the organization of an advisory council of five members, who are, among other things, to draw up and modify the programme of scientific work, and make the necessary inspections and reports. No harm to science would be done if the council were vested with authority to overhaul the Observatory corps also.

—We learn from the January number of the London *Artist* that an attempt, unhappily

without success so far, has lately been made in London to form a company for the purpose of reopening and working once more the marble quarries in the island of Paros which were so famous in old times. Specimens of the marble, recently obtained, have been submitted to various sculptors, who praise highly the fine rosy color and beautiful grain of the stone, accounting it in many respects superior to the marble of Carrara. But it seems that there are a good many British interests vested in the Carrara quarries, and great difficulty was found in the attempt to raise money to float what would be a rival company. Still, since besides its intrinsic advantages the Parian stone will be the less costly, it appears to be likely that capital will be attracted to the venture. The *Artist* also announces that the full number of Mr. Whistler's Venice series of etchings has at last been printed. There were twelve plates in all, and Mr. Whistler, somewhat rashly it would seem, undertook to print one hundred copies of them—an unnecessary number, if Rembrandt's example is to go for anything. Mr. Whistler appears to have recognized his mistake, for the Venice etchings, which at first appeared in considerable numbers, have of late years come from the press only in driblets of three or four at a time. The full number of impressions from four of the plates was complete some time ago, and the plates were broken up. The last few months have been devoted by Mr. Whistler to the remaining eight plates, and the complete series is now finished. This is not merely a publication of more impressions. Mr. Whistler has gone over the plates and modified and elaborated to the extent of almost transforming them. He has taken out figures and added them, and dealt generally "with a large free hand," entering into the work with "unprejudiced freshness and freedom." No doubt the world will be a gainer by this bold and unconventional performance, even though the collectors murmur at it.

—In no one way, next to army organization, has France shown a stronger determination to right herself since the disasters of 1870 than in the matter of education. Those desirous of realizing how much has been achieved, and how deep and wide is the foundation being laid for insuring that all French citizens shall grow up well instructed, should consult Prof. Teegan's exhaustive little treatise on 'Elementary Education in France' (London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co.). The author's experience in educational matters, in connection with the National System of Education in Ireland, enabled him to avail himself to the full of special facilities for inquiry afforded him by the French educational authorities. The advance since the days of the Revolution is traced. Ten chapters are devoted to a description of the system at present in existence—like most French systems, uniform and bureaucratic if comprehensive, almost reminding us of the box-puzzles of our childhood, in the putting together of which no piece can be omitted, and all must be in order. The system is traced from the period when at two years of age a French child may enter an *École Maternelle* to when, as a successful pupil, he may pass on from an *École Supérieure* to a public employment or State office. Statistics and programmes of studies are laid before us, and the system is fully explained under which the schools are supported and teachers are trained, appointed, and paid. Studying Prof. Teegan's volume and realizing all that has been achieved since 1786, and the intelligence and education now broadening over France, we little wonder that the horrors of the revolutions are being more and more forgotten in the immense benefits from the change now being garnered by the citizens of the republic.

—In a volume of 200 pages entitled 'Die Thierquälerei in der Strafgesetzgebung des In- und Auslandes' (Berlin: Liebmann), a German jurist, Robert von Hippel, gives an "historical, dogmatic, and critical" survey of European and American penal legislation for the protection of the lower animals against the cruelty of man, together with suggestions for the modification of the laws of the German Empire on this subject. England was the first Christian country to enact laws for the prevention of cruelty to animals. The Prussian Capt. Archenholz, in his work on 'England und Italien' (Leipzig, 1785), speaking of the former country, says: "Among the queer laws of this land are two which are not found in any other European code, and by which penalties are imposed for profane swearing and for merciless cruelty to cattle. With apparent inconsistency, however, cock-fighting is not punished, since, in the eyes of Englishmen, the cocks do not play a passive part, but fight willingly in self-defence." By an act of Parliament passed in 1835, cock-fighting, bull-baiting, and other brutal sports of this sort were also made punishable by a fine. As a rule, the Continental countries of Europe have been very slow in making adequate provision for the prevention of cruelty to animals. In this respect French legislation is still extremely defective; the imperial code of Germany punishes offences of this kind only when they excite public scandal —an absurd limitation, which our author wishes to have removed; Italy, it is true, has taken a decided step in advance by Zanardelli's law, which went into effect January 1, 1890; but in Spain, Portugal, Greece, Russia, and the interjacent States, there has been little or no general legislation on the subject. Dr. Hippel discusses the question of the rights of animals from juristic and ethical points of view, with a concise survey of the literature relating to it, including the theories of Kant, Schopenhauer, Abegg, Hommel, Henke, and other philosophical and legal authorities, and regards the extreme anti-vivisection move as unwise and injurious.

KIPLING'S BEAST AND MAN IN INDIA.

Beast and Man in India. By John Lockwood Kipling, C.I.E. Macmillan. 1891.

"My father!" said Rudyard Kipling—"all I have, all I am, I owe entirely to him." That father is the author of the book before us. You cannot read much in it without seeing that both son and father were debtors to each other, and that with mutual advantage.

A law for the prevention of cruelty to animals was recently made by the Council of India. By many in England it was declared superfluous, like sending owls to Athens or coals to Newcastle. Mr. Kipling was thus roused to correct a popular misapprehension. After devoting his best years to Indian service, he had returned, *spoliis Orientis onustus*, to spend the sabbath of his years in England. He could show from personal knowledge that, in Hindu dealings with brutes, cruelty is the rule and kindness a rare exception. His testimony is of this sort: The natives leave a turkey to bleed to death for half a day with intent to bleach the flesh. Tail-twisting is so common that the greater part, probably, of Indian oxen have their tails permanently dislocated by this practice. At some village festivals the whole population turn out to beat a buffalo till he dies. Semi-starvation is the lot of most captive elephants. The post-horses of native contractors are seldom started without tortures which tear their ears and noses beyond healing. Native cruelty is aggravated by many false notions. Thus, goats are flayed alive in the belief that skins stripped from living animals have a better quality than others. The nostrils of a donkey are slit in hopes to soften his voice, and his ears are split from "pure cussedness," without any pretence of a reason. When a cow is sick, doctors shave off the papillæ at the root of her tongue, slit her ears, and brand her with the signature of a god. Brahmanical damnation is denounced for cow-killing, yet a man is guiltless who inserts under her skin a thorn so poisoned that she pines away slowly and so dies many times before her death. A horse who had broken a leg, as seen by a recent traveller, had been left alive for three days among crows, who had already picked out both his eyes and were eating other tender parts. No Hindu would kill the horse, for fear that the soul of his own grandfather, imprisoned in the carcass, gave it the breath of life. Bridle-bits, called "thorns," as drawn by Mr. Kipling, out-Herod most torture tools in the Nuremberg chamber of horrors. Facts like these evince that humanitarian legislation is nowhere more needed than in India, as well as that Lecky's conclusion that Hindus surpass Christians in consideration for animals is ill-grounded.

But it soon became clear to our author that the popular error he strove to correct was only a fraction of English misconceptions of Indian life, especially in relation to animals. Hence his book. At first glance it might be deemed the hasty product of a day. The truth is that it was produced, not extempore, but *ex omni tempore*. It was not made at all; it grew, and was finished, all but writing the words, before the first line was penned. The author lived in India for a generation. As a Yorkshire boy he had been a keen observer of English birds and beasts. From his entering Hindustan he made its new and strange fauna his darling study. For years he kept tame ravens, hillcrows, banana-eating bats, or flying foxes as household pets, feeding them from a plate in his hand. He tamed a huge lizard, and would hold it in his hand, though natives called it deadly. Daily for months were he and his family interested in a troop of wild monkeys which they regularly fed, trying them with very various foods. He accompanied natives in hunts for field rats, which they dug out. He went out in the hawking parties of falconers. The flight of birds—particularly the evolutions of pigeons wheeling on the wind, and their settling down from flight—were in his view among the most fascinating things in life. Then he became curator of a museum where the whole Indian fauna, alive and dead, was always before his eyes. More than all, as the head of the Mayo Art School at Lahore, the most successful institution of its class in the Orient, he could not be neglectful of the animal forms around him. It was much when *Hamlet* "fell to such perusal of *Ophelia's* face as he would draw it." Kipling did draw the creatures which he was required to teach his pupils to draw, as well as to criticise their artistic essays. It is no wonder, then, that seventy-one of the ninety-four illustrations in his volume are creations of his own pencil.

While teaching pupils zoölogical drawing, he was wise enough to learn from them many a lesson regarding animal relations, habits, and treatment. From this source, and in converse with intelligent natives (since he was no stran-

ger to their strange tongue), he became rich in proverbs and other outcrops of indigenous notions regarding both beasts of the field and fowls of the air. On the whole, few men's surroundings and whole manner of life could so well equip them for portraying the beasts of India and their human relations. Kipling's crowning merit lies in seeing that, thanks to the Indian stage of culture being similar to that of the Æsopic era, bestial and human life are closely interlocked, and in making the most of that connection.

The bestiary of India here treated, in addition to Oriental types of English domestic beasts, includes monkeys, buffaloes, elephants, camels, and jackals, besides birds and reptiles. The proverbs, which are as numerous as the pages, are sometimes odd analogues of those in Occidental lands, and always elucidate Oriental peculiarities. Some are pathetic, "sweat-and-blood axioms born of penury and edged with despair." "A monkey with a snake in his hand" answers to our catching a Tartar. "A monkey with a cocoanut in his hand" denotes one who has a good thing but can get no good out of it. "Can there be no daylight if the cock does not crow?" snubs a pompous declaimer. "Six handfuls to the cow-calf, one to the ox," was born of the precept, "Love the cow, hate the ox." A low estimate of females is betrayed by the saw, "Drums and women are better for beating."

No writer has made more felicitous use of folk-lore which so photographs the traits of common folk. The gait of a peacock is admired; hence a man limping with sciatica binds a peacock's feather on his leg, with full assurance that he can thus walk with less pain. One wonders that monkeys, and pests still more mischievous, not only are household pets, but have free course in their pranks. His wonder ceases when he learns that they are a sort of lightning-rods which attract to themselves all the ill-luck that may be hovering about the house. As to the ass, whose Hindu name is "roarer," it is believed that he brays *because he has a vision of Satan*, a satanophany. Moslems have also a legend that when the donkey was recalcitrant about entering the ark, Noah beat him, crying: "Go in, and the devil go with you!" Afterwards Noah, who had supposed Satan to be drowned, espied him safe on board. When he demanded the reason of the intrusion, the answer was: "I came by your own invitation—which was to go with the donkey." Many mythical bits in a similar strain—sparks from a working-engine, not fireworks for display—elucidate Kipling's themes, and might well form a supplement to the 'Arabian Nights.'

The chapter on elephants will shock teetotalers. They will there learn that the beast who shares most in human reason finds most cheer and comfort in a tipsy-cake in which rum, brandy, or arrack is the main ingredient. Again, we read: "It is recorded by an American trainer that elephants left entirely to themselves have been seen to rehearse the lessons they have learned." This story is set down among those rather beyond belief, and it doubtless struck the author as a Yankee hoax, or at least a new thing under the sun. But we have it in Pliny the Elder, viii. 3: "It is certain," he says, "that an elephant dull in learning what he was taught, and therefore punished, was discovered by night practising those same things which he had been taught (*eadem illa meditantem noctu*)." The things taught were movements in the style of dancers and gymnasts. Plutarch (*De Solertia Animalium* sec. xii.) furnishes further details concerning this same elephantine sagacity, and adds: "The dull scholar was seen all alone by moonlight going through his lessons again, and rehearsing them." Mr. Kipling, after telling us that "the handed one" is a Sanskrit name for elephant, gives the saying, "When the handed one puts forth his handiness, man is but a fly before him." He cites Tennyson's "Serpent-handed" as if the compound had originated with the Laureate. It is at least as old as Lucretius, who more than once calls the elephant *anguimanus* (ii., 538, v. 1302).

"The reported existence of wild camels in Arizona" (here called *a State*) seems to Mr. Kipling "a fabulous or jocular illustration of American character." He says, however, that if the story is not true it ought to be. The tale would have been more credible to him had he known that camels were actually imported in scores from both Africa and Asia by the United States Government. These ships of the desert came to land at Indianola, and in 1857 navigated the whole breadth of Texas to El Paso, which is scarcely a hundred miles from Arizona. They and their offspring were distributed in various forts. On marches or at military posts some of them must have become estrays, and may now very naturally range the sands of Arizona. Mr. Kipling's American allusions, by the way, are so flattering that he might be suspected of catering for an American market. His motto is from Walt Whitman. He quotes Bryant, and named his favorite monkey "Uncle Remus." He praises the novel 'East Angels.' He finds tales analogous to those in 'The Wayside Inn.' American boxers and tiger-tamers are in his view no whit behind the English, and Americans need no teaching about horses. He must hold that America is, or will soon be, Greater Britain.

The pages on dogs will be a dainty to all who have either owned or loved them. Mr. Kipling complains that the sacred writings of Hindu, Moslem, and Christian, all alike lack recognition of canine services. At last, however, he brings forward something of the kind from Moslem and Hindu books, but nothing from the Bible. But while sojourning so long *in partibus infidelium* he has forgotten the Scripture of his childhood, and so speaks more than once of the calf of *Moses*. He has forgotten Tobit, a book which a majority of Christians have never separated from the Testaments as apocryphal. Otherwise he would have told us about the dog of the young man Tobias that went forth with him all the way from Persia to Media and back again to his home, as far even as his guardian angel did. This service is clearly viewed as praiseworthy. The same may be said of the dogs who came and licked the sores of Lazarus. One other testimonial to a good canine characteristic, approved by Moslems and many Christians, must have been unknown to our author; else would he have extolled it as a plea alike truthful, charitable, and irrefragable. We refer to a legend in the Persian poet Nisami. It relates that Jesus stood at the gate of a city when the vilest cur there had been stoned and was dragged out at the tail of an ass amid the execrations of the mob. When Jesus was asked what he thought of the carcass, his reply was: "Pearls cannot rival the whiteness of his teeth."

'Beast and Man' is a title suggested by the ancient signboard at inns, "Entertainment for Man and Beast." Kipling will entertain every man who reads him, and would still more entertain every beast who could understand his demonstrations that brutes have rights which men are bound to respect.

THE PHILOLOGICAL SOCIETY'S DICTIONARY.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles, etc. Edited by James A. H. Murray, B.A., Lond., etc. Part VI. Clo-Consigner. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1891.

For consecutive reading, if the phrase be allowable, this part of the great Dictionary is less interesting than its predecessors. In our vast English vocabulary there are streaks as in the ocean, and what obviously distinguishes the present is the Romance compounds with co-, col-, com-, con-, filling 200 pages, with more still to come. But, besides this unappetizing array, one-quarter of the main words are obsolete, we are told. Then, from the editor's point of view, this section of the alphabet is remarkable as having furnished hitherto the greatest number of bogus words yet met with, as will by and bye be demonstrated in an appendix, and is here typically illustrated in the case of *cherisaunce* for the confusion of a critic of Part V. Finally, for no previous section have the common dictionaries been so deficient and erroneous.

The solid advantage, for etymology, of proceeding on historical principles is pungently intimated under *cog*, "tooth of a wheel," where we read: "The Celtic words, Ir., Gael. *cog*, Welsh *cocas*, uncritically cited as the probable source, are (as usual in such cases) from English." Under *conscience* is admirably unfolded the "gradual individualizing and personification" of the word in the sense of an inward moral monitor and deity. Under *commence*, *commencement*, *commencer*, *commencing*, is supplied an explanation of the seeming paradox of denominating the close of a college term a "Commencement." To *commence* in this sense is "to take the full degree of master or doctor *in* any faculty at a university," being a translation from the Latin *incipere*. The very earliest quotation chances to combine the ideas of dismissal (license) and beginning (1387): "By a statute of the universite of Oxenford whan eny man is i-congyed there to commence in eny faculte." Trevisa's *i-congyed*, by the way, invites mention of the substantive *congee*, both from the fact of its curious phonetic decay from the Latin *commeatus*, 'a passage, a furlough,' and because "from the fifteenth to the seventeenth century the word was completely naturalized, and bade fair to descend into modern English as *congy*; but since the Restoration . . . there has been a growing tendency to treat the word as French" and restore its French form. A pseudo-French form has even been simulated in the case of *confidant*, since 1700, perhaps to indicate the French pronunciation of "confident"; and it is surmised that the feminine form *confidante* arose first.

Fourteen pages are given up to *cock* and *cockle* and their compounds and derivates, and a wonderful labyrinth it is. *Cock* (like *clock*, which perhaps never meant 'bell' in English) is an "echoic" word, and was a century late in reaching England from the northern home of the Gallic bird. Our term *rooster* we took from our Kentish forefathers. There is a long discussion of the obscure etymology of *cock-a-hoop*, and it is still uncertain whether to connect it with a spigot and a tavern, or with the fowl which the German analogy justifies our thinking (stop-)*cock* to have got its name from. Dr. Murray's identification, also through the German, of *cockney* with "cocks' eggs," is well known, but a shade of dubiety perhaps still hangs over it. *Cockatrice* receives

the most elaborate treatment as to its origin, and furnishes an extraordinary tale of confusion in natural history. Capt. John Smith (1624) gave us *cockroach* in an alleged Spanish form, "cacarootch." May we identify with the tomato Browne's Jamaica (1756) "Love Apple and Cockroach Apple. . . . The smell of the apples is said to kill cockroaches"? *Cock-sure* was a word "originally perfectly dignified, and habitually used in the most solemn connexions," the sureness being objective. In the course of two centuries and a half, as measured by the quotations, it acquired a subjective and ridiculous sense, as when Lord Melbourne said he wished he was "as cock-sure of anything as Tom Macaulay is cock-sure of everything." The "*cockles* of the heart" remain a mystery; the editor wisely refraining from adopting the explanation that likens the shape of the heart to a cockleshell.

The word *come* occupies nearly eight pages (twenty-three columns), and "breaks the record" in respect of expansiveness. No better example could be afforded of the minuteness of differentiation in shades of meaning which is carried in this dictionary to an extent never before known. It is also noteworthy for its illustrations of the prepositional connections, for which foreigners ought to be grateful. To *come to* (out of a swoon) was used as far back as 1572, in Knox's 'History of the Reformation,' and has probably been a popular expression ever since, but the next quotation happens to be from Marryat (1832), and the next from Dickens (1861). *Come-at-able* is as old as 1687. We should have had the spelling "cum" but for the vice of the Middle English scribes in writing *o* for *u* before *m*, *n* and *u* (*v*). So *comptroller* is an erroneous spelling introduced about 1500; and the *a* in *cocoanut* was faultily inserted by Johnson.

The various spellings of *coffee* all but embrace one ("*kauphy*") which contains not a single letter of the accepted form; we find *cauphe*. Evelyn (1636) is first cited for our modern mode, though Capt. John Smith approached it with *coffa*. *Cod*, the fish, is of purely English origin, and comes to the surface in a statute of Edward III., 1357; but, "parent of sweetest *sounds*, yet mute forever," it refuses to tell how it got its name. *Coal* ("se cole") was so designated as early as 1253; the substance itself ("carbonem maris") was known still earlier. *Compass* is of uncertain origin; it is first met with in 1515, and *commerce* arises still later (1587), with the accent on the second syllable as late as 1702. From Jefferson is taken the first use of *commissariat* in the military sense (1779). The *color-sergeant* owes his being to the Peninsular War, where feats of bravery by non-commissioned officers called for some recognition (General Order July 27, 1813). *Conservative*, the party name superseding Tory, was Croker's invention, on January 1, 1830. All needful historical data are given about our own *Congress*.

Americanisms are of course plentifully noted. Dana, in his 'Three Years before the Mast,' gave currency to the phrase *club together;* and the *clubbing* of newspapers for lower rates is a Yankee notion. We say *coal-hod* for "coal-box"; and *cologne* for *cologne water;* and write *connection* for *connexion*. But we must not pride ourselves on the boodlers' *combine*, for the word was used in England in 1610 to denote 'a plot, a conspiracy'; nor the intransitive *collide*, which Dryden employed in 1700, yet "when first used of railway trains or ships in collision, in 1860-'70, it was much objected to as an Americanism"; nor *compete*, a word not in Johnson, though handy to Bishop Hall in 1620, and in 1824 "styled 'a Scotticism,' and 'an American discovery.'" That awful ban still holds our British cousins aloof from our most tempting inventions, as when a reviewer in the *Athenæum* quotes from our chroniclers of "the wheel" the word *coast*, and sighs, "Why have we not got this convenient term?" The word *half-cocked*, we observe, is attributed to the Australians, by a clear penman's or typographical error, since the first quotation is from Irving (1809), and this slang is perhaps not quite obsolete with us. Then, why should *closetless*, with a single (American) quotation, be deemed rare, and *cockless* with a single (British) quotation not be similarly branded? Under *confederate* we find embalmed the propagandist purpose of the Slave Power, in the outspoken provision of the Constitution of the Confederacy that "in all such [new] territory the institution of slavery as it now exists in the Confederate States shall be recognized."

We had set down a long list of names of American writers cited in this instalment of the Dictionary, from Franklin to 'Mrs. Rohrer's Cook-book,' from *Harper's Magazine* to the *American Miller* and the Wisconsin *Republican;* but our diminishing space admonishes us. We must pass, too, without remark, such entries as *cold cream*, *common good*, *common lawyer*, *con moto*, and close with a word or two about the literary aspect of the quotations. To a fair extent we encounter the familiar quotations of our great writers —under *compound* (vb.) the verse from 'Hudi bras' that will occur to everybody; *compute*, from Burns; *concord* (sb.), from Milton; *condition* (sb.), from Pope; *confabulate*, from Cowper; *confirmation*, from Shakspere. But we miss under *cock-and-bull* the closing sentence of 'Tristram Shandy'; under *colonel*, Milton's opening line of his sonnet, "Captain, or colonel, or knight in arms," if only to illustrate the trisyllabic pronunciation; under *complexion*, Gray's "To this complexion thou must come at last," if, indeed, there is there any mention of the meaning here exemplified; under *conscience*, Clough's "bare conscience of the better thing." Under *color*, some American reader for the Dictionary ought to have sent in, for "give color to," the historic satire of John Quincy Adams on his would-be censors in the House, who charged him with having "given color to the idea that slaves have the right of petition." We do not know that Dr. Murray has any reason to complain of his American colaborers, even if in the sum (on this side of the water) they fall short of the assistance rendered single-handed by their countryman, Dr. Fitzedward Hall, who has regularly read the proofs, and "added hundreds of the most valuable quotations" from his inexhaustible storehouse.

It will not be uninstructive to close with a point of grammar. The intransitive use of the verb *commence*, with infinitive, "to begin *to do* anything [OF. *cumencer à*]," is shown to have been very old—in the 'Orfeo' (1320) and the 'Lai de Freine' (1326). The first modern instance is from Pope's 'Dunciad' (1742); and Landor, Helps, Lytton, and Jevons are cited in the present century. The editor follows these with a note: "This construction has been objected to by stylists, who prefer *begin* before *to*." Americans, strange to say, are the chief care-takers of the language on this occasion—Mr. Geo. P. Marsh (1862) and Dr. F. Hall (1873); Miss Yonge being enlisted on their side (1876). What is to be noted is, that the plan of this Dictionary affords no secure ground for concluding as to the *weight* of authority determinative of the best usage. *Continuity* from century to century is denoted by the quotations; but we have no means of judging how far the writers selected stand for the majority of the class who set the style. Any one, indeed, may say, "What was good grammar to Pope or Landor or Helps is good enough for me." Another may even go back to the Old French for justification, just as he answers objections to the use of the word *individual* for "person" by saying that the French have found it convenient; or of *over* for "more than," by reference to German analogy—being resolved not to let foreign tongues surpass our own in resources. Nevertheless, any one familiar with Dr. Hall's supremacy as a recorder of usage, and desirous to side with the élite, would let his objection *prima facie* outweigh all Dr. Murray's examples. But, to avoid the appearance of dogmatism, he should turn to the discussion in Dr. Hall's 'Modern English.'

TAYLOR'S FACTORY SYSTEM.

The Modern Factory System. By R. W. Cooke Taylor, H. M. Inspector of Factories. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. 1891.

THE office held by this author has imposed upon him a reticence that has seriously limited the scope of his work. He has felt it decorous to abstain from using information or experience gained in his capacity as inspector, and has even gone so far as to give a preference to quotations at second hand over those from original sources. As a result of this delicacy—which seems a little exaggerated—we learn nothing whatever of the actual operation of the English factory acts. For information of this character it is necessary to refer to the official reports of the inspectors of factories, which are of course sealed books to the public. The diligent reader, however, can extract from these pages much that is of interest as bearing upon the modern tendency to return to the mediæval policy of statutory regulation of the conditions of industry.

This statutory regulation by what is known as factory legislation was, as Mr. Taylor shows, brought about under the influence of many causes. There was a great religious revival in the eighteenth century, followed by "almost as rich a crop of humanitarian projects as bids fair to mark the closing years of this one, and a more luxuriant crop certainly than has marked any equally definite period of our national history before or since. It was a time of great ferment on all subjects of social concern—the era of criminal reform, of prison reform, of the first effort for negro emancipation, for popular education, of the first attempt to protect 'climbing boys.' The spirit of philanthropy and fraternity, the characteristic spirit of the European Revolution, was abroad, and still alert and confident." In truth, the mass of the English population was debased and brutalized, and the more enlightened class was just awakening to that fact and to its own responsibilities in the matter. There is no reason to suppose that the introduction of factories either caused new abuses or aggravated those that existed; but it made these abuses more conspicuous, and at the same time brought them within reach of legislative control. Mr. Taylor quotes with approbation the statement of a historian of the textile industries that the system of infant labor "was at its worst and greatest height before any one thought of a

factory." In fact, the case of the chimney-sweeps is sufficient to show that the air of the factory has no especially predisposing influence towards cruelty.

The earlier factory acts, the first being passed in 1802, were intended to check some outrageous abuses to which apprentices, especially pauper apprentices, were subjected. The protective, or rather prohibitory, duties of that period, especially upon grain, made the food of the people scarce, while the maleficent Poor-Law made the people numerous. The Government therefore adopted a policy contrary to the proverbial rule of the Almighty to send bread for every mouth: it multiplied the mouths and reduced the bread. The resulting misery was aggravated by a frightful load of taxation, so that the working-people of England were ground between the upper and the nether millstone. Having bred pauper children like rabbits, the authorities hit upon the ingenious plan of farming out their labor to manufacturers, with results which were sufficiently ghastly.

By some mysterious process of reasoning, Mr. Taylor has reached the conclusion that this state of affairs was the ideal of political economy. At a time when legislation was dictated by landlords; when restrictions of every kind were laid upon industry; when a workman could not legally go out of his parish to get employment; when his wages were legally fixed by magistrates, and when the Statute of Apprentices was still in force, Mr. Taylor informs us that status had "succumbed to contract," that "combination had almost wholly succumbed to competition," and that the conditions of labor were "politically free." Very naturally he lays it down that competition has "for its utmost purpose but to secure that the weakest goes to the wall"; and that perfect liberty of action not only allows but assures economical despotism. As to the results to laborers of the introduction of machinery which made labor of the kind to which they were used unnecessary, he observes: "The benefits from the machines went to the owner first, and the consumer afterwards, the unemployed wage-laborer clearly coming within neither category." These somewhat questionable propositions are explained by the authorities in political economy upon which Mr. Taylor relies. He reprobates the doctrines of Smith and Ricardo, and declares that it is "with no small satisfaction" that he finds himself in substantial agreement with "the accomplished author of 'Das Kapital,' whose great work has recently been made generally available to the British public by translation."

The act of 1802, which was introduced by Sir Robert Peel, himself a manufacturer, is said by Mr. Taylor to have had the effect of making employers give up apprentice labor; but it did not apply to children not apprenticed. Accordingly, in 1815, Peel proposed that it should apply to all children employed in cotton and woollen factories, these being the only ones of conspicuous proportions at that day. The law adopted, however, was limited to cotton-factories, and so was that of 1819, which forbade the employment of children under nine, and limited the daily labor of those under sixteen to ten and a half hours, the number of working hours per week being limited to seventy-two. In 1825 these hours were reduced to sixty-nine, and, soon after, night-work by persons under twenty-one was prohibited. In 1833 a Royal Commission was appointed, and their report has become a classic. They found that children employed in manufactures generally worked as many hours as adults, with most injurious results both physically and mentally, and recommended legislation, which was supplied at once by what is known as Lord Althorpe's Act. This applied to all factories except those of silk, forbidding the employment of children under nine, limiting the hours of those under thirteen to forty-eight per week and nine per day, and providing for schooling and holidays. In 1844 another bill was passed, of which Mr. Taylor's account is very confused, but it reduced the hours of labor for children to six and one-half, while permitting their employment at the age of eight, and provided for fencing dangerous machinery.

In 1847 the scope of this legislation was further extended by prohibiting adult women from laboring more than fifty-eight hours a week, or ten a day. Then followed an attack upon the relay system, and in 1850 all work was prohibited except between six A. M. and six P. M. in summer, and seven A. M. and seven P. M. in winter, one and a half hours being taken out for meals, and work to cease at two P. M. on Saturdays. Minor acts extending the scope of those already existing were passed from time to time, industries not classed as "textile" being gradually included; and the term "factory," which had been extended first so as to cover some forty species of places of employment, and later to any establishment where fifty persons were employed in any manufacturing process, was further supplemented by the introduction of the term "workshop," which was defined as any place where any handicraft was carried on by the employment of any child, young person, or woman. By more recent statutes the hours of labor have been still further reduced, the age at which children may be employed raised and their schooling provided for; adult males as well as women and children have been put under the care of Government inspectors, and almost all productive industries except agriculture regulated. Since it is not referred to by Mr. Taylor, it is necessary to add that, by the abolition of protective duties and the progress of invention, such an enormous burden was lifted from production as to make Governmental interference by factory legislation, as to which much apprehension was felt by some manufacturers, inappreciable in reducing the efficiency of labor.

Mr. Taylor seems to incline to the opinion that the factory system, with all its drawbacks, is not unfavorable to either health or morals. He attributes this result, as we understand him, to factory legislation, but he does not concur with Miss Beatrice Potter, who has recently taken the position that, in order to prevent the evils of "sweating," people ought to be prohibited from working at home and be forced to work in factories. Mr. Taylor does not object to this on the ground that it interferes with freedom, but on the ground that it is practicable to inspect home workers, although he is somewhat staggered when it comes to the inspection of domestic service, being conscious here, he says, of a difference which he finds it difficult to define. This, however, is the only exception which he allows to the principle that Government must inspect all the affairs of its subjects. "No one," he says, "has ever proposed a factory act to prevent any one overworking himself," but this is a misleading statement of the case. A recent act makes it a misdemeanor for persons working in white-lead works not to wash themselves according to prescribed rules, which is not different in principle from forbidding them to work more than prescribed hours. The regulations of trade unions are specifically directed to this end, and it has been proposed that the desired eight-hour law should embody this principle.

In the present constitution of society, every producer expects to exchange his product for others, and he is under precisely as much compulsion to labor when he buys his own materials as when he works up materials bought for him. In either case he must work or starve, and in the modern world the material surroundings—which are all that the Government can regulate—of the mass of those who work for hire are better than those of all but a small proportion of such as live by selling the products of their own unaided labor. Mr. Taylor has the courage of his convictions; he sincerely believes that the ideal state is a vast mutual inspection society, and it cannot be denied that there has been a sufficient tendency in this direction in England to yield him encouragement. He furnishes us with some speculations as to a phase of industrial life that may succeed the present factory system, considering it not improbable that we may presently be able to consume water as fuel, thus rendering the congregation of workers unnecessary. But Mr. Taylor is perhaps not the safest of guides in matters that involve historical deduction, as he gravely announces his belief that it is "among the great thinkers of ancient Hellas, ancient Judea, and ancient Egypt (if we knew more of them), that in all human probability the worthiest discussion of many social problems which even now, though in a new guise, confront us might be found, not in the hasty, superficial, and often sordid literature of our own day."

Preludes and Studies: Musical Themes of the Day. By W. J. Henderson. Longmans, Green & Co. 1891.

As the sub-title indicates, this volume deals entirely with topics of present popular interest, and its most conspicuous merit is its readableness, combined with a directness of style and clearness of statement that will make even an occasional technical paragraph easy to follow by the general reader of musical literature. Exactly one-half of the 245 pages are devoted to Wagner, whose later dramas are discussed under such headings as "The Story," "The Philosophy and Humanity," "Some Objections to *Leitmotive*," "Comments and Commentators," "The Book of Parsifal," "A Study in Tristan," "The Endurance of Wagner's Works." The second half of the book is devoted to a study of the evolution of piano music, and to Schumann and the programme symphony.

The story of the Wagner dramas is briefly and graphically told in these pages. In the section which follows, the most interesting part is the discussion of Wagner's treatment of love. In the chapter on leading motives, Mr. Henderson, while correcting some popular errors, reaches the extraordinary conclusion that "the *Leitmotiv* system, while not truly dramatic, is truly musical." To us it seems the very essence of the music-*drama*—that which, by identifying certain musical phrases with the characters of the play and their mental processes, makes it possible for the orchestra to tell the story alone. Liszt lauded Wagner for having thus given music a new *intellectual* interest. If some opera-goers are too tired or too indolent to exercise their intellects in following a Wagner plot in the orchestra, it surely would be absurd to blame the composer for this. Mr. Henderson justly insists on the necessity of repeated hearing for thorough appreciation of any good opera. He might have

added that to those who can follow the German text the leading-motives never appear to be riddles, for every line of the poem, as it is sung, tells the meaning of the music that goes with it. Here again we must say that it would be absurd to blame Wagner for the fact that some hearers do not understand German, or that some singers do not enunciate their words distinctly. If sung and understood as they should be, there are no riddles in Wagner's dramas.

Delightfully spicy and sensible is the chapter entitled "Comments and Commentators," in which the author belabors two English Philistines, Sir Arthur Sullivan and Joseph Bennett, for their insular criticisms on Wagner. But we cannot agree with the opinion, incidentally expressed in speaking of Sucher, Malten, Lehmann, and other German artists, that "all that these people know about singing, Italy taught them, directly or indirectly." It would take too much space to discuss this point fully, but it may be said succinctly that what Germany (Schubert, Schumann, Franz, and Wagner) has superadded to Italian vocal style and method is very similar to what Schumann and Chopin superadded to the pianoforte style of (say) Hummel. Why cannot the greatest of Italian vocalists, Mme. Patti, sing a Schumann or Franz song or a Wagner rôle? The answer to that question would make an interesting essay, and would destroy many popular notions concerning Italian singing.

The chapter on the endurance of Wagner's works will be interesting reading to certain prophets. It could have been made stronger still by quoting statistics regarding the yearly growing frequency of Wagner performances. On page 77 there is a good hit at the anti-Wagnerites. Many years ago Brendel remarked in a newspaper article that very many of Wagner's enemies were people who were bored by all good music, but as "good form" required them to abstain from abusing the great dead, they poured out the vials of their wrath on Wagner. In a similar vein Mr. Henderson remarks:

"It is a curious fact—at any rate it seems a fact—that the bona-fide anti-Wagnerite never goes to a symphony or chamber concert. If he did, he would be obliged to condemn Beethoven, Schumann, Liszt, Chopin, Brahms, Dvorák, Tchaikowsky, and Rubinstein for doing the very same thing that Wagner did—writing dissonant measures when it suited their purpose to do so. But, as there is no blatant opposition to these composers, we are forced to the conclusion that the anti-Wagnerites do not go to hear their music, or else they are inconsistent—which is, of course, inconceivable."

Of the pages on piano music the most original section is that on the evolution of the concerto from the form used by Mozart to that of Liszt and D'Albert. It is odd that Mr. Henderson, while not quite approving of the leading-motive in the music drama, should find the principle of progress, here as well as, later on, in the Schumann symphony, in the practice of carrying forward the thematic germs of one movement into the next. A little more reflection will, we are convinced, make him a full-blooded Wagnerite in this question, too. In the symphony he justly places Schumann as second only to Beethoven, with a doubt whether even the "second" is entirely just. The history of the piano is suggested in this brief sentence: "The instrument which had been a prattling babe in the hands of Scarlatti, a singing boy in the hands of Mozart, a hero and a prophet in the hands of Beethoven, became a poet in those of Schumann." The question of programme music is thus summed up:

"No one can deny that interest is added to a composition for the average hearer by the application of a 'programme.' Men and women are fond of having a peg on which to hang their imaginations. This is sometimes urged as an objection against all programme music. The objectors say one cannot understand such music without a key. That is true enough; but when the key is supplied, it certainly opens the door for us, and lets us see what is going on in the composer's mind. The music stimulates the imagination, and the two act and react on one another."

Spanish Institutions of the Southwest. By Frank W. Blackmar, Professor of History and Sociology in the Kansas State University. [Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. Extra Volume X.] Baltimore. 1891.

THIS volume certainly marks a progress in the methods of treating the history of Spanish colonization in America. The step in advance consists in the fact that Spain's rule of her American colonies is recognized as a policy and system, and not merely looked upon as organized brigandage, as which it is only too often pictured by so-called historical writers. There is an honest intention on the part of the author to do Spain justice, but in carrying out that intention the means have been lamentably defective. Mr. Blackmar is inadequately versed in Spanish legislation for the Indies, and since that chief source is not open to him, his book lacks permanent value. The blame for this falls not so much upon him, for one may be ignorant of a subject and still honestly believe that he knows all about it; the blame falls upon Johns Hopkins University for publishing the work, and thereby recommending it as something which it is not, namely, a solid and accurate production.

California occupies the greatest space in the book, and this is but natural, as the author lived there for some time, and consequently is better acquainted with California than with any other section of the Southwest. The missions and missionaries absorb a great deal of his attention, and he is very fair and just in his appreciations of their work. In regard to New Mexico he is less successful, having but a very insufficient knowledge of the history of early Spanish colonization of that country, and no knowledge at all of the real nature of the Pueblo Indians. It suffices to notice here that he speaks of "Montezuma" as a Sun God and of a "Montezuma worship" in particular. Of the manner in which the Pueblos submitted to Spanish power, of the legal consequences thereof, of the true legal status of the Pueblos under Spanish rule, he gives hardly any idea; and even that idea is fundamentally distorted.

The great defect and mistake on the part of Mr. Blackmar has been to undertake his work mostly with the help of secondary sources, and without having made in advance a serious study of Spanish laws and institutions in *Spanish* documents and books. The 'Recopilación de las Indias' is, of course, a highly valuable source, but in order to understand it one has to know the principles according to which the Indies were to be governed, and for this purpose second-hand works are utterly inadequate. Antonio de Leon y Pinelo, Juan de Solor, and Pereyra, for church legislation (so intimately connected in Spanish affairs with civil legislation), Abreu, Frasso, etc., etc., should be studied first, in order to obtain an intelligent glance at the picture which Spanish institutions present. Mr. Blackmar is evidently ignorant of these and of a great many other works of that kind. Of the collections of royal decrees (*cédulas*) he knows nothing. Neither Vasco de Puga, nor Aguiar, nor Montemayor, nor Beleña seems to be known to him, or, at least, appreciated by him, and without a close study of the royal ordinances and decrees there is no possibility of understanding and fairly judging of the institutions of Spanish origin in America.

The origin of Spanish institutions in general as far as the formation of the monarchy—in fact, the times previous to the discovery of America—is concerned, is well discussed and represented by Mr. Blackmar. But it strikes us that not enough stress is laid on the influence of Arabic or Moorish culture in Spain. When a people leaves such indelible traces in the social, political, and judicial terminology of another people as the Arabs have left in Spain, it must be supposed that the institutions themselves bear equally distinct traces. Words like *alcalde*, *alguazil*, *alcaide*, *almojarifazco*, *alcavalá*, even possibly *barrio* (from bar, field), are significant of the rôle played by Arabic influence in the institutions of Spain.

The book is handsomely illustrated by photo-lithographs, California furnishing the greatest number of views; and the general make-up is very commendable.

The Cause of an Ice Age. By Sir Robert Ball, Royal Astronomer of Ireland. D. Appleton & Co. 1891.

DR. BALL has at once a high standing among mathematicians and a wide reputation as a popular writer upon astronomy. To most readers, however, the attempt to popularize his subject in the present volume will seem to have been somewhat overdone. The first half of the book is a rambling disquisition occupied mostly with dim intimations of what the author is going to prove. To such an extent is this drawn out that an eminent legal friend of ours laid the book down in despair of finding out what Dr. Ball's theory of the cause really was.

This was unfortunate, since the fifth and sixth chapters contain a clear-cut discussion of a discovery with which all students of the glacial period will hereafter have to reckon. The discovery is one which appears greatly to strengthen the theory of Adhémar, so ably defended by Croll and Geikie, that the glacial period, or periods (for their theory implies that there have been a great many of them), was the effect of the precession of the equinoxes, combined with changes in the eccentricity of the earth's orbit. As the result of these movements, there is considerable variation both in the length of the seasons and in the distances of the earth from the sun during perihelion and aphelion. At the present time the northern winter occurs in perihelion, when the sun is about 3,000,000 miles nearer than in the summer, and the winter (that is, the period from the autumnal to the vernal equinox) is seven days shorter than the summer. On account of the precession of the equinoxes, these conditions are exactly reversed every 10,500 years. About 250,000 years ago, and at irregular intervals still earlier, these differences were greatly increased. At times the difference between perihelion and aphelion distances has amounted to seven or eight millions of miles, and the difference between the length of the summer and that of the winter to as much as thirty-three days.

Croll, adopting an erroneous statement of Herschel, reasoned upon the assumption that the shortness of the perihelion season was exactly counterbalanced by the greater proximity of the sun, so that a hemisphere of the earth would receive the same amount of heat in the short season of perihelion passage as in the longer season consumed in making the aphelion

passage; but he reasoned that when winter occurred in aphelion, the loss of heat from radiation would be excessive, and would tend to the production of glacial conditions. Dr. Ball's discovery is thought greatly to reinforce the theory of Croll; for he finds that "of the total amount of heat received from the sun on a hemisphere of the earth in the course of a year, 63 per cent. is received during the summer and 37 per cent. is received during the winter" (p. 90).

But it is far from certain that Dr. Ball's discovery will restore the failing fortunes of Croll's ingenious theory, for the recent objections to that theory are mainly drawn from tangible facts. Prominent among these is the absence of any signs of a general glacial period during the Tertiary epoch, while, in America, the centre of glacial dispersion proves to be not the north pole, but two points considerably below the arctic circle, namely: in the eastern part of the continent, the region south of Hudson's Bay; and in the western, the highlands of British Columbia. These facts indubitably point to some terrestrial cause as predominant in the case. Whatever tendency to produce glacial conditions there may be, therefore, in the astronomical changes adduced by Dr. Ball, it is pretty certainly subordinate to other causes yet to be discovered by the students of geology and meteorology. So evident has this become to American geologists within the last ten years that there is a great revival among them of various terrestial theories, prominent among which is that of great changes, since the Tertiary period, in the relative level of the land in the northern hemisphere; while the Director of the Glacial Branch of the United States Geological Survey has recently committed himself to the theory that there was a change of the position of the earth's axis which brought the north pole far down towards the southern part of Greenland.

Dr. Ball's volume is certainly timely, since it marks a new epoch of lively interest in the subject of which it treats. But its real help towards the solution of the problem of the cause of an ice age will, upon close examination, prove to be insignificant. We note an error which may mislead the unwary. The letters "X and Y" (line 9 from top of page 82) should be A to B; and "A to B" in line 10, on the same page, should be X and Y. The context shows this; but if further proof is wanted, it may be had on page 92. The error is, apparently, purely typographical.

My Canadian Journal. 1872–1878. By Lady Dufferin. D. Appleton & Co. 1891.

When Lady Dufferin says, in her preface, that wonderful changes have taken place in Canada in the last thirteen years, so that she would to-day be quite unable to recognize many of the places herein described, and when she further says that, in view of her husband's official position, she has carefully avoided any reference to the politics of the Dominion, she gives two excellent reasons why her letters from Canada should have remained unpublished, and why, being published, they are decidedly uninteresting. Her accounts of official visits to sections of the country which were considered remote in the early seventies, but are now as accessible as Buffalo, are about as valuable as a guide-book of the same period would be; while the entire absence of any reference to the political questions of the time takes away any importance that might attach to such a volume as this. It was undoubtedly very entertaining for Lady Dufferin's mother, to whom this journal was sent in weekly instalments, to learn that "D." or "His Ex." had made two speeches and passed through three arches, that the salmon fishing had been good or bad, as the case might be, that the private theatricals had gone off well, and that the children were learning the outer edge; but it is assuming a good deal to suppose that the general public will be equally interested fifteen years after these important events took place.

The Governor-General of Canada, although the direct representative of the Queen, is really a very much less important personage than the Parliamentary leaders. He can at times perform a useful part as a sort of antipyretic, in lowering the political temperature, which is apt to rise to a dangerous height, especially among the French-Canadian politicians. On several occasions the present British Ambassador to Paris exerted such influence with a skill that is still remembered at Ottawa; but to judge from this book one would suppose that his six years of official life had been spent in a weary round of receptions and speeches, varied by salmon fishing and occasional glimpses of "the States." As regards speeches, it is annoying to be repeatedly told that "this was one of D.'s most successful efforts" without being given an opportunity of forming an opinion on the subject; but, on the other hand, the few specimens of D.'s eloquence that have found their way into the book cannot be classed higher than the solid after-dinner variety of the article.

Lady Dufferin has been somewhat careless about the orthography of places in Canada, and, having enjoyed the hospitality of Mr. George Stephen (now Lord Mount-Stephen), she should have known that his name lacked the final *s*. Turning to matters of style, it would perhaps be hypercritical to object to such expressions as "having dressed ourselves smart," but really we feel sorry for the gentleman who wrote a play to which her Ladyship refers as "such a piece which we could possibly not stay to see"!

The book throws no light on the question of the future of Canada, on the characteristics of its inhabitants, on the varied beauty of its scenery; and, in fact, there seems to be no ground on which its existence can be justified.

Memoir of Rufus Ellis. Including Selections from his Journal and Letters. Edited by Arthur B. Ellis. Boston: William B. Clarke & Co. 1891.

It is a very interesting and engaging personality that this handsome volume reveals. Dr. Ellis was at once one of the most conservative and catholic of the Unitarian clergy of his generation. His conservatism was quite as much a matter of taste as of opinion, as, for example, in his preference for the King James translation of the Bible over any other actual or possible. In the earlier part of his ministry he was much impressed by Emerson, and was something of a Transcendentalist, but he grew more conservative in his opinions as time went on, while never losing his interest in liberal ideas. Had he been reared in an orthodox church, he thought he should have been content to remain in it, a liberal among conservatives. He had cordial relations with several orthodox clergymen, but they were such men as Dr. Washburn of New York and Prof. Diman of Brown University. Yet, though Bishop Huntington was his intimate friend, he seems never to have inclined to follow him out of the Unitarian into the Episcopal Church. He was one of the first among Unitarians to prefer the Athanasian to the Arian Christology. In this respect he was a leader and has many followers. In this connection it should be said that Dr. George E. Ellis, who contributes an interesting chapter on the "Development of Liberal Christianity," has entirely misconceived Dr. Hedge's reasons for preferring "Humanitarianism" to "Unitarianism" as a denominational name. His preference had nothing to do with the humanitarian tendencies of the denomination, but only with the humanitarian conception of Christ.

Another mistake is where it is said (p. 162) that, "in common with Dr. Martineau," Mr. Ellis never adopted the name "Unitarian" as defining his religious views. Dr. Martineau frankly accepts the name "as defining his religious views," but objects to it as the name of a church or body of churches, as implying a dogmatic basis of fellowship. Another strange mistake to have escaped proof-readers and friends is the statement that Lowell's Class Poem has never been printed. Dr. Ellis was in the same class with Lowell, who furnishes a brief letter of reminiscence, warm in its praise of one who could not have approved his youthful levity. Leaving the Divinity School, he went to Rochester, N. Y., for a short time before settling in Northampton, where some of his people were of that noble temper which Mrs. Susan I. Lesley has made familiar to us in her 'Recollections of My Mother.' He remained there ten years, going to Boston in 1853 and dying in 1885. He did not make much noise, but in the ways of quiet service his was an enviable success. His catholicity was not merely for those more conservative than himself, but also and increasingly for those more radical; and there is no better testimony to his character than that on p. 290 which brings out this aspect of his life.

Ten Centuries of Toilette. From the French of A. Robida. By Mrs. Cashel Hoey. With illustrations by the author. London: Sampson Low; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

This epitome of the history of costume, in gay binding and with gayly colored plates, differs from more monumental works in treating of the outward adorning of one sex only—the sex whose loveliness has been said when unadorned to be adorned the most. Such a distinction is quite in keeping with the fashion of the day in book-making. Woman as she appears in almost every relation in life has already been made the subject of a special volume. Here she is to be seen as she appears in "ruffs and cuffs and farthingales and things." Those to whom such amiable follies are interesting will be sure to find entertainment in these pages of miscellaneous content. The illustrations at once prove to the eye that fashions have been very charming as well as very ridiculous in the course of the centuries passed in review. They were never more picturesque than when the lady of the castle figured in the tall conical cap known as the "hennin," with a flowing diaphanous veil, her jewelled alms-bag at her side, and on her feet the pointed shoes denounced by the preachers as an "outrage on the Creator," but into whose snares even the sterner sex did not keep the feet from falling.

Descriptions of the cumbersome raiment of wrought needlework of the mediæval ladies, of the little better than no raiment of the *merveilleuses* of the Directory, of the "windmills," "gardens," "frigates," and other preposterous headdresses of the unfortunate Bourbon beauties, incline one to look with a cheerful eye upon the modes of the present day, even though they include some supererogatory street-sweep-

ing. Dress reform is, however, by no means this author's affair. He clings, in effect, to the good old adage that to be beautiful one must suffer. After describing the corset "that penetrated the flesh, took the skin off the waist, and made the ribs ride up one over the other," he takes the tone of prophecy, and adds, "The corset will witness the burial of successive ages, will survive all other fashions, notwithstanding every attack upon it, and the doctors who are unanimous in their excommunication of it, and will be ever victorious over all and sundry."

It is a pity that the English dress of the book should be so slipshod. It is sufficiently clear that the original presented the difficulties of a rambling, ready-made style, and of indifferent punctuation, but this does not excuse, for instance, such a hap-hazard rendering as "Josephine's dressmaker tried back into the far past, even to the days of the Greek and Roman ladies, for elegant novelties two thousand years old." One wonders, too, why the titles under the twenty-nine full-page illustrations should all be left untranslated (though the index gives them in English), while those under the woodcuts plentifully scattered through the text have not been so neglected. Also, a prose translation of the various verses quoted here and there would doubtless have proved, to many readers, better than none.

The History of the Middle Ages. By Victor Duruy of the French Academy. Translated from the Twelfth Edition by E. H. and M. D. Whitney, with Notes and Revisions by George Burton Adams, Professor of History in Yale University. Henry Holt & Co. Pp. xxvi, 588.

The History of Modern Civilization: A Handbook based upon M. Gustave Ducoudray's 'Histoire Sommaire de la Civilisation.' With Illustrations. D. Appleton & Co. Pp. xx, 587.

DURUY'S 'Histoire du Moyen Âge' is justly regarded as the best compendious treatise on the subject. Hence the announcement, more than a year ago, that an English version of the work was in preparation was everywhere received with unusual satisfaction. Its appearance has relieved the college instructor of a serious embarrassment. As the editor justly declares—

> "Text-books on general history almost invariably fall into one or the other of two faults: some of them deal in general views and afford no sufficient ground-work of fact, so that, however clear these general views may be, they are left hanging in the air in the student's mind, and though he may have learned a great many plausible explanations of history, he has learned very little history. Others crowd together such a mass of detail that the student cannot find his way, and the work leaves in his mind only a jumble of unorganized facts. The author has followed the middle course between these two extremes with very great success. The reader can hardly fail to gain a clear conception of the general life and growth of the race during this time, and of the relation of the several lines of progress to one another, and yet these general views are continually anchored to the facts and given fixed and definite place."

The author's analysis is very clear, his style crisp and vigorous; and he has wisely confined himself in the main to a concise, straightforward narrative. To these characteristics his success is largely due. In thirty-three chapters, arranged in ten books, he has been able to give us a most effective sketch of the extremely complex though always fascinating history of the eleven centuries between the first Barbarian invasions and the capture of Constantinople by the Turks. On the other hand, even the author's latest edition retains many errors in matters of detail, and fails notoriously to profit by the results of recent research. It has long needed the thorough recension which Prof. Adams has now given it. Besides making "numerous slight revisions" in the text, the editor has supplied in the margin many critical notes based on the latest investigations. It is to be regretted, however, that Prof. Adams did not supplement these valuable notes with references to the principal sources of information.

The translators have done their work well; and the usefulness of the book is greatly increased by the introduction of a number of colored maps in appropriate places throughout the text. There is also a good table of contents and a very full index.

The handbook of the 'History of Modern Civilization' is a "continuation and completion" of the 'History of Ancient Civilization,' prepared in a similar form by the same editor, the Rev. J. Verschoyle, more than two years ago. It is designed to give "young students and general readers a comprehensive view of the progress of the nations, as far as it is known, out of the decadence of ancient civilization, through mediæval barbarism, until they emerge in modern, and advance to contemporary, civilization." It is an "adaptation rather than a translation" of the original; for, declares the editor, "M. Ducoudray's standpoint is so exclusively French that it has been necessary not only to omit much and to correct freely, but also to fill numerous and extensive gaps in his knowledge of England and other countries." It may be doubted, however, whether a method which conceals the individuality of authorship can ever prove entirely satisfactory.

The work is, of course, much more comprehensive in its plan and ostensibly more philosophic in its aim than that of Duruy. It is divided into four books, comprising twenty-one chapters, and attempts an explanation of the leading facts in social progress from the advent of Christianity to the latest events in the United States and the colonial empire of Great Britain. Considering the vast field covered, the author has supported his generalizations by a creditable number of well-chosen details. Moreover, the narrative is very interesting and the translation is well done. But the work as a whole stands scientifically on a lower plane than the treatise of Duruy. In those chapters devoted to similar topics, there is not an equal breadth of view, precision of statement, or clearness of analysis. There is perhaps more conscious effort at fine writing, and consequently more of those faults of overstatement and hasty generalization which usually lurk in epigram. The chief defect of the author is lack of thoroughness, particularly in the discussion of causes and results. Thus, in the chapter devoted to the rise and character of Christianity, he fails to appreciate the real religious and moral power of Stoicism, and the spiritual significance of the advent in the West of the mystic rites of Egypt and the East. So also, in the account of the persecutions of the early Christians, he fails to make a distinction between the period of legal proscription, beginning with the celebrated rescript of Trajan, and that which precedes it—a distinction of primary importance. In his discussion of the origin of the Crusades, the cause which is really fundamental—the localization of the Christian worship, beginning even before the days of St. Jerome—is not referred to, unless by implication. William the Conqueror is described as "formally and methodically" establishing feudalism in England, with no mention of the famous oath of Salisbury, or of those other devices by which he for ever rendered the principal and characteristic evils of feudalism impossible on the English soil. Voltaire is treated with fairness and generosity, but without adequate appreciation of his great mission as champion against the theological and intellectual absolutism of the eighteenth century, which, according to his best critic, renders Voltairism the counterpart of the Reformation and the Renaissance. The attempt to explain the causes of our civil war is little short of trivial, and the editor is sometimes careless in details, as when he suffers the statement to pass that San Francisco is the capital of California.

Still, the author's defects are not fatal. They are for the most part faults of omission, and may readily be corrected by the alert student. Probably the best chapters in the handbook are those which deal with social life and with the development of literature and the arts. The work will undoubtedly prove a valuable aid in the study of general history. The numerous pictorial illustrations are full of instruction, but there are no bibliographical reference lists, and the failure to provide an index is inexcusable.

Atlantis Arisen; or, Talks of a Tourist about Oregon and Washington. By Mrs. Frances Fuller Vinton. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1891.

THIS is the somewhat inconsequent title of a very chatty and readable book about our two northwesternmost States, which seems very timely now that this region is making such rapid advances in wealth and prosperity, for it is really very little known except by those who have actually visited it. It is divided by the Cascade range of mountains into an interior or eastern half, which possesses the general arid character of the Great Basin region, and a coastal or western half, which has abundant rains and a climate similar to that of the Eastern States. This western coast-belt is warmed by the Kuro Siwo, or Pacific Gulf Stream, and its abundant precipitation induces a luxuriance of forest growth unequalled in any other part of the earth outside of the tropics. Abundant interior waterways, magnificent land-locked harbors, a generally equable climate, and the most imposing natural scenery are among the attractions of this Western region. Its southern portion received permanent settlements from among the thrifty and enterprising farming population of the Northern States several years before the wild tide of promiscuous emigration was started by the discovery of gold in California. The whole was for a long time included under the general name Oregon, the half to the north of the Columbia River being later set off as the Territory (now the State) of Washington.

That part of Mrs. Vinton's book which is apparently the result of actual personal observations is bright and attractive, and gives a very pleasing and trustworthy picture of "Atlantis." Its usefulness is sadly marred by the absence of an index or even of a descriptive table of contents. In the portion which is evidently derived from the testimony of others, especially that which explains the remarkable geological phenomena of the region, there is evidence of a want of that discrimination in selecting material which would come from technical familiarity with the subject. The book is handsomely got up, and illustrated by about thirty excellent

reproductions of photographic views, some of which show that most characteristic feature of the scenery, a snow-capped volcano, looking like the ghost of a mountain, raising its white head on the far distant horizon, high above the dark, pine-clad hills.

The Principles of Chemistry. By D. Mendeléef. Longmans, Green & Co.

THE work before us will be heartily welcomed by English and American chemists. It gives the mature views of a man of remarkable originality and talent, who has enriched chemistry with one of the finest and most fruitful discoveries ever made in that science—the so-called "periodic law." This law constitutes the keynote of the work. It is constantly referred to, and is brought in to explain, illustrate, and suggest. The work differs very materially from other books on the branch of science of which it treats. The main text embraces general descriptions only, while very ample details are given in footnotes at the bottoms of the pages, in much finer print. These contain a vast deal of varied information. The little-known work of the Russian chemists receives full justice, the physics of chemistry being the field in which the Slavic mind seems to labor with especial pleasure. The author's own views differ in many respects from those now generally received, and will certainly not always find favor, though the ideas of an original and independent thinker must command a certain respect. Details are not always given correctly. It is not easy to keep up with a science which advances with such extraordinary rapidity—witness the three gigantic annual volumes of the German Chemical Society. Yet the author's industry has been noteworthy, and the omissions and inaccurate statements will probably be corrected in another edition.

The book is eminently readable. It is written in an agreeable, almost colloquial, style. The translation from the Russian is fairly good, so far at least as our own language is concerned, with an occasional quaintness which is not unpleasing. The work is in no sense a textbook, but, as the most original and suggestive treatise on inorganic chemistry which we possess, it is well worthy of the student's attention, and must be regarded as a very important addition to chemical literature.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Autenrieth, Georg, and Keep, Robert P. A Homeric Dictionary for Schools and Colleges. New ed. Harpers.
Baily, W. E. Classical Poems. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Baker, M. N. The Manual of American Water-Works. *Engineering News* Publishing Co.
Barr, Mrs. A. E. Short Stories. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.25.
Bastable, Prof. C. F. The Commerce of Nations. London: Methuen & Co.
Berdoe, Edward. The Browning Cyclopædia. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Black, W. A Daughter of Heth. New and revised edition. Harpers.
Bompiani, Sofia. Italian Explorers in Africa. F. H. Revell Co. 80 cents.
Bowser, Prof. E. A. Plane and Solid Geometry. 2d ed. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.35.
Carlyle, Thomas. Lectures on the History of Literature. Scribners. $1.
Combe, T. Jonquille; or, The Swiss Smuggler. London: Percival & Co.
Craig, W. J. The Complete Works of William Shakspere. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Thos. Nelson & Sons.
Pepper, G. W. Pleading at Common Law and under the Codes. Northport, N. Y.: Edward Thompson Co.
Smith, John. Doubting Castle: A Religious Novelette. John B. Alden.
Spaulding, Rev. J. F. Jesus Christ the Proof of Christianity. Milwaukee, Wis.: The Young Churchman Co. $1.
Stebbing, W. Sir Walter Ralegh. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Stokes, W. S. A Second Supplement to the Anglo-Saxon Codes. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Story, J. Commentaries on Equity Pleadings. 10th ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $6.
Stowe, Mrs. H. B. Uncle Tom's Cabin. Illustrated by E. W. Kemble. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Tennyson, Lord. Idylls of the King. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
The Critic. July–December, 1891. The *Critic* Company.
The Cruikshankian Momus. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.
The Mysterious Beggar. J. S. Ogilvie. $1.
Tollemache, Beatrix L. Grisons Incidents in Olden Times. London: Percival & Co.
Traill, H. D. The Marquis of Salisbury. Harpers.
Turner, T. A. Argentina and the Argentines. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.
Tyndall, Prof. John. New Fragments. Appletons. $2.
Vickers, R. H. Martyrdoms of Literature. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co.
Victor, Horace. Mariam; or, Twenty-one Days. Macmillan. $1.
Vinogradoff, Prof. Paul. Villainage in England. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. The History of David Grieve. Macmillan. $1.
Washington's Journal, 1747–8. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons.
Watson, Ida D. Unrest. G. W. Dillingham. $1.25.
Whiting, Harold. A Course of Experiments in Physical Measurement. Part IV. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Wicksteed, P. H. Four Lectures on Henrik Ibsen. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Wilson, F. Mary. A Primer on Browning. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Wilson, Sir Daniel. Memorials of Edinburgh in the Olden Time. 2 vols. 2d ed. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black. $10.

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Its career has been one of continued prosperity, *the sales for upward of forty years past having amounted to over* $1,250,000 *per annum.* For the three months ending Dec. 31, 1891—the first complete quarter of the corporation—its gross business amounted to $386,965.17, being $71,943.48 greater than the business of the firm during the same period in the preceding year. The net profits for the quarter were $37,777.18, being at the annual rate of 8 *per cent. upon the Preferred Stock,* 12 *per cent. upon the Common Stock,* and a surplus equal to 5 11-100 per cent. upon both, making in all 13 11-100 *per cent. upon the Preferred Stock and* 17 11-100 *per cent. upon the Common Stock.* It is, however, expected that the business will show a much greater increase after March 1, upon which date the company will remove from its present limited and inconveniently located premises on Atlantic Avenue to its new and commodious building now nearly completed at the junction of Fulton Street and Flatbush Avenue. This site was selected after due consideration, and it is believed to be the most advantageous location in the city of Brooklyn for a dry-goods business. It is reached by seven different lines of street-cars, is opposite the stations of both elevated railroads, and within two blocks of the Long Island Railroad station, whereas the present location is reached by but two lines of street-cars. The removal is in response to a popular demand, and universal assurances of approval have been received of the contemplated change.

The company is managed, under the control of its Board of Directors, by the surviving members of the late firm, aided by its well-known, reliable, and experienced staff of employees. Messrs. Lyman S. Burnham and Hugh Boyd, and Mr. John M. Conklin, for many years associated with the late firm, have entered into an agreement with the company to remain in its service until July 1, 1896, and for such longer period as their services may be required.

The stock now offered is the balance of that issued by the company to acquire the interest of the deceased partner. The 8 per cent. stock which was offered in July last was largely oversubscribed, and was allotted pro rata among nearly six hundred applicants. It is now quoted at 106 ex-dividend bid, with no stock offered.

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Assets	14,074,813 56

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Forty-fourth Annual Statement
OF THE
Penn Mutual Life
Insurance Co. of Philadelphia.

Net assets, January 1, 1891		$15,932,328 72
Receipts during the year:		
For Premiums	$4,074,593 19	
For interest, etc	926,915 15	5,001,508 34
		$20,933,837 06
DISBURSEMENTS.		
Claims by death	$1,136,199 31	
Matured endowments, etc	198,178 52	
Surrendered policies	315,889 57	
†Premium abatements	661,775 57	
Total paid policyholders,	$2,312,042 97	
Added to reserve,	$1,682,907 00	
Taxes paid in Penn	$69,892 83	
Taxes paid in other States	50,653 20	
Salaries, medical fees, office and legal expenses	173,381 76	
Commissions to agents and rents	476,851 38	
Agency and other expenses	144,644 18	
Advertising, printing, and supplies	36,209 11	
Office furniture, etc	23,283 82	$3,286,959 25
Net assets, Jan. 1, 1892		$17,646,877 81

†Being sums allowed in reduction of collectible premiums.

ASSETS.

City loans, railroad and water bonds, bank and other stocks	$5,928,830 78
Mortgages and ground rents (first liens)	6,964,889 14
Premium notes secured by policies	577,893 24
Loans on collateral, policy loans, etc	2,847,816 43
Home office and real estate bought to secure loans	954,049 95
Cash in banks, trust companies, and on hand	373,407 27
Net Ledger Assets as above,	$17,646,877 81
Net deferred and unreported premiums	575,184 97
Interest due and accrued, etc	154,068 80
Market value of stocks and bonds over cost	175,257 22
Gross Assets, Jan. 1, 1892,	$18,551,388 30

LIABILITIES.

Death claims reported, but awaiting proof	$95,292 00	
Reserve at 4 per cent. to reinsure risks	15,909,320 00	
Surplus on unreported policies, etc	81,087 17	
Surplus, 4 per cent. basis	2,465,689 13	$18,551,388 30

New Business of the Year:
8,944 Policies, for . . $25,591,719 00
Insurance outstanding Dec. 31, 1891, 39,723 Policies, for $103,753,521 00

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 11, 1892.

The Week.

MR. BLAINE'S letter announcing that he is not a candidate for the Presidency has been so generally discounted that it will not cause any sensation. Every well-informed person has known since his break-down last May that he was physically incapable of filling the Presidency, and that the excitement of a campaign would be more than he could safely encounter. It has therefore been only a question of the time when, and the manner in which, he would announce the fact that his name would not go before the Convention. He has put off writing the letter as long as he could, and when he did write it he made it as curt as possible. There is not even the slightest reference to the Administration of President Harrison, and it is easy to perceive the writer's attitude of contempt towards his nominal chief. All that he has to say, after thanking his friends for their confidence, is that he is sure they will "make earnest effort in the approaching contest, which is rendered specially important by reason of the industrial and financial policies of the Government being at stake"; and that "the popular decision on these issues is of great moment and will be of far-reaching consequence." Indeed, the letter is as short and tart as it could well be made.

After taking two weeks to think it over, the acting Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Spaulding, has concluded that he must reckon in the Treasury statement the expenses on account of the national-bank fund, and so he now admits a deficit of about $250,000 for the first six months of the fiscal year, instead of the surplus of $7,000,000 which he reported to the Ways and Means Committee on January 23. On that date, he also admitted that the cash in the Treasury used for the purpose of meeting the requirements of the sinking fund had not been included in the expenditures. He said that about $10,000,000 out of the "apparent surplus of $24,000,000" would be needed to provide for those requirements. Last Saturday he stated that during the first six months of the fiscal year $29,986,256 had been turned over to the sinking fund. Secretary Foster, in his annual report, estimated the total sum which would be needed for that purpose at $48,913,025. So here is a discrepancy of about $10,000,000 between him and his subordinate. We recur to these conflicting statements to show how impossible it is to accept any of them as exact, and in what an insecure condition our national finances now stand.

Those solemn editors who profess not to be able to see anything funny in the inglorious close of the late unpleasantness with Chili, ought to read the current debates in Congress. The surest way for any speaker to raise a laugh is to make some reference to that case of acting under the duellist's code without abiding by its rules. Republicans, too, resort to it as well as Democrats. Thus, Congressman Bowers the other day, in defending the Billion-Dollar Congress, gave a humorous turn to his remarks by saying that, but for the large appropriations, we should not have been able "to send an ultimatum to the Indians in Patagonia." The laughter which such sallies evoke in the House and in the country in general is really one of the best proofs the Chilians could have that this nation at heart cherishes no unkind feelings towards them. If there had been any genuine war feeling in the country, it would not have blown off as it did, in a hearty guffaw and a sense of relief, when it was found that the President was able to get in a threat of war only by turning his back on assurances of peace and rushing to the fray with his eyes shut. We hope that Minister Montt and the other intelligent Chilians now in the United States will not fail to observe how conclusive this evidence is, or to point it out to their countrymen. It is safe to say that, outside of politico-naval circles, and apart from boys and those who take the boyish view of a war, there was absolutely no sentiment in this country in favor of fighting Chili for any of the real or imaginary offences alleged against her.

Ex-Senator Ingalls added one more to his cynical exposures of Republican schemes in the remarks he made in Chicago last week about the real purposes of the Warriors. He said that "the supposititious trouble with Chili was manufactured by people who have a direct interest in securing a big appropriation from Congress to build an expensive, useless, unnecessary navy. It was the annual war scare which is gotten up by those same people just about the beginning of every Congress." There has already been a good deal of justification for such an opinion in the quiet laying of fingers alongside noses indulged in by navy contractors, and in the haste with which a naval appropriation bill has been introduced in the Senate. Nor can there be any doubt that Ingalls reflects a great body of public sentiment in the West in his further observation:

> "A navy will only get us into trouble, just as the *Baltimore* did. There is no necessity for this country sending a lot of war-ships swaggering around the earth saying, 'The United States must be respected!' The United States is respected without any bullying of that sort. Nations are like individuals. A blustering fellow who goes around with a revolver in his hip-pocket and a bowie-knife down his boot-leg, is more apt to get into trouble than a quiet citizen who goes unarmed and minds his own business. The United States does not need to play the rôle of a 'bad man.'"

Many of the Western Republicans in the last Congress were very reluctant to vote for the increased naval expenditures. In fact, some of them did at first vote against the increase, and it was not until the *Tribune* had lectured Mr. Peters and the rest of them for their "prairie idea of a navy" that the bill went through. We think that the ridiculous finale of the Chilian imbroglio will considerably strengthen the prairie idea in the present Congress.

We find in the Washington despatches to the *Times* a fresh example of the kind of things the navy is ready to do for us now that it has no chance to bombard Valparaiso. It is described in these words:

> "'Probably the only chance of getting Mole St. Nicolas is to wait for the next Haytian revolution, which can be counted upon to occur before long, and then make the cession of the Mole the price of recognition by the United States of one side or the other. That is practically what was done at the time of the last revolution, but Mr. Douglass let it get away from him. In case such a bargain is made again, it is probable that immediate possession will be taken by the United States, and no opportunity will be given for the Haytian Government to back out of its contract."

This has the true piratical ring. Wait till your neighbor is in trouble and then seize his property. There is just one improvement that we could suggest, and that is to stir up some trouble in Hayti in order to make a pretext for taking the property. There is generally one Government of Hayti on that island and another on some neighboring island—Jamaica for example. Why not go to the latter government and make a bargain to put it in power on condition that it hand over the Mole St. Nicholas to us? This is about the same thing that Mr. Douglass tells us was done before, and might have succeeded had we not been pushing a steamship-subsidy job on the Haytian Government at the same time. Of course we should not make the mistake the second time of having an over-scrupulous Minister at Port au Prince.

Mr. Hill continues to neglect his duties as United States Senator at Washington, and spends week after week of the session at Albany, in order to "set up" the caucuses which will send delegates to his "snap" convention of February 22. The attention of the whole country is called to this shameless performance by the proceedings in the Senate on Monday. It was the day set for action on the nomination of a postmaster for Elmira, the Senator's home. He had objected to the President's choice, and had asked to have consideration of

the important matter postponed until he could be present. In accordance with the demands of "Senatorial courtesy," postponement was twice granted. When a third request for delay was made on Monday, and the Senate was asked to wait until the 24th of February, when the midwinter convention would have been held, even his Democratic colleagues were so much disgusted that they refused to comply with the impudent request, and final action in the matter was taken. As though to emphasize Hill's flagrant neglect of his duties at Washington, word comes from Albany that he has had to leave the quarters which he had taken in a respectable private house there, because the decent people who live in it could not stand the goings-on of the gang of political "strikers" who are his only visitors, and that he has had to go to the Delevan House, where he is appropriately quartered in Tweed's old rooms.

The simple facts about Mr. Hill's career are, that he learned his first lessons in political methods from a man who was first dismissed from the Union Army and was afterwards a convict; that his chief weapons in political warfare have always been bribery, trickery, and party treachery; that he has habitually formed his political alliances with the worst elements of society; that he has from his earliest manhood to the present moment never associated with the respectable elements of society, but with the base and depraved; that he has conferred the public offices within his gift upon the men who were most willing and unscrupulous in doing his political work; and that the theft of the control of the State Senate, with which he has ended his career as Governor, is the logical and fitting culmination of a busy lifetime of political crime. That such a man should presume to offer himself as the candidate of a great party for the Presidency of the United States is the most astonishing event in our political history. Nothing approaching it has ever happened before, or is likely ever to happen again, for it is preposterous to assume that the experiment can meet with anything except overwhelming rebuke and failure.

We understand that the perplexity of the Tammany and Hill people over Gov. Flower increases daily. They say they have to watch him in eight-hour shifts, lest by some bad blunder, committed when alone, he should in some manner damage the great cause they have at heart. They nominated him, doubtless, knowing he would be subservient, but they now see that there is such a thing as too great subserviency even in a tool. He may at any moment, by some display of excessive and foolish zeal in their service, still further aggravate the difficulties of their position. But he can hardly do worse out of his own head than they have made him do already. The appointment of Mr. Maynard to the Court of Appeals was undoubtedly imposed on him by the Mentors. Mr. Flower would hardly have thought of it himself; and yet what a stupendous piece of folly it was as a preparation for a meeting between the Democracy of New York and that of other States. Nothing approaching it in flagrancy has been perpetrated in this part of the world in the worst days. As bad judges as Mr. Maynard have sat on the judicial bench in this State, but not on the bench of the Court of Appeals, and as bad judges as he have got nominations, and have been elected by the people in ignorance or indifference. But no Governor has ventured to *appoint* such a man to a seat in any court of record.

It is good news that an investigation of the Pension Bureau is at last to be undertaken in earnest by the Democrats of the House. It is one of the worst scandals of the Harrison Administration that a discredited politician like Raum should have been retained as the head of this important department of the Government after conclusive evidence of his gross unfitness for the place had become public, despite all the efforts at concealment and whitewash. An official exposure of his misdoings ought to force action even from a President who does not believe in dismissing a man when he is "under fire." An equally searching investigation ought to be made into the no less notorious and discreditable management of the Census Bureau by Porter. That shrewd spoilsman has done his best to avert trouble by giving a good many Democratic Senators and Representatives slices of the "pork," but we shall not believe until we are forced to do so that a House with a Democratic majority of 150 will let him off for that.

Besides the advantage of economy in money which the new bill to regulate the Government printing proposes, an economy of the patience of those who read the *Congressional Record* is also contemplated. The economy in printing is to be brought about in various ways, such as the prevention of duplicate printing and reprinting. Senator Gallinger brought out the fact that the entire Blair Bill was printed seventeen times in the House during the last Congress, having been introduced by seventeen different members. Such an outrageous practice is to be cut off. More than that, a great saving is to be effected, if the bill passes, in the mere form of reporting motions and the action thereon. One of the official reporters of the House has made a calculation which shows that in the last Congress 131½ columns of the *Record* were filled with useless verbiage in regard to the single motion for "reconsideration" in the House alone. The case is as bad with many other stereotyped forms which it is proposed to give authority to the printers of the *Record* to reduce to the simplest terms. Indeed, Senator Sherman went so far as to suggest the employment of an editor of the *Record*, authorized to wield the blue pencil mercilessly. He admitted that the position would require "the most courageous man in America," and feared that even so he would be killed off within a week. The discussion was of value, at any rate, in drawing public attention to the immense heaps of rubbish that leave the Government printing-presses only to rot in the basement of the Capitol or in junk-shops, and in showing the ease with which, as Mr. Sherman observed, the annual printing bill could be cut down by from one to two million dollars.

There has been extraordinary delay on the part of the protectionists in identifying and locating the "hundreds of new industries" brought into existence by the McKinley tariff, and in reporting cases where it has caused a rise in wages. This delay has been naturally attributed to the non-existence of the necessary facts, and we were, therefore, somewhat surprised that the Syracuse *Journal*, in reporting an increase of wages at the works of the Solvay Process Company in that city, did not make the usual protectionist claim. The manufacture carried on by that concern resembles to some extent that of a blast furnace, the works being necessarily operated continuously, and it has been the custom for the men to work in shifts of eleven and thirteen hours. Recently, however, the company issued a notice to its workmen to the effect that, "in appreciation of the long hours of work and of the faithful service of the shift-workers," and desiring "not to be outdone by others in caring for the welfare of its employees," it proposed to make three shifts instead of two, the men to receive 9¾ hours' pay for eight hours' work. The change, which was submitted to the workmen's vote, involves the employment of about 25 per cent. more hands, and an increase in the amount of wages paid of about 20 per cent. The reason why the glory of this change has not been attributed to the tariff appears upon examination. The products of the concern are soda-ash, caustic soda, and bi-carbonate of soda. The McKinley Act left the duties upon the two former products unchanged, and reduced the duty upon the bicarbonate from 1½ cents to 1 cent a pound. It looks as if the managers of this concern thought it more profitable to apply their money to the payment of increased wages than to contributions to the Wanamaker and Quay campaign fund.

Morris, the Louisiana lottery man, is learning the disagreeable lesson that nobody trusts the word of a gambler, no matter if he be a millionaire. The anti-lottery people in his State are inclined to regard his letter, which ostensibly aban-

dons the fight for a new charter, as only a ruse to secure the withdrawal of the opposition to the lottery; and they think that the supporters of the lottery expect to secure a majority of the Legislature to be elected in April, when they will at once call a Constitutional Convention, frame a new Constitution for the State, chartering a lottery company, and declare it adopted without submitting it to the vote of the people. For this reason the anti-lottery party will keep up its fight as determinedly as though Morris had made no announcement. Both parties, moreover, are preparing for the spring election as though it were to be a battle, and consignments of weapons are arriving by steamer at New Orleans for distribution through the State.

Meanwhile the thing to do is to secure the passage by Congress of the proposed law taxing lotteries so heavily that nobody will hereafter be able to make them profitable. If Morris & Co. propose, as they apparently do, to keep at work until the end of 1893, the law is needed immediately for effect in their case. It has been hastily assumed by some people that the recent decision of the Supreme Court, declaring the constitutionality of the anti-lottery law passed by the last Congress, put fresh obstacles in their way. As a matter of fact, however, the law has been in existence and has been enforced for a year and a half. It undoubtedly reduced the profits of the lottery, but they were still large enough to make it worth while for the managers to offer $1,250,000 a year for a new charter—an offer which was, of course, made with the knowledge that the Supreme Court might render such a decision as has just come from it. It needs to be supplemented by a tax-law such as has already been introduced. Even if Morris and his associates were to surrender now, such a law should be on the statute-book as a warning to all that lotteries will not pay hereafter in this country.

A Corrupt Practices Bill has been introduced again in the Massachusetts Legislature. The first appeared in 1889, and, like its successor in 1891, passed one house of the Legislature only to meet its death in the other. The present bill is substantially the measure which was presented last year, only a few unimportant changes having been made in its provisions. It relies solely on public opinion for its success in practice, as all its provisions relate to the securing of enforced publicity of expenditures. All campaign committees or organizations are required to have treasurers, and to keep detailed accounts of all moneys, securities, and equivalents of money received, and of the manner in which the same is expended, and to publish sworn returns of both receipts and disbursements after election. Every candidate is required to make similar returns. No limit is placed to expenditures by candidates, as is proposed in Senator Saxton's new bill, but blank forms are given in which the exact amounts expended for all the most familiar campaign uses must be set down. The Supreme Judicial Court and the Superior Court are given full equity powers to compel delinquents to comply with the law, and to advance such proceedings upon their dockets.

Mr. Chamberlain's accession to the leadership of the Liberal Unionists in the House of Commons will give special prominence, no doubt, to his Socialistic schemes. He very likely had these in mind on Monday when he rubbed the vinegar into the wounds of his Tory associates by saying explicitly that he took the position of leader as a Liberal. His plans for better housing of the poor and for securing small leaseholds to tenant-farmers are apparently to give way, for the present, to his project of State pensions for the aged. On that subject he contributes an article to the February number of the *National Review*, in which he sets forth the details of his plan—a plan which is subjected to a most destructive criticism, from the financial and practical point of view, in the London *Economist* of January 30. In general, he would imitate the German plan of providing an old-age insurance for workingmen upwards of sixty-five years, by payments from an accumulated fund to which the workingman himself, his employer, and the State should contribute in equal proportions. He objects to the present system of post-office annuities that it requires payments which a great many laboring men, with only "a week's reserve between them and starvation," are utterly unable to make; but the *Economist* shows that, on his own plan, fully as large or larger payments would often have to be made.

Mr. Chamberlain is by no means the father of this scheme in England. Its history is detailed in the last number of the *Economic Review* by Mr. L. B. Sladen, who traces its advent in Great Britain to the indirect influence of recent German and French legislation, and directly to the agitations of the National Providence League, originated by Canon Blackley. In 1880 that organization was advocating a system of workingmen's insurance against both old age and sickness, and in 1885 a select committee of the House of Commons was appointed to consider its proposals. The committee decided against the sick-pay plan, and this led the League to drop that part of the project. Canon Blackley's original scheme was to compel every person between the ages of eighteen and twenty-one to pay over to the State £10, while in return the State was to act as a banker and guarantee a pension of five shillings a week in old age. The obvious difficulty of compelling people to pay who did not want to has finally led the Canon to abandon that plan in favor of the German method. On the other hand, Mr. Charles Booth has brought forward a definite plan of pensioning aged workingmen by a system of national taxation exclusively. He estimates the proportion of paupers in the population above sixty-five to be 38 per cent.; but he uses the word "pauper" of every person who has received even the smallest parochial relief during the year—no more, for example, than a bottle of medicine; and he admits his statistics to be thus insecure. But he reckons that an old-age pension of five shillings a week could be paid in the whole United Kingdom, including working expenses of the system, for £26,000,000 per annum, which would demand an addition of 1.7 per cent. to the income tax. There is no likelihood whatever of such a scheme being put into operation, at least not until sufficient time has elapsed to judge fairly of the working of the German system. Prof. Geffcken has pointed out that the cost of the actual administration of that system is likely to be very much in excess of what was estimated.

The tendency of German tribunals to strain the law for the restriction of the liberty of the press finds another forcible illustration in the recent attempt of the prosecuting attorney in Berlin to make not only the type-setter and proof-reader (as was decided last year by the Supreme Court of the Empire at Leipsic), but also the machinist who runs the press, legally responsible for what a paper prints. In the present case the incriminated matter is a politically offensive engraving, for the existence of which the Imperial Government wishes to punish as many persons as possible in order to terrorize the censorious. According to the letter of the law, not only the author or editor of an improper publication, but also "the publisher, the printer, and any one who sells or publicly disseminates it," are regarded as culpable and may be called to account; but no mention is made of type-setters, proof-readers, or other persons performing mechanical functions in the production of the objectionable work, and it is evident that the framers of the law never contemplated such an application of it. This arbitrary construction of a legal enactment is based upon the forced interpretation of the phrase "causal connection," which might as well be pushed further and made to include the paper-maker, the rag-picker, the manufacturer of the press, and the printer's devil. Indeed, every purchaser of a newspaper sustains a certain causal connection with it, and might be implicated in its criminalities as an accessory after the fact. The incident has called forth indignant protests from the German press, and is noteworthy as indicative of the spirit that begins to prevail in high official circles at Berlin, as the result of the Emperor's influence, and threatens to corrupt the fountains of justice.

THE HOUSE RULES.

THE debates on the rules of procedure of the House of Representatives have been marked by little of the acrimony and excitement which characterized the discussions of the same subject at the opening of the Fifty-first Congress. This has resulted partly from the fact that no such sweeping changes in the rules as were brought about by Speaker Reed were contemplated, and partly from the fact that the Democratic majority is so overwhelming as to reduce to a minimum the temptation to gain a partisan advantage by manipulation of the methods of legislating. Just here was where Mr. Reed made a great mistake. Conceding for the moment the force of all his arguments in favor of granting the Speaker power to count a quorum, the change was introduced at a time when, in fact, it did confer an immense advantage upon his party, and when it could not escape the imputation of being founded upon partisan considerations, and not upon an impartial desire to improve parliamentary practice. No such imputation can lie, except in one particular which we shall mention, against the present proposals of the Democrats in the House, since they have at command a two-thirds vote to suspend any rules which might stand between them and any desired legislation.

The rejection of the quorum-counting power of the Speaker was, of course, a foregone conclusion. Mr. Reed and his party colleagues advocated its retention, as was to be expected, and he, for the first time, we believe, took occasion to explain, or to attempt to explain, the flat contradiction between his expressed views on this subject in 1880 and in 1889. The explanation was little more than a grudging confession that he had changed his mind. But the debate on this question, though forced and spiritless, at least brought out and put on record the fact that the power of the Speaker to count a quorum was exposed to absurd mistakes and open to dangerous abuse. Mr. Reed himself admitted that one member of the Fifty-first Congress had been counted as "present but not voting" who was, in fact, not even "present" in the city of Washington at the time. The present Speaker was once similarly counted, when in reality he was in his room in the Metropolitan Hotel; and Mr. Reed made no denial of the assertion of Congressman Alderson: "I am here to say that the records of the Fifty-first Congress show that gentlemen not present were counted as present, and were not even permitted subsequently to have the privilege of stating in the *Record* that they were not present." From such absurdities, at least, the present House will be free.

Neither will Speaker Crisp be given the immense power conferred upon Mr. Reed in the preceding Congress by the rule which enabled him to refuse to entertain a dilatory motion. Left entirely to himself to determine what a "dilatory" motion was, Mr. Reed made a set of rulings on the subject which not only were contradictory, but even so seriously impaired the privileges of members as to refuse to allow them to correct the *Record*, to make a personal explanation, or to appeal from the decision of the Chair. This rule found no place in the recommendations laid before the present House, and was rejected when moved as an amendment by the Republicans. Yet a very strong rule was reported for the prevention of filibustering. It reads as follows:

> "It shall always be in order to call up for consideration a report from the Committee on Rules, and, pending the consideration, the Speaker may entertain one motion that the House adjourn; but, after the result is announced, he shall not entertain any other dilatory motion until the said report shall have been fully disposed of."

In the course of the debate on this rule a great deal was said by the Republicans about Democratic inconsistency. Here, they alleged, was the overriding of the rights of the minority so vehemently denounced when practised by a Republican Congress. Yet as they could not, if they were to be consistent themselves while charging others with inconsistency, object to the principle of the rule, their opposition was necessarily resolved into a taunt. As to that, Mr. Catchings of Mississippi said, doubtless with truth, that the repression of filibustering had long been desired in some form or other by the more experienced members of Congress. He said that "it was a matter of common talk among us on this side in the preceding Congress [the Fiftieth] that we were sitting here like children and babies." He had in mind such scenes of wanton filibustering as the Republicans indulged in to prevent Mr. Carlisle from being seated.

> "I assert," said Mr. Catchings, "that if the Democrats had carried the last Congress, there would have been a provision something like this. . . . I want to make another statement. The impression went abroad that in the last Congress the Democratic members of the House opposed the rules proposed by gentlemen on the other side because they sought to lodge the power in the Speaker, or somewhere, to bring business to an end when it had proceeded sufficiently long. I have gone through every debate on that subject, and I assert now that no gentleman who addressed this House on this side of the chamber uttered a single word which suggested that the House should be denied the power to close debate under suitable circumstances. The whole avalanche of debate on this side of the House was directed against the method suggested by gentlemen on the other side. My friend from Maine [Mr. Reed] smiles at my statement. I reiterate it, and repeat now that not a solitary word was uttered in debate by any gentleman on this side which sought to deny that the House should have this power."

That there is an essential difference between the rule in question and the method employed in the last Congress is perfectly clear. As Mr. Bland put it:

> "The rule of the Fifty-first Congress vested in the Speaker of this House the power to gag this House by his own ruling. That I would never do, or anything like it. . . . This simply says that the Speaker and his Committee on Rules may report to this House a rule by which legislation may be facilitated, and that question is submitted to the House itself, and not to the Speaker."

And Mr. Goodnight brought out excellently the nature of the rule as a club in reserve against the filibuster when he said:

> "For a long period in the proceedings of this body, power was vested in one man on the floor as the filibuster; in the last Congress it was vested largely in one man in the Chair as the Speaker. Here is the compromise—not to vest the power in the Speaker, one man; not to vest it in the filibuster, one man; not to vest it in the Committee on Rules, a set of men; but to vest it in the House, by authorizing the Committee on Rules to ask the House whether it is its desire to proceed with business and its desire that the filibuster be stopped."

The acceptance of Mr. Holman's pet rule admitting of "riders" on appropriation bills, provided they are "germane" and reduce expenditures, we must regard as unfortunate and mischievous. Whatever excuse for such a provision there may have been in the days of military rule in the South no longer exists, and we see no defence for it. It is an indirect way of doing what the House would not dare to do directly—that is, to say to a hostile Senate and President: "Consent to such and such legislation, or we will give you no money to run the Government." It may not be an unconstitutional proceeding, but it is certainly extra-constitutional, and therefore highly dangerous.

One excellent rule was moved as an amendment by Mr. McCreary, and accepted by the Committee on Rules, and says:

> "It shall be the duty of the several committees having jurisdiction of the general appropriation bills to report said appropriation bills (except the General Deficiency Bill) within eighty days after the committees are announced in a long session, and within forty days after the commencement of a short session; and if any committee fail so to report, the reasons of such failure shall be privileged for consideration when called for by any member of the House."

Mr. McCreary showed how this rule had been in force for twenty-one Congresses, but how, since 1880, the appropriation bills had been reported later and later, in July and August even, with the consequent blind rush and insufficient consideration which have marked the legislation of the last hours of so many sessions in recent years. If the rule is enforced, it will lead to a change in this particular greatly for the better.

Also worthy of commendation is the rule urged by Mr. Dingley and finally accepted by the Democratic majority, giving immediate consideration to any bill returned from the Senate with amendments, instead of sending it to the foot of the calendar.

AUTHORITIES IN PRACTICAL POLITICS.

WILL there be, twenty years hence, anybody left in this community who will receive any attention as an authority touching the drift of public opinion or the probable result of any State or Federal election? In view of the astounding blunders made every year on these points by men who cultivate most carefully the art of political forecast, it is difficult to answer this question in the affirmative. There has probably never been a man in this State who cultivated practical politics more carefully than Tweed, in the two great political

kitchen gardens, Albany and New York, and yet he made a prodigious mistake concerning the amount of his kind of politics the public would submit to. Another illustration of this want of perspicacity on the part of an exceedingly keen politician —an illustration which we have already cited—is Mr. Reed's course in the Speaker's chair in the House. After extraordinarily good opportunities of testing the popular temper and taking the public judgment on his own work, he appears to have left the chair in October, 1890, and awaited the Congressional elections of the following month in a state of utter delusion about the (to him) most important political phenomena of the day. Mr. Blaine is another example of the same thing. No such training in the art of finding out where one stands in popular estimation has ever been enjoyed by any man as he has had, and he has had the aid of the shrewdest party augurs in the country. But, for all this, he evidently in 1884 did not know where he stood. He found himself weak where he thought he was strongest, and strong where he expected to be weakest. He cut down heavily the party majorities, for instance, in States in which the enthusiasm for him seemed greatest. We need not recall the error of the venerable Mr. Charles A. Dana of the *Sun* touching the vote in New York city in the Presidential election in that year, as that enjoys a world-wide fame, being an error of 129,658 in a total of 136,656. The annals of mathematics, to say nothing of politics, contain nothing like this. Coming down to the last State election, we find, too, one of the oldest and most skilful politicians we have still among us, Mr. George Bliss, making a mistake of about 70,000 in a total vote of 1,165,000. This error is not as large as a church door, and cannot approach the venerable Dana's, but it is enough to reflect unending discredit on a great reputation.

We might multiply these illustrations almost indefinitely. We use them at all simply to bring us to the case of Hill. Hill has had the longest career as a trickster of any man in the history of the State. There is no mode of doing it or not doing it, in the field of what is called machine politics, which he has not successfully tried. He has in this field apparently achieved all that Tilden achieved, without any of Tilden's aids in the shape of a high position at the bar, the possession of a great fortune, and considerable reputation as a reformer. He has during the past seven years passed with ease from triumph to triumph, each of them more open to public reprobation than the previous one, until finally he convinced a large number of respectable men that, "say what we will," he, and not Cleveland, was the man to retrieve the fortunes of the Democratic party in this State. He persuaded hundreds of these people that his powers of trickery and intrigue, known as "management," although known only in this State, were a far more valuable possession to the party in the nation at large than Cleveland's prestige as the first candidate under whom the party had won in twenty-five years, and the first leader to furnish it with a platform which had attracted tens of thousands of quondam opponents.

Within a few weeks, all this has been changed. It is now difficult to find a respectable man to do Hill reverence or to say a good word for him. Everybody seems to have lost confidence in his methods—nobody ever had any confidence in the man himself—and we are witnessing a movement, which will undoubtedly be successful, against him as a politician who would lead the party to its ruin next fall. Now all that he has done to merit this downfall has been to keep straight on in the course he has been pursuing for the last seven years. Not a single departure from it has he made. Everything he has been doing at Albany during this period was a natural and legitimate preparation for the selection by himself exclusively of the State delegation to the National Convention, and, having this power of selection, it seemed proper, or of little consequence, that he should fix the period of electing them. Consequently, we have no doubt that he feels some honest indignation to-day at the proposal to strip him of his powers and dismiss him from the party service in disgrace.

But, what is the mistake he has made? Why, exactly the mistake that Tweed, Blaine, and nearly all the other Bosses have made, or are sure to make in the long run—the mistake of supposing that because the public stand some things from a politician, they will stand everything. One of the most valuable elements in the success of all the political charlatans on both sides is the absorption of voters in their private affairs, and the unwillingness to turn aside to take part in fights that are not likely to be decisive. This is now an old story. We claim no originality for it as an explanation, but it does explain a very large number of American political puzzles. It is almost impossible to get men in a city like this to deal with a tumor like Hill in the beginning by taking medicine. They let him grow and grow till he comes to a head, and then they are astounded by their own supineness and lance him. But how unjust to our charlatans this is! Into what excesses it lures them! What damage, too, the prolonged success of such careers, with public condonation and connivance, must do to the ideals of the younger men who are thinking of public life. Hundreds and thousands in this State have already begun to admire Hill, and some to imitate him, with the permission, if not applause, of their seniors. How hard it must be for many of them to cleanse their bosoms of such perilous stuff, even after he has been found out and discarded.

FREE SILVER.

A MEETING of the free-silver members of the Coinage Committee was held at Mr. Bland's house on Saturday evening, at which it was resolved to report a bill in accordance with their views without delay. Notwithstanding this menace to the business interests of the country, the public mind is quite indifferent to the meeting, and also to the weekly meetings of the full Committee, at which testimony of one sort and another is taken on the silver question, and the old straw thrashed over for the hundredth time. The explanation of this indifference is that the people do not consider the free-silver movement at Washington serious. They see plainly enough that certain members of Congress are under the necessity of stirring around and making a show of activity for silver—all this for home consumption—but they see, also, that the Democratic party is not going to disembowel itself at the beginning of a Presidential campaign. They see, too, that, if it should do such a thing, free silver would not result from that performance during the present session of Congress. Hence the little interest that is taken in the meetings of Mr. Bland's Committee.

These committee meetings are worth following, however, since they show us what is running in the minds of the members. They had Mr. Leech, the Director of the Mint, before them the other day. While this gentleman was on the witness stand, Mr. Bartine of Nevada made it very clear that he wanted to have all the loose silver in the world, and all that comes into the world hereafter, "taken off the market" in order to improve the price. Among other queries put by Mr. Bartine was this:

"Suppose there were none at all on the market, would that have an effect on the price?"

Mr. Leech was obliged to answer that it would have a decided effect, but when Mr. Bartine went on to ask what would be "the maximum price" in that case, he replied that he should not like to say absolutely. He thought it would depend somewhat upon the intensity of the demand. Pushed a little further by the Nevada member (who put the hypothetical case that the Government should buy *all* that was offered and hold it), Mr. Leech said that "It would probably remain at the price we paid for it." Mr. Bartine's curiosity was not even now satisfied, but he did not succeed in getting any figures that it would be safe to speculate upon. One of his queries, however, showed that he considered free coinage to be the same thing in effect as our buying all the silver in the world and all that may be mined hereafter. At least this is what we infer from the following question put by him to Mr. Leech:

"Suppose there were open mints. I am putting a hypothetical question. The silver simply flows into the mints. There is nothing left in the form of bullion; and I ask you, in that case, upon what the market price of silver would be based?"

Mr. Leech referred his questioner to the country immediately south of us, and said that there was an open mint in Mexico,

but that that did not prevent silver from having a market price. Whereupon Mr. Bartine expressed surprise that anybody could compare Mexico with the United States. Besides, he said, Mexico is a silver-standard, not a bimetallic country. Continuing, Mr. Bartine said:

"The whole theory of bimetallism is this, is it not?—that under free coinage both metals, being coined, are thrown into the common reservoir of the currency, and just as long as they remain interconvertible, parity is maintained."

It is pleasant to have a short definition of the whole theory of bimetallism, and we must say that Mr. Bartine has given it to us in as few words as we could hope for. It prompts us to say that during much the larger part of the world's history—down to within a few years comparatively—free coinage existed in Europe and America, all the nations being engaged in "throwing the two metals into a common reservoir." Yet there was always a price for silver quoted in terms of gold, or of gold quoted in terms of silver, in the metal markets (a varying price), and, although they were interconvertible in theory, they were seldom so in fact. Parity was never maintained ten years consecutively either in France or in any other country.

What was running in the head of Chairman Bland was also made clear by the questions he put to Mr. Leech. He had an idea that the prices of commodities have been forced down by the demonetization of silver, and that the price of silver bullion itself has been forced down *pari passu* by the same cause. But when confronted with the fact that some commodities had not fallen in price at all, while some had fallen more than others, and that some had fallen and then had risen again, he took refuge in a grand average of "fifteen or twenty years," of which he appears to have the sole key. Mr. Bland did not tell Mr. Leech in what way his grand average decline in prices of commodities had been injurious to the laboring classes, or how they would be benefited by a general advance in the cost of the things they have to buy. He kept that secret also to himself.

Mr. Williams of Illinois appears to have had a gleam of sense during the examination of Mr. Leech, but whether it will do him any good or not is doubtful. He put this fetching question to the witness:

"If the value of the Treasury notes depends on the confidence of the people that they will be redeemed by the nation in gold, why not issue more greenbacks, instead of buying silver?"

Mr. Leech must have known that this interrogatory carried the whole philosophy of the silver question. He must have known, too, that Mr. Williams put it to him as an economical, and not as a legal, question. Yet he chose to answer it as though it were put to him in the latter aspect only. So he said, merely, "We buy silver under a law of Congress." But Mr. Williams was not entirely satisfied with this. So he asked: "Why would not paper money be just as good?" And again Mr. Leech avoided the point of the inquiry by replying that "the absorption of this large amount of silver by the Government has had a tendency to steady the price of silver." As this was not responsive to the inquiry of the member from Illinois, we will supplement Mr. Leech's answer by saying: "O wise Mr. Williams, paper money would be just as good, in fact better, since the national resources would not, in that case, be squandered in buying something which the nation does not want and cannot use. Granted the major premise that the paper outstanding based on silver is to be redeemed in gold, then is the silver itself useless, and worse than useless, for if it were not bought by Government, it would enter into our commerce and balance of trade, like wheat and corn and cotton."

UNBALANCED FOREIGN TRADE.

THE old phrases about "the balance of trade," and about the "favorable" or "unfavorable" nature of it, have not remained in persistent use in this country without good reason. Our economic system for the past thirty years has been based upon the fundamental ideas of the so-called mercantile system, and it is no wonder that it should have clung to the phraseology of that past stage of economic theory. Moreover, the statistics of our foreign commerce for many years have given much color to the view that exports and imports normally balance each other, since, in fact, they have generally come very near doing so. The totals of the two for a series of years come to about the same figure.

Of course, it is a truth, and a most important truth, that the exports of a country are paid for by imports, and so that the two, in a sense, must balance. But it is far from being true that such a balance will be revealed in the returns of commodities actually exported and imported. Yet it is this last which has been supposed to be true by publicists and writers in our country, and it is this which leaves them wholly aghast over the present condition of our foreign trade. According to the figures of the last four or five months, the excess of our exports over our imports amounts to something like $150,000,000. By the prevailing logic, this "favorable balance" must be paid over to us in gold, and the confident prophecy that a vast sum in gold was bound to come to us was made week after week by our financial authorities, all through the fall and early winter. Indeed, a suggestion, intended to be humorous, that the new navy ought to go and seize upon the gold Europe was keeping back from us, was seriously taken up by a Pennsylvania contemporary, which thus gave an unconscious illustration of the prevailing confusion of ideas upon the subject.

Prof. Bastable of the University of Dublin has a chapter on "Money and Indebtedness in Foreign Commerce," in his lately published manual entitled 'The Commerce of Nations,' and in it he discusses this whole question in a very illuminating manner. England, of course, furnishes the classical refutation of the "balance of trade" theory. For the last thirty-five years her balances of foreign trade have been steadily and enormously "unfavorable," and foot up for the whole period (1856–1890) the frightful sum of $13,250,000,000. On the theories now in vogue among us, and lately adopted in France, England should have been ruined several times over in the course of those disastrous thirty-five years, and all statistics and returns of wealth and taxation which go to show that, on the contrary, she has been growing richer all the while, should be set down as inventions of the devil or the Cobden Club. In addressing himself to the task of explaining this apparent anomaly in the statistics of trade, Prof. Bastable has attacked the hardest problem of the kind to be encountered anywhere, and the solution of it which he advances is well worth the consideration of those who are puzzling themselves over our own unwonted situation.

He begins by making the point that the usual and visible interchange of commodities between countries is not the only form of economic relation existing between them. For example, there are credit relations which make no figure in the returns of trade, and which yet powerfully affect the real status of the lending as related to the borrowing country. For many years the accumulated wealth of the United Kingdom has been flowing abroad and going into foreign investments. Now loans of that sort are, in Prof. Bastable's happy phrase, "an immaterial export." They go to pay in part for the excess of imports, not in the crude way of settling imaginary "balances," but in stimulating that prosperity abroad which results in increased shipments of goods to England. So far from arguing a disastrous condition of English trade, these increased imports only go to show how excellently English capital is employed in foreign countries.

Prof. Bastable also dwells upon the great influence which the industry of transferring commodities must have upon the wealth of those countries whose citizens engage in it largely. The services which they render in this way are also a kind of export. "A nation that possesses a share of the carrying trade of the world will so far have an excess of imports, which are the payment for the work done in this direction." Thus the excess of England's imports is naturally attendant upon her supremacy in shipping. The Professor asserts that careful observers give the sum of $300,000,000 annually as the amount that Great Britain can now set down to this account. He enumerates also several other circumstances that affect the course and figures of foreign commerce—such as remittances to absentees, Government payments abroad, earnings of for-

eigners sent home, etc. In short, he effectually disposes of the superficial idea that a country's international account can be accurately drawn from the books in the custom-houses, and, above all, stamps afresh the absurdity of the notion that it is a ruinous thing to get as big a price as possible, in imports, for what a nation has to sell in exports.

ANOTHER YEAR OF HARVARD.

A CLEAR note of progress and prosperity is sounded in President Eliot's annual report, just given to the public. More students than ever; greater surpluses here, smaller deficits there; no abatement in fresh endowments; marked increase in the collections of the great University Museum; new branches of instruction; further changes in the organization of the Faculty; a year added to the medical course—such are some of the evidences of good and even plethoric condition. For, on the other hand, how shall the multitude of students be cheaply lodged and fed? and what is to be done with an overflowing and overcrowded Library, with a Law School building already outgrown, and with law-books torn to tatters in the mad competition for the study of cases? In fact, even if immediate response were made to pressing needs, the time required for the slow process of construction is such that a period of embarrassment from excess of attendance and of growth is almost inevitable. But in this particular Harvard does not stand alone.

The accompanying official reports from the several departments afford a lively sense of the range of University equipment, studies and activity, and should be read by every educator, and by parents who wish to form their own opinion of Harvard. They are, of course, summarized in the President's report, but much of their impressiveness is lost in the process. We shall say no more about them, confining our remarks to a new appointment of a so-called Regent, whose functions are (for the college world) those of a chief of police and health officer. "He may also," says President Eliot, "exercise some salutary influence over students' societies." This is the only allusion to a recent attribution to the Regent by the Board of Overseers in consequence of an aroused public sentiment against a certain Greek-letter society at Harvard. That the public ought not to have expected the President to treat this subject directly and at length will appear from the fact that his report covers the year ending October 1, 1891—a date prior to the agitation against the D. K. E. We should ourselves refrain from reviving the discussion, temporarily closed by the action of the Overseers, if we felt sure that it would be noticed in the next annual report even by way of chronicle.

That the abuses exposed have persisted so long and so flauntingly may be explained in two ways: either the Faculty have felt powerless to cope with them, or they have disavowed responsibility for the morals of the undergraduates. That the latter position is tenable cannot be admitted. The compulsory prayers, now happily abolished, were clung to up to the last moment, for their alleged moral value; the voluntary services that replaced them are maintained to the same end, and a body of college Preachers has been created with a view to the closest possible ethical relations with the greatest possible number of students. The wholesome restriction and regulation of the athletic mania had a very large reference to the demoralization attendant upon student sporting contests—as in the opposition shown to the employment of professional coaches, etc. If the Harvard Faculty should imitate that of Yale in forbidding—or even discountenancing—the advertisement of liquors in the college papers, no one would think it an extraordinary interference. Or if, supplying a great desideratum, a hall should be built in Cambridge for student assemblies, and the Faculty should order all class dinners to be held there, and forbid wine as at the Commencement dinner, that, too, would seem only natural and salutary. In like manner it might legitimately throw its corporate weight against any attempt to revive saloons in Cambridge.

There was a time, some thirty-five years ago, when, secret societies having been abolished by the action of a class that deserves to be remembered, the Faculty ought to have resolved never to let them invade the College again, as it ought now, in our opinion, to repress every new one that raises its head. Societies whose end is secrecy have no place in student life, and produce incomparably more evil than good. They prolong both the childish age and the childish code of morals, which is essentially a savage code. The "running" and fagging exacted by the D. K. E., as illustrated in a late issue of *Harper's Weekly*, was submitted to from a perverted sense of honor such as small boys exhibit when they have pledged obedience to a domineering spirit among them. This "honor" led to public behavior such as dishonored breeding, family, and common gentlemanliness; and social prizes were actually awarded for rowdy dress and boorish antics. Even the crack athletes refuted the pretence that their pastimes foster manliness, by submitting to the degrading behests of fellow-members of the D. K. E., their momentary masters. As for the branding of the arm with cigar-stumps, it was, as a test of fortitude, on a par with suspension from the muscles of the back and breast among the Mandan Indians, as described by Catlin; and treatment hitherto reserved for cattle and slaves was courted or endured by the sons of freemen and gentlemen, the offspring of the highest culture, in an institution of the highest culture.

It is not our purpose to supply reasons why the Faculty have not long since made a determined attack on the D. K. E., or why they are content with concessions volunteered by a secret society alarmed by public exposure. We do not allege that the task is easy; but we are sure that it ought to engage the Regent (who may, however, well be a past member of the society in question), the college Preachers and Professors (some of whom are certain to be past members). What is easy, and has never been attempted, is to enlist *parents* on the side of the desired reform. Suppose we are told that if the evil thing is suppressed under one name, it will spring up under another, or that it will take on a still greater degree of secrecy, etc.; yet if its existence is merely suspected, the Faculty can denounce it and put parents on their guard. Such an intangible relic of hazing as "Bloody Monday" could have been reached by due warning. Let the Faculty proclaim a boycott, and every right-minded parent will take sides with it. The mode of doing this is of course by circular, and this the Preachers of the University have been allowed to use in support of their own special charge and interest. Why should the Faculty neglect to inform parents succinctly of the number, aims, and standing of student societies, with approbation or censure? Is it less proper or less important than to "advise" them "that eighteen years is a suitable age for entering Harvard College"; or to exhibit annually, in the Catalogue, tables of cost of living, with a more or less explicit admonition not to allow the student too much money for extravagant and corrupting misuse?

In several places in his report President Eliot intimates the leadership of Harvard among American colleges. It is on this account that we have chosen for comment a subject deeply interesting to the most of Harvard's sister institutions. As in the case of elective studies and voluntary religious devotion, the example set by Harvard affects, sooner or later, all rivals and aspirants; and this consideration should be a standing incentive to reform.

CARDINAL MANNING.

LONDON, January 21, 1892.

IN the Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster, who has just passed away at the age of eighty-four, England has lost one of the most interesting, or at any rate one of the most singular, figures of this generation, and a man who has contributed a new type to her already wide and various ecclesiastical life. Without being a personage of the first order, he will nevertheless deserve a place in the history of his time, having effected what greater men might perhaps have failed to effect, and being, indeed, an instance of the dictum that it is by no means the men of greatest intellect who effect most.

The salient facts of his life are probably known to your readers. He was the son of wealthy parents, educated at Harrow and Oxford, where he obtained high honors and a Fellowship; presently an English Episcopal clergyman, who soon rose to be Archdeacon

of Chichester, and, having by degrees been led further and further from his original Low Church position into the Tractarian Movement, ultimately, at the age of forty-three, went over to the Church of Rome. Having some time before lost his wife, he was at once re-ordained a priest, was appointed Archbishop of Westminster on Cardinal Wiseman's death in 1865, and raised to the Cardinalate by Pope Pius IX in 1875.

He was not a great thinker nor a man of conspicuous learning. In his writings there is neither originality nor any eminent logical weight and power; indeed, so far as purely intellectual gifts are concerned, he was not to be named with Cardinal Newman or several other of the ablest members of the Tractarian party, such as Ward and Dalgairns, who went over to Rome, and Dean Church, who remained an Anglican. Though he had won a high reputation at Oxford, he was not a leading spirit in the famous "Movement"; and he rose to eminence in the Church of England in virtue rather of his winning manners, his graceful rhetoric, and his zealous discharge of clerical duties, than of any commanding talents. Nor had his character the same power either to attract or to awe as that of Newman. Nobody in those days called him great; nobody felt impelled to follow where he led; there was nothing in him —either in his sermons or in his writings—which one felt to be majestic, or lofty, or profound. In short, he was not in the grand style, and wanted that note of ethereal purity or passionate fervor which marks the highest form of religious character.

Intelligent, however, skilful, versatile he was in the highest degree; cultivated, too, with a knowledge of all that a highly educated man ought to know, dexterous rather than powerful in theological controversy, an admirable rhetorician, handling language with that particular kind of art which Roman ecclesiastics most cultivate—an exact precision of phrase and a subtle delicacy of suggestion. He wrote abundantly and on many subjects, always with cleverness and with the air of one who belonged to the *âmes d'élite*, yet his style never attained high literary merit. There was no imaginative richness about it, neither were there the weight and penetration that come from sustained and vigorous thinking. Similarly, with a certain parade of references to history and to out-of-the-way writers, it gave little evidence of solid learning. He was an accomplished disputant in the sense of knowing thoroughly the more obvious weaknesses of the Protestant (and especially of the Anglican) position, and being able to contrast them effectively with the external completeness and symmetry of the Roman system. But he never struck out a new or illuminative thought; and he seldom succeeded in facing—indeed, seemed anxious to evade—a real difficulty.

What, then, was the secret of his great and long-sustained reputation and influence? It lay in his power of dealing with men. For the work of an ecclesiastic, and especially of an ecclesiastical ruler, he had three inestimable gifts—a resolute will, captivating manners, a tact equally acute and watchful, by which he seemed not only to read men's characters, but to discern the most effective means of playing on their motives. To call him a consummate intriguer would be unjust, because the word implies something dishonorable and probably also selfish, and the Cardinal was neither; but he had the talents which an intriguer needs, although he used them in a spirit of absolute devotion to the interests of his Church, and was too much of a gentleman to think that the interests of the Church justified any and every means. He had the art of seeming to lay his mind alongside of yours, anxious to know what you had to say, and prepared to listen respectfully to it, even though you might be much younger and of no particular consequence; yet you felt that he was watching you, and watching, in conformity to a settled habit, the effect upon you of everything he said. It was hard not to be flattered by this air of genial deference, and natural to admire the great man who condescended without condescension, even though one felt secretly disappointed at the want of brilliance or profundity in his conversation. Like his famous contemporary, Bishop Samuel Wilberforce, he was all things to all men—possessed, no doubt, of far less wit and far less natural eloquence than that brilliant creature, but giving a stronger impression of earnestness and unquestioning loyalty to the cause he had made his own.

In the government of his diocese he showed himself a finished ruler and manager of men, flexible in his power of adapting himself to any character or society, yet inflexible when firmness was needed, usually gentle in his methods, but tenacious in his purposes, demanding rightfully from others the simplicity of life and the untiring energy in work of which he set an example himself. Over women his influence was still greater than over men, because women are more susceptible to the charm of a fine presence and fascinating manners; and no one could count so many conversions among ladies of rank, his ascetic face and dignified carriage according admirably both with his sacerdotal rank and fervid piety. So in his public appearances, it was neither the solid substance of his discourses or speeches that struck one, nor the literary quality of their style, but their happy adaptation to the audience, and the grace with which they were delivered. For this reason—originality or weight in the substance being of more relative consequence in the pulpit than on a platform—his addresses at public meetings were much better than his sermons, and won for him the reputation of a speaker whom it was well worth while to secure at any social or philanthropic gathering. At the Vatican Council of 1870 it was less by his speeches than by his work in private among the assembled prelates that he served the Infallibilist cause. Himself devoted, and, no doubt, honestly devoted, to Ultramontane principles, he did not hesitate to do violence to history and join in destroying what freedom the Church at large had retained, in order to exalt the Pope to a position unheard of even at Trent, not to say in the Middle Ages. His activity, his assiduity, and his wonderful powers of persuasion contributed largely to the satisfaction of the wishes of Pius IX., who promptly rewarded him with the Cardinalate. But the opponents of the new dogma, as superior in learning to the Infallibilists as they proved inferior in numbers, carried back with them to Germany and America an undying distrust of the astute Englishman who had shown more than a convert's proverbial eagerness for rushing to extremes and forcing others to follow.

But Dr. Manning's powers shone forth most fully in the course he gave to his policy as Archbishop of Westminster and head of the Roman hierarchy in Britain. He had two great difficulties to confront. One was the suspicion of the old English Roman Catholic families, who distrusted him as a recent recruit from Protestantism, a man filled with ideas unfamiliar to their conservative minds. The other was the aversion of English society, and indeed of Englishmen generally, to the pretensions of Rome—an aversion which, among the Tories, sprang from deep-seated historical associations, and among the Whigs drew strength from dislike to the reactionary tendencies of the Papal power on the European Continent, and especially its resistance to Italian freedom. Both these hostilities he overcame. The old families soon became proud of a prelate who supported with dignity and vigor the pretensions of their Church; while the suspicions of Englishmen generally were by degrees disarmed by the heartiness with which the Cardinal threw himself into moral and philanthropic causes. He was an ardent advocate of temperance, and did much to promote it among the poorer Roman Catholic population. He joined those who worked for the better protection of children and the repression of vice. He interested himself in what are called labor questions, did not recoil from proposals to limit by legislation the hours of toil, and willingly exerted himself to settle differences between employers and workmen, showing his own sympathy with the latter. Thus he won a popularity with the masses greater than any prelate of the Established Church has enjoyed, while the middle and upper classes noted with pleasure that, however Ultramontane in his theology, he always spoke and wrote as an Englishman upon non-theological subjects.

In all this there was no playing of a part, for he sincerely cared about temperance, the welfare of children, the advancement of the workingmen, and the greatness of his country. But there was also a sage perception of the incidental service which his attitude in these matters could render to his Church; and he relished the notion of proving that a Roman Cardinal could also be a patriotic and philanthropic Englishman. He saw the value of these things and used them, and, though he was not artful, he was full of art. Truth, for its own sake, he did not love nor seek, but, having once formed his conclusions, subordinated everything else to them. Power he loved, yet not selfishly, but rather to promote the objects he cared for. But to his church he was devoted heart and soul; nor could any one have better served it so far as England was concerned. No one in our time, hardly even Newman, has done so much to sap and remove the old Protestant fears and jealousies of Rome—fears and jealousies which some of us hold to have been more reasonable than the easy indifference and self-styled liberality of the present day will allow. Truly the Church of Rome is a wonderful institution, fertile beyond any other, since in its old age it can give birth to new types of force and brilliance. In Manning it produced a figure full of a kind of charm and strength which no Protestant body could have reared, a man who never obtruded a claim, yet never yielded one, who was the loyal servant of a spiritual despotism, yet apparently in sympathy with democratic ideas and movements, equally welcome among the poorest Irish of his diocese and at the gatherings of the great, ready to join in every good work with those most opposed to his own doctrines, yet standing detached as the austere and confident representative of an unbending, world-embracing power.

O. D.

THE ACADEMY OF FINE ARTS.—II.

PARIS, January 23, 1892.

DURING the reign of Louis Philippe the composition and the attributions of the Academy of Fine Arts remained as they had been organized by Louis XVIII. The other academies

also continued subject to the same rule. The only reform which took place, and this was a return to the past, was the reëstablishment, in 1832, under the name of Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, of the second class, which had been founded in 1795, and had been suppressed seven years afterwards.

Louis Philippe, as I have said, had no great love for art. The restoration of Versailles was for him the occasion for encouraging Horace Vernet, who became his favorite painter. Horace Vernet had an admirable facility; he painted great historical battles with an extraordinary rapidity. The rooms which he filled with his canvases at Versailles are still visited by hundreds of people every year, and his pictures have preserved a freshness which is wonderful. Horace Vernet had no "system": he was not a pupil of Gros or of Gérard; he was a naturalist. He had made a special study of the horse, of military uniforms; he became the painter of the conquest of Africa. Louis Philippe formed the historical museum of Versailles with great celerity, and Horace Vernet's rapidity suited his purposes. The accounts published after the Revolution of 1848 of the civil list of Louis Philippe show that he had spent in 1848 nearly twenty million francs, wholly from this civil list, for the restoration of Versailles and for the works of art which fill its galleries. A splendid fête was given on the 10th of June, 1837, at the palace of Versailles, on the occasion of its inauguration as a museum. The five classes of the Institute figured in it, as well as all the artists, even the most humble, who had had a hand in the realization of the King's project. The "Misanthrope" and "Esther" were played in the beautiful theatre of the palace; Horace Vernet was the hero of this fête; everybody admired his beautiful pictures, which were a sort of illustration of the recent exploits of the French Army.

When the revolution of February broke out, the Academy was on the point of exercising one of its prerogatives, which was the selection of the works of art admitted to the annual exposition. This exposition used to take place in the rooms of the Louvre. The new Government applied in artistic matters the principles which had been proclaimed from the steps of the Hôtel de Ville: as the right of suffrage had been given to every Frenchman, all the works of art sent for examination in 1848 were admitted without exception. The result was deplorable: some of the pictures were not fit to become sign-boards. The principle of universal admission was abandoned, and ever since a special jury has had to be elected by the artists themselves.

The patronage of the Academy extended over the French School of Rome. All who have lived in the capital of Italy know the Villa Medici. In 1848 the Director and the young *pensionnaires* had to leave Rome; they were denounced as revolutionists and threatened by the *codini;* they took refuge in Florence, and returned to Rome only after the city had been taken by a French army. Horace Vernet was for some time director of the school of the Villa Medici; the post has always been much envied by French artists. Horace Vernet had Ingres for his successor.

The constitution and the privileges of the Academy were, on the whole, respected by the Republic of 1848. It was reserved for the Second Empire to strike a great blow at them. For sixty years the Institute had had the right to regulate its public meetings, to distribute the places, to appoint its functionaries, librarians, secretaries. What was equally important, its members were the sole judges in the competitions for the various prizes given either by the different or by the united academies. The Government diminished this precious prerogative. As for what concerned the Academy of Fine Arts, it assumed the right to choose the judges among the various members of the Academy. A long struggle ensued. After five years of discussion and of protestation, the effects of the imperial decree were practically annulled. The Emperor, in order to soothe the wounded feelings of the Institute, created a prize of 20,000 francs, which was to be given every two years by the five classes judging in common, "to the work, or to the discovery, which was judged the most likely to honor or to serve the country." This is called the biennial prize.

Ingres, Paul Delaroche, Horace Vernet, Paul Delacroix were the most famous members of the Academy. The three last died in rapid succession, Delaroche on the 4th of November, 1856. For twenty-four years he had exercised a great influence in the Academy; his salon as well as his atelier had become a centre of attraction. Horace Vernet was not so influential in the Academy; he was more personal, more susceptible; he died in 1863. Eugène Delacroix died six months afterwards. No painter has been more discussed; he has even now ardent friends and ardent enemies. He was a great colorist, but his drawing was imperfect, or rather seems imperfect, because he liked contorted and extraordinary attitudes. Ingres, who has been as much discussed as Delacroix, died in 1867, at the age of eighty-six.

It is certainly to the credit of the Duke of Orleans, the eldest son of Louis Philippe, who met such an untimely end by jumping out of his carriage, that he used to visit the painters in their studios and give them orders himself. He ordered the "Stratonice" of Ingres, and the "Assassination of the Duc de Guise" of Delaroche. These two famous pictures are of the same size; they are not large, and were ordered by the Duke for his own rooms. They are now in the galleries of the Duc d'Aumale at Chantilly. I have heard that one day Decamps, who was at the time quite unknown, saw the Duke of Orleans enter his studio with a long loaf of bread, such as is made by Paris bakers, under his arm. "How is this, your Royal Highness?" "Well, your porter asked me if I would not take this bread to you, as he could not just now mount your stairs." Decamps was chosen by the Duke of Orleans, with Raffet and some others, for the illustration of a magnificent work on his campaigns against the Kabyles.

The siege of Paris and the Commune were great trials for the Academy of Fine Arts; many of its members saw their work destroyed by fire: MM. Lesueur and Baltard, who had constructed or completed the Hôtel de Ville; Lehmann, Léon Cogniet, Cabanel, who had adorned its rooms and galleries with their pictures, beside the famous ceilings of Ingres and Delacroix; M. Duc, the architect of the new Palais de Justice, which was almost entirely ruined in its interior parts; M. Lefuel, who saw the library of the Louvre consumed by the flames, with the fine walls which he had decorated, as well as the magnificent apartments which he had arranged in the Tuileries. One house was entirely burned by the Communists in the Rue de Lille, opposite the Cour des Comptes, which now stands as the only ruin and witness of the Commune. It had been the house of the two Mariettes, and had become the home of a member of the Academy, M. Gatteaux, who had made it one of the objects of his life to collect all the studies and drawings of Ingres; he had collected also pictures by Sebastiano del Piombo, by Poussin, etc.; fine bronzes, enamels, drawings of the old masters, engravings. M. Gatteaux intended to leave all his collections to the National Library. Nearly all was burned. A picture by Memling, now in the Louvre, the "Mystic Marriage of Saint Catherine," was saved because it happened to be at the time in the house of an engraver. M. Gatteaux bore with great fortitude the loss of his magnificent collection, the finest in Paris at the time, and died in 1881, at the age of ninety-three years.

Auber, likewise, the musician, also an Academician, died at a very advanced age. He was of a very gay disposition. He once told a friend who complained of getting old, and pitied him, too: "Well, I accommodate myself to old age because it is the only way thus far discovered of living long." Still, when he reached his eighty-ninth year, he said: "There must be no exaggeration in anything; I have lived too long." He died on the 12th of May, 1871, during the Commune. The Communists wished to make a great ceremony of his funeral, as he was an extremely popular composer. To save him from this civic funeral, Ambroise Thomas, his friend, had to conceal his body secretly in the vaults of the Madeleine.

Under the reign of Napoleon I., as well as under the following reigns, the day of the public annual session of the five academies was the fête-day of the sovereign. In 1871, it was decided, as the Government had become republican, that this session should be held on the anniversary of the foundation of the Institute. The ceremony took place for the first time on the 25th of October, 1871. There were present M. Thiers, who was then President, and four of the Ministers of the Republic, MM. Dufaure, de Rémusat, Jules Favre, and Jules Simon, all Academicians. Since 1870, the Academy is again in full possession of its old prerogatives; it simply chooses freely artists who are still outside of the company, as supplementary judges for the distribution of its prizes; but it is sovereign in the choice of its laureates and of the young artists who are sent to the School of Rome. The patronage of the Academy extends every year. Baron Taylor has given to it a fund for pensions which are to be bestowed on old artists; this fund has been increased by the Brothers Galignani, who started long ago the only English paper which has for a long time been published in Paris. The Comtesse de Caen left a sum of money the interest of which has to be distributed yearly to the young pensioners of the School of Rome who come back to Paris and are still unknown. Mme. de Caen remembered that some of the best pupils of the School of Rome had at first had very hard times in Paris, especially the sculptors. A very touching legacy made to the Academy is the legacy of Dubosc, an ancient model. "Having," said he in his will, "begun to be a model in 1804, at the age of seven years, and having continued to be one till I was sixty-two years old, I have spent my life among artists, and I wish that after my death my small fortune should be employed in some foundation which will be useful to them."

It would be too long to give the whole list of the benefactors of the Academy and of the Institute. Last, but not least, comes the Duc d'Aumale, who has given to the five classes of the Institute the vast domain of Chantilly, with its forest, château, and the magnificent collections which it contains.

Correspondence.

MR. KENNAN AND SIBERIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a review of my book, 'Siberia and the Exile System,' published in the *Nation* of January 14, your reviewer says:

"The first thing which strikes the ordinary reader is the delightful and graphic style in which the book is written. Nothing could be better. It takes somewhat deeper knowledge and observation to appreciate another quality, viz., the art with which the omission of what is not desired is concealed. It is the commonest of practices to state only one side of a question, but the knack of doing so in a manner which shall leave the reader utterly unconscious that another side exists is a rare gift."

Will you kindly permit me to call the attention of the reviewer to a few pages of my work that he seems to have overlooked? The side of the Siberian question that I am accused of having artfully concealed is, of course, the good or favorable side. I am charged with an "intention to see everything in the blackest possible light," and to present everything in such a way as to "leave the reader utterly unconscious" that a lighter side exists. The word "everything" is somewhat vague and sweeping, but it is meant to include, I presume, Siberian prisons, Siberian officials, the Siberian exile system, and the treatment of criminals in the Siberian penal settlements. Your reviewer half asserts and half insinuates that I have said everything of an unfavorable nature that I could possibly find to say about these subjects, and that I have artfully concealed everything that would have a tendency to lighten or relieve the dark picture of Siberian penal life. Do the pages of my work furnish any justification for this sweeping and unqualified charge of premeditated dishonesty? I think not. The limited amount of space that can be given to such a communication as this will not permit me, of course, to quote here all that I have said, in two bulky volumes, in praise of Siberian prisons and Siberian officials; but three or four citations will be enough, I trust, to show that I have presented the favorable side of Russian penal institutions whenever there was a favorable side to present, and that if any one is to be charged with "clever lightness" and artful concealment, it is the reviewer.

In vol. i., pp. 299–301, of 'Siberia and the Exile System,' in speaking of the life of exiles on the convict barges between Tiumen and Tomsk, I state the fact that, for fifteen years, there has been a steady improvement in the hygienic condition of these barges and a corresponding decrease in the sick and death-rates, and then add that—

"In my judgment the inspector of exile transportation and the local Siberian authorities are now doing all that lies in their power to do for the comfort and health of exiles on the voyage between Tiumen and Tomsk. The barges are thoroughly cleaned and fumigated after every trip, and the prisoners are as well fed and cared for as they can be with the limited sum of money that the Government appropriates for the purpose. The suffering and disease which still exist are attributable, mainly, to overcrowding; and overcrowding the Siberian officials cannot prevent."

In vol. ii., pp. 125–127, I give a very favorable and commendatory description of the new convict prison at Verkhni Udinsk, in the province of the Trans-Baikal, in the course of which I say that—

"The *kámeras* [cells] were all large, well lighted and well ventilated, and every one of them, above the basement, had an extensive outlook over the surrounding country through at least three large windows. The corridors were twelve or fifteen feet wide; the stairways were of stone with iron balustrades; the solitary-confinement cells were as spacious as an ordinary American hall bed-room; the arrangements for heating, ventilation, and cleanliness seemed to me to be as nearly perfect as they could be made; and, as a whole, the prison impressed me as being the very best I had seen in Russia, and one of the best I had ever seen in any country."

In vol. ii., pp. 346–350, I give a long and favorable description of the Alexandrófski convict prison, near Irkútsk, in the course of which I say:

"We were taken first to the mills where 75 or 100 convicts were grinding rye. The air here was fresh and good; the labor, although hard, was not excessive, and the men who turned the cranks of the clumsy machines were relieved by others as fast as they became tired. This was the only hard labor that the inmates of the prison were required to perform, and it occupied only three or four hours a day. From the mills we went to the *kámeras*, which filled the greater part of the large building and which were occupied by from 15 to 75 men each. They varied greatly in size and form, but all were large enough for the number of convicts that they contained, the ceilings in them were high, the air everywhere was good, the floors and sleeping-benches were scrupulously clean, and nothing seemed to call for unfavorable criticism except, perhaps, the lack of bedding. The corridors into which the *kámeras* opened were high, spacious, and fairly well lighted, and the air in them seemed to be almost as pure as that out of doors. From the *kámeras* we went to the kitchens, where food was prepared every day for more than a thousand men, and where I could discover nothing that was out of harmony with the neatness and good order that prevailed in other parts of the building. . . . After paying a visit to the hospital, which contained only forty-two patients, and which was clean, well ventilated and in perfect order, we expressed ourselves as satisfied with our inspection of the prison and returned to Mr. Sipiagin's house. . . . Taken altogether, the Alexandrófski prison seemed to me to be in the highest degree creditable to its warden, and not discreditable to the Russian prison administration. It gives me great pleasure to say this, because I did not find much to approve in Siberian prisons generally, and I am glad to have an opportunity to praise where praise is deserved."

In vol. ii., pp. 366–368, I give a favorable description of the prisons in Krasnoyarsk, in the course of which I say:

"We made a careful examination, on Wednesday, of the Krasnoyarsk city prison, the exile forwarding prison, and the prison hospital, and I am glad to be able to say a good word for all of them. . . . At the time when we inspected them they were in better condition than any prisons that we had seen in Siberia, except the military prison at Ust Kamenogórsk and the Alexandrófski central prison near Irkútsk. The hospital connected with the Krasnoyarsk prisons seemed to me to be worthy of almost unqualified praise. It was scrupulously clean, perfectly ventilated, well supplied, apparently, with bed-linen, medicines, and surgical appliances, and in irreproachable sanitary condition generally. . . . At the time when we saw it I should have been willing, if necessary, to go into it for treatment myself."

In view of the above citations, I beg leave to ask your accomplished critic where he finds his warrant for the insinuation that I have tried to "see everything in the blackest possible light," and that I have artfully concealed from my readers even the fact that there is a brighter side to Siberian prison life? At whose door should the charge of artful concealment justly lie—at the door of the author who praises Russian penal institutions whenever he can do so truthfully, or at the door of the reviewer who, with "clever lightness," skips over all the praise, intimates coolly and confidently that there is none, and then proceeds, upon a false assumption, to charge the author with conscious and premeditated dishonesty? If the quotations that I have made from my book do not indicate a disposition on my part to see and present the light as well as the dark side of Siberian prison life, what do they indicate?

It is true that I have given more space in my book to bad prisons than to good ones; but, inasmuch as the bad outnumbered the good in the proportion of about ten to one, I could not well do otherwise. It is not true, however, that I have intentionally or consciously suppressed or concealed a single fact, within my knowledge, that would lighten the picture of Siberian penal life. I have always spoken well of Russian prisons, officials, and penal methods, when I could do so honestly. In vol. i., p. 270, I referred with approbation to a reform which had then recently been made in the method of forwarding criminals eastward from Tomsk—a reform which consisted in the separation of the sexes in convict marching parties; in vol. ii., p. 127, I spoke favorably of the new *étapes* erected by the Government at a cost of $200,000, in the province of the Trans-Baikal; in vol. ii., appendix F, I gave a tabular statement of the improvements and ameliorations in the condition of Siberian prisons and prisoners that had been made since my return from Siberia so far as they appeared in the reports of the Russian prison administration; in vol. ii., pp. 469–470, I gave an outline of the series of reforms in the exile system that had been projected by the Government and were under consideration when I left the empire; and, finally, I spoke favorably—sometimes very favorably—of Siberian officials in vol. i., pp. 168, 288, 300, 307, 308, 319, 345–346, and in vol. ii., pp. 42, 216–222, 290–291, 350, 368, 370, 371, and 467.

From the fact that your reviewer quotes a comment made upon my book by some unnamed person in Siberia, I infer that he has a Siberian correspondent. I respectfully and courteously challenge the reviewer or the correspondent to produce from ten years' files of any Siberian newspaper as many favorable descriptions of Siberian prisons and as many favorable references to Siberian officials as may be found in the two volumes of my book. Your reviewer admits, in his second article (published in the *Nation* of January 21), that I have spoken well, on the whole, of Siberian officials, and even says: "If there is one thing that Mr. Kennan has succeeded in demonstrating more plainly than the general high average of Russian character in the officers, . . . it is not only that the Russian Government is fully aware of the evil state of the Siberian prisons and *étapes*, but that it has appropriated funds and given orders for the construction of new and suitable buildings."

Will the reviewer be kind enough to explain how I have managed to demonstrate so clearly and conclusively that Russian offcials are men of high character and that the Russian Government has done so much to remedy prison evils, while, at the same time, I have seen everything "in the blackest possible light," and have artfully concealed the fact that anything in favor of such officials and Government can possibly be said? I seem to have shown the high character and mild rule of the officials by seeing them in the "blackest possible light," and to have artfully concealed the Government's side of the prison question by giving it frank statement and conclusive demonstration! The only explanation of this paradox that suggests itself to me is the wild and improbable conjecture that the reviewer had forgotten what he said in his first article before he began to write the second.

George Kennan.

Washington, D. C., January 31, 1892.

[If Mr. Kennan will refer to our criti-

cism, he will see that the expression "clever lightness," to which he objects, was applied directly to the nature of his reading previous to 1884; to the information obtained in his preliminary journey of that year; and, indissolubly connected with this, to the question of intention, and his omission to explain the normal conditions of life among all but an exceedingly minute proportion of the exiles. This materially affects the question of the degree of cruelty to which the exiles are subjected and the criminal responsibility of the Government.

Far from skipping over his praises of officials and institutions, we reminded our readers that Mr. Kennan had proved the high character of the majority of the officials, and not only the good intentions, but the good performance of the Government in the matter of prisons and *étapes*. We are under obligations to Mr. Kennan for his detailed index of such cases (omitted in our criticism for lack of space). They will go far toward revising the false opinion of the general public, which has certainly regarded his revelations, and the Russian Government, in the blackest possible light, owing to the omission of precisely those details concerning the exile's normal life which we have supplied. It is an undeniable fact that not one in a thousand of Mr. Kennan's readers even notices his mention of those extenuating circumstances to which he now aids us in calling attention, owing to the unrelieved blackness of the descriptions to which we objected. Russians, on reading accounts worded in much the same way, would be able to make the proper allowances, through their lifelong acquaintance with the lives of the people, and of all classes. The omission of information on such a point, when writing for foreigners, lays an author open to the suspicion of intention or ignorance; the one being as grave an offence as the other in a work which assumes to be authoritative, on so serious a subject.

It would be a work of supererogation for us to furnish records, either favorable or unfavorable, from Siberian newspapers, after Mr. Kennan's ample contributions from those sources. His reference to the ten-year limit merely corroborates our suggestion that the darker side of the question was attainable in print for a long time previous to his journey in 1885, and brings us back to the assumption from which we started: that that journey was based on the sound calculations of a man who knew pretty well what he was going to "discover," and how his public would receive it.—Ed. Nation.]

BRITISH vs. RUSSIAN IMPRISONMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps in no circle of educated and thoughtful men is the meaning of the words "penal servitude" more clearly and really understood than among Irish Nationalists of advanced age. Many have themselves endured it; few there are who, at one period or another, often for long years, have not had friends or those they sympathized with or respected living through its horrors. I perused Mr. Kennan's *Century* articles, as they appeared, month after month, and constantly asked myself whether, after all, it might not be easier to bear in association with others the horrors he described than have to endure the cold, clean, merciless British system, where the body is conserved and cared for, but where the mind and affections of men who have theretofore thought and loved, are subjected to a discipline worse than death. And I asked the opinion of several who had passed through it. The republication of Mr. Kennan's articles in book form renewedly forces one's attention to the question. The readers of the *Nation* may perhaps be interested to consider the views of men so well known as the late Boyle O'Reilly and of Michael Davitt.

Very sincerely yours, Alfred Webb.

Dublin, January 31, 1892.

The "Pilot" Editorial Rooms,
Boston, October 23, 1889.

Mr. Alfred Webb:

My Dear Sir: The question you ask me has often arisen in my own mind, when reading Mr. Kennan's articles on Siberian prisoners: "Is not their miserable condition, with their one advantage of kindly human association, to be preferred to that of the English prisoner, in his narrow iron cell, and his silent labor in the gang, under the watch of never-ceasing rigor and discipline?" From my own experience in English prisons, the Russian system, described by Kennan, is at once to be preferred. So far as it allows political prisoners to associate only with their own kind, it is incomparably better than the English system, the makers or masters of which seem to delight in compelling the shameful association of political convicts with the criminal class. But, the political question aside, so far as the Russian system allows prisoners to associate and converse, at labor, and during the confined hours, its humane forbearance, in my opinion, counterbalances all its evils, as compared with the British home convict prisons. Mental suffering is the worst suffering; and, where there is association, there are comfort and courage. The body suffers pain by labor and privation, but the suffering of the mind in privation, labor, disgrace, with silence and loneliness, is agony.

The British penal colony of western Australia was an illustration. I was a prisoner there for a year (after nearly two years' imprisonment in Ireland and England). The feeling of relief at the open-air, associated labor of western Australia, after the rigors of Pentonville, Chatham, Portland, and Dartmoor, was actual enjoyment. Australia, however, had one immense advantage over Siberia—the climate was always healthful and delightful. In my opinion, the worst feature of Siberian imprisonment is the cold weather. The dirty prisons are kept foul by the necessity to keep them warm. In western Australia the convicts on the road parties had certainly no more care from their Government than those of Siberia; but they slept in open log huts, which they could and did empty and clean every day.

My memory of the dreadful routine of hard labor and enforced silence, in the imperial prisons, in England and Ireland, makes me shudder, even after twenty years. It is a punishment unfit for men, and it must be still worse for women, whose emotions are warmer and quicker. It is regulated inhumanity. It destroys many; it improves none. The moral reformation of a criminal under such conditions is abnormal and insecure. The flimsy barriers will be blown away with the first wind of free temptation. On the contrary, the effect of associated labor and life in the Australian colony was decidedly beneficial. It brought out the characteristics of manliness, truth, and personal honesty, in some such way as they are developed among soldiers. In one year I saw extraordinary improvement in a whole party of twenty criminal prisoners, to which I, though a political prisoner, was attached. They had all gone to Australia in the same ship with me and the other Fenian prisoners of 1866-'67. They were mostly old professional criminals, though nearly all young men. There were burglars, bank-robbers, thieves, in the majority. They were all Englishmen, most of them from London. As soon as ever they were sent away to the bush, to build their own hut and their officer's, and make out their own life, in the almost independence of the road-laborer, they began to develop as men—*for the first time in their lives*. Some became expert hunters and trappers, some took to tanning skins, some to vegetable gardening, etc. Very soon, they took personal pride in their free work, on the road or round the camp. They punished dishonesty and lying in their own way. If a man called another a liar, he had to fight him—he was *forced*, by flogging, to fight, or "take it back." Thieving from their fellows was punished in the same way. In three months there was no fighting and no flogging; in a year there were several men among them whom I shall always remember for their manly character. Every one of those men, probably, is free now, if living; and living an honest, industrious life.

A man released, after years of penal servitude, in Great Britain, is unfitted for life and its associations. He has been scared and drilled into habits of inhuman submission. Self reliance is gone, for self-reliance is a sure relation to one's fellows, and this unfortunate man has had all his ties and tendrils clipped close as his hair. Penal servitude ought not to be the vengeance of a Government, as this is. Transportation to a colony where mutual freedom and citizenship can be insured will reform almost the entire criminal class that is not abnormally degraded. Between the objects of the Russian and English systems (now that Australian transportation has ceased) there is little to choose; but the associated exile of Siberia, with its horrors of cold and its foul prisons, is a far lighter and less injurious punishment than the relentless order, separation, half-starvation, and degraded servility of the convict prisons of Great Britain.

I am, dear Mr. Webb, most truly yours,
John Boyle O'Reilly.

Ballybrack, October 8, 1889.

My Dear Mr. Webb: I have read a good many of the American *Century Magazine*, with George Kennan's narratives of Siberian prisoners and exiles. I have also had the advantage of talks with my friend Stepniak, on the subject of Russia's treatment of political prisoners. But, I fear, my opinion would be more than sufficiently biassed already to preclude my giving what should be a strictly impartial judgment upon such a subject. No one who has undergone penal servitude can rid himself sufficiently of resentment against the power that imprisoned him to speak calmly and justly upon the topic of his treatment. Neither can absolute reliance be placed upon narratives such as Kennan's, in which all the powers of eloquent writing are employed for the purpose of rendering a manifest prejudice against the imprisonment of Nihilists in Siberia appear as if clothed in the language of unquestionable facts. Deducting these considerations from any opinion of mine, I would say:

(1.) That the solitary-cell system of English penal servitude, together with the forced association of the criminal element, as applied to political prisoners, would represent far keener mental suffering than I conceive to be involved in the confinement by congenial association, which appears to be the rule in many Siberian prisons, where attempts at escape, like that which Muishkin and his comrades made from Kara, do not involve separate-cell confinement and additional punishment.

(2.) The picture so powerfully drawn of the Tiumen Forwarding Prison exceeds anything in my experience of English convict life. The filth, the insanitary condition of the *kámeras*, their horrible crowding, etc., have no parallel in the worst of the nine prisons over which my experience extends. Cleanliness and arrangements for ventilation are very characteristic of Clerkenwell, Newgate, Portland, and Portsmouth Convict Prisons, though in Millbank and Dartmoor the sanitary conditions were not as good. The food appears to be much more liberal in Siberian prisons (according to what Kennan gives as the day's rations in Tiumen) than in England, but it is not as cleanly cooked.

(3.) To be followed into imprisonment by those one loves—by wife and children—would be, from the point of view of my own individual feeling, a horror for which I could not find a suitable name—that is, of course, if it were added to the existing penal servitude of

England. The bare idea of one's wife and children being associated with criminals, because a man is himself a prisoner, is too horrible a thing to contemplate. But, if such association (I mean that of wife and children) is considered along with political punishment which takes the form of exile into parts of Siberia where there is no actual confinement within prison walls, I would say that this would be infinitely preferable to the treatment included in the English penal system.

(4.) I do not think we can accurately, or even approximately, estimate the amount of suffering involved in the worst prison described by Kennan, from *our* point of view. What would be exquisite torture for a man of one kind of civilization, brought up under totally different habits and influences to those of Russian life, might not represent as much suffering to a Siberian prisoner. Then again, temperament, education, habits of life, all enter into the question of relative suffering in prison. For instance: if *I* had been allowed books, and the privilege of writing, during my seven years in Dartmoor, as I was while in Portland in 1881–'82, I would have felt comparatively happy, notwithstanding the convict dress and the solitary confinement. On the other hand, a temperament that could not find Wordsworth's world in "books and dreams," would suffer the greatest mental torture by being shut up, for days and months and years, between bare whitewashed walls. In order, therefore, to speak correctly of the punishment involved in a sentence of ten years, or of life, in a Siberian prison, I would have to know a great deal more about the previous life and individualities of the Nihilist prisoners than I have present knowledge of. I do not think the treatment of Siberian prisoners, outside of labor in the mines, to be as humiliating to a political prisoner, or as degrading to one's idea of manhood, as what is comprised in English penal servitude. You are compelled to act as if you were a thing devoid of soul, or sentiment, or individuality of any kind. You are simply reduced to the level of an animal, while all the higher attributes of your nature are deprived of all opportunity of ministering to your own or your neighbor's solace or mind's ease.—Yours very truly,

MICHAEL DAVITT.

SCIENCE IN AMERICA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the able review of 'The Comtist Calendar' in the *Nation* of January 21 occurs the following:

"There is no civilized country where a great work of reasoning is less feasible than in ours. We have the most superb observatories and laboratories, it is true, but what would a Kepler, with his bad sight and awkward hand, be doing in such an establishment? Perhaps among our sixty millions there may just now live one such mind; certainly nobody is on the lookout for him. If he does exist, what is he doing? Reading examination papers?"

No, indeed, it seems quite unlikely that this should be his occupation. If it were, we should soon hear of him. He would find time enough to work out some great thing that we should be able to admire, and soon he would rise to positions of high honor and comparatively high pay. He is much more likely, as a true son of his time and his country, to be wasting his time in making money. In this pursuit, no doubt, he is successful, his great talent having taken that direction. In Germany it is the army that absorbs the best talent of the country, and with us it is the chase after riches that causes many a brilliant talent to be lost to the world.

The trouble is that our colleges do not, in general, attract great talents. But it is not the universal craving for wealth alone that produces this result. Much of the blame no doubt falls to other causes, and these I prefer to state in the words of the Rev. James T. Bixby (*Unitarian Review*, August, 1888):

"On the other hand, the man among us who, outside the college circle, does original and able work, may hope in vain for a college appointment. He is not in the line of promotion, and the solid phalanxes are unwilling to admit a new-comer to interfere with the rules of seniority. And even if he has gained admission to the charmed circles, he must square his instruction with the demands of his superiors, or he is likely to be unceremoniously shown the door, as Prof. Felix Adler (by current rumor) was at Cornell University after his lectures on Buddhism, or as Prof. Alex. Winchell was at Vanderbilt University because of his belief in Pre-Adamites and Evolution."

To return to our Comtist Calendar review. Fermat and Jacob Steiner are mentioned among those who are barely assigned a place by Comte in his Calendar of great men, though Comte was himself a mathematician. Now, I would ask, how many are there, even among the readers of the *Nation*, who know anything about Jacob Steiner, or what he did? And this leads me to the subject I wish to urge, namely, that it seems high time we should begin the study of modern geometry. So far as I am aware, not a single book upon the subject has been published in America, nor is the study of modern geometry pursued in any of our institutions by purely geometric methods. Yet modern geometry is by far more interesting, more systematic, more fruitful of results than the Euclidian geometry. Steiner, in the preface to his 'Systematische Entwickelung,' says: "There exists a small number of simple fundamental relations, from which the remaining great number of theorems can be derived, and without difficulty. Thus, by the acquisition of the few fundamental relations, one becomes master of the whole subject." And in the book itself, with wonderful ease, he derives almost everything from *one* fundamental relation, namely, the anharmonic ratio. The principle of duality there shows itself in its wonderful fecundity. Any one who will take the trouble of studying Chauvenet's "Introduction to Modern Geometry," appended to his 'Elements,' will understand the possibilities of the method, and, furthermore, will be prepared for the study of the larger works, say, Chasles's. It would be easy to compile a good text-book from easily accessible sources. Thus, the 'Traité de Géométrie,' by Rouché and De Comberousse, alone, in its various appendices, contains all or nearly all the material necessary, and collections of problems exist in goodly number.

Permit me to plead for one more neglected mathematical study, namely, the functions of complex variables (functions of $x + \sqrt{-1}\, y$). When we find that the realm of number is not of one dimension, so as to be representable upon a single infinite straight line, but that it has *two* dimensions, and requires a whole infinite plane to represent it, our horizon is at once infinitely widened. When next we find that by taking $z=f\ (x + i\ y)$ as the general form of the equation of a plane curve, and that we encounter no longer the puzzling difficulty of having the dependent variable become "imaginary" and meaningless, while undoubtedly it continues to vary, we see the usefulness of the method. And, finally, when we follow Rieman to his *mehrfach zusammenhängende Flächen*, we cannot help admiring the beauty of this modern analysis.

Shall we continue to plead that this is a new country, and that as yet we have no time for the sciences, except so far as they serve some technical purpose in the useful arts? The Australians seem to disdain such a plea, and we hear of vigorous scientific work done at Melbourne.—Respectfully,

WERNER A. STILLE.

ST. LOUIS, January 25, 1892.

[These things are worth saying; albeit the first question, upon which our correspondent so lightly expresses himself, involves points of high debate among those who of late years have studied the problem of genius. We shall return to some of these in a notice of Lombroso's 'Man of Genius.' Meantime, we remark that Kepler, with all his advantages, did but one great work, and that that was by no means the sort of thing a college tutor "would find time enough" to toss off.

As to the teaching of the two important branches of mathematics to which Mr. Stille refers, we derive the following information, relating chiefly to the year 1888–9, from Prof. Cajori's document on the 'Teaching of Mathematics in the United States.' The Theory of Functions was the subject, at the Johns Hopkins University, of several courses; at Cornell of a two-years' elective course, with sessions thrice a week one year, twice a week another; at Harvard of an advanced course; at Princeton of a University course; at Madison of a "special advanced elective" (possibly not taken). Projective (modern synthetic) Geometry was the subject of a course at the Johns Hopkins; at Cornell was *required* for some students, elective for others; at Ann Arbor was studied (and *really* studied, as we happen to know) from Reye's admirable treatise; and at the Universities of Texas (where Cremona's charming book was used), Virginia, and South Carolina formed the subject of post-graduate lectures or examinations. This, though a poor showing, yet makes a beginning.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

TRANSLATIONS of Paul Bourget's 'Impressions of Italy,' of Pierre Loti's 'Book of Pity and of Death,' of Gabriel Bonvalot's 'Across Thibet,' and of E. Renan's 'Recollections, Letters, and Addresses,' are in the press of Cassell & Co. The last is from the practised hand of Miss Hapgood.

Charles Scribner's Sons will continue their reproduction of the historical series of Imbert de Saint-Amand by publishing his 'Youth of the Duchess of Angoulême.'

Macmillan & Co., reversing the usual order, and having begun with a condensed popular edition, in one volume, of Mrs. Humphry Ward's new novel, 'The History of David Grieve,' are now about to issue a two-volume edition in larger type.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have in press a "Universal Edition" of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' to be sold at 25 cents in paper and 50 cents in cloth; 'Songs of Fair Weather,' by Maurice Thompson; 'Equatorial America,' by M. M. Ballou; and lives of William Gilmore Simms, by Prof. W. P. Trent, and of Mark Hopkins, by his successor, President Carter of Williams.

Henry Holt & Co. will add immediately to Sneath's "Series of Modern Philosophers" volumes extracted from Reid by Dr. Sneath of Yale University; from Spinoza by Prof. Fullerton of the University of Pennsylvania; from Kant by Prof. Watson of Queen's College, Canada; and from Descartes, by Prof. Torrey of the University of Vermont. They contemplate adding in the near future volumes from Berkeley, Hume, and Hegel.

A. C. Armstrong & Son will publish shortly 'From the Usher's Desk to the Tabernacle

Pulpit,' an authorized Life of the late Mr. Spurgeon. It will contain numerous portraits, with other illustrations.

Thomas Whittaker announces a volume of lectures (in the Charlotte Wood Slocum foundation at Ann Arbor), 'The Chalcedonian Decree: or, Historical Christianity, Misrepresented by Modern Theology, Confirmed by Modern Science, and Untouched by Modern Criticism,' by John Fulton, D.D.; and two volumes of sermons by the late Archbishop of York, Dr. Magee, 'Growth in Grace,' and 'Christ the Light of all Scripture.' Also, 'The Story of the Discovery of the New World by Columbus,' compiled by Frederick Saunders.

The Rev. S. J. Andrews's 'Life of Our Lord upon Earth' won high regard on its first publication, thirty years ago, by virtue of its minute treatment of the chronological and topographical questions involved in the subject, and it is these specialties, in the new and thoroughly revised edition just published by the Scribners, which will commend the work to scholars. Putting aside, as the author does, all questions of the authorship and formation of the gospels, it will be seen that he renounces entrance into the most instructive and fascinating field of New Testament criticism.

'The Races of the Old Testament,' by A. H. Sayce (F. H. Revell Co.), is a little study in ethnology based for the most part upon Mr. Petrie's valuable series of photographs of types found on the Egyptian monuments.

The full text of the Manderson Bill for the printing, binding, and distribution of public documents is given in the January issue of the *Library Journal*. The December number is wholly occupied with a report of the San Francisco Conference of the American Library Association. A reprint of the admirable paper on "Public Support of Public Libraries," read at this Conference by Mr. William E. Foster of the Providence Public Library, is before us. It is an effective reply to a shallow chapter in the recent work called 'A Plea for Liberty: An Argument against Socialism and Socialistic Legislation.'

The second report of the Massachusetts Free Public Library Commission is very encouraging. Thirty-six towns during the past year have established libraries and received from the State $100 worth of books, leaving only sixty-six towns (with an aggregate population of 92,439) unprovided with free libraries. The books given have been selected with great care and with especial reference to the character and needs of the community in which they are to be placed, the main object having been to provide "reading that should be healthy in tone, pure and attractive in style, of educational value, and fitted to stimulate a love for the reading of good literature. American history, local and general, and nature-study in its varied forms, have had particular prominence given them." Not the least interesting part of the report is the "notes of library progress," containing statements of the numerous gifts in money, books, and buildings made to the various towns in the State during 1891, as well as of the buildings begun or completed last year. A detailed account of each newly established library, with various laws relating to libraries, is given in an appendix.

The Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale of Florence published on the last day of November, 1891, a valuable list of non-political Italian periodicals received at that library during the past year. The arrangement is in classes, with an alphabetical index of titles, another of places of publication, and a third of editors (*scrittori*). The task has been admirably executed by Paolo Baccani and Miss Anita Castellano. One desires only a table of classification. There are four entries under the head of "Magnetismo e Spiritismo," beginning with the monthly *Annali dello Spiritismo in Italia*. The number of journals devoted to "Wants" is noticeably large. A typical example is the *Gazzetta degli impieghi vacanti governativi, municipali, commerciali e privati*. The total of all kinds is 1,362.

A discovery of considerable importance has been recently made by Mr. Kordt, an assistant in the library of the University of Dorpat in Livonia. While rummaging in a large wall-closet, full of what were supposed to be worthless records and duplicates, he found several rolls of manuscript, which proved to be the remains of the archives of the University, the minutes of the proceedings of the Senate of Dorpat, and the account-books of the University, which furnish valuable material for the history of the founding of that institution by Gustavus Adolphus in 1632 and its early development under Swedish jurisdiction. The documents thus brought to light number some six hundred, and are written in Latin, Swedish, German, French, and Russian. They comprise the correspondence of the Swedish Chancellor Axel Oxenstierna, his son John Oxenstierna, Envoy Plenipotentiary to Germany, the Generals de la Gardie, Horn, Banèr, Wrangel, and about sixty letters, instructions, and other communications from the hand of Gustavus Adolphus, dating chiefly from the years 1613, 1627, and 1629. The importance of these original sources for the history of the Thirty Years' War, the various negotiations with Russia and other Powers, and the final conclusion of the Peace of Westphalia, can hardly be overestimated. Mr. Kordt is preparing them for publication, and hopes to render them available to scholars at an early date.

The second number of the *Law Bulletin* of the State University of Iowa contains an historical bibliography of the Statute Law of Iowa by T. L. Cole of Washington. Incidentally the steps towards acquiring Statehood are set forth, from which it appears that six years were spent in the effort, the popular reluctance being as great as the popular celerity nowadays; but "Iowa, like so many other of the admitted States, set the machinery of her State Government into full operation before the date of formal admission."

The London *Bookman* (Hodder & Stoughton) maintains well the level on which it was launched. Its January issue "presents" an inserted plate engraving from a portrait of Browning in the Count D'Orsay style and period, and reproduces in facsimile on its foolscap pages a creditable letter of Robert Burns touching provision for an illegitimate child. The *Publishers' Circular*, on its part, began on January 16 an illustrated series of articles on wood-engraving—forerunners, we may assume, of still another book on that fruitful topic.

In the February number of the new *California Illustrated Magazine*, Lieut. George L. Dyer, U. S. N., has a very good account of the military operations marking the final success of the Chilian revolutionists. He is naturally reticent in regard to the suspicions thrown upon his superior officer, Admiral Brown, though he makes it perfectly clear that that commander was in a position to render the greatest possible services to Balmaceda, by way of informing him of the resources and plans of the Congressionalists, had he been disposed to do so.

Mrs. Bishop's anniversary address before the Royal Scottish Geographical Society, published in its magazine for January, summarizes the results of her adventurous journey among the Bakhtiari, a Persian mountain tribe of nomads. One of the most striking passages is that in which she describes their summer country, in whose villages the traveller in May finds an absolute solitude, though the hill-slopes are covered with grain-crops and intersected with irrigation ditches. But by the first of June "every plateau and ravine has its village of tents, and at night the camp-fires gleam like the lights of cities." Here the tribe dwell till October, then migrate to the plains, sowing the grain before they depart, and reaping it in the following summer. Mrs. Bishop has little to say that is encouraging for the future of this interesting people, whose characteristic virtues are bravery, chastity, and charity; their blood-feuds leading to constant intertribal wars and checking all progress. To this may be added the merciless exactions of the Persian officials, who are slowly crushing the life out of the people. Incidentally she refers to the great commercial activity of the Russians in Persia, their wares being found in almost every hamlet or camp visited in a journey of about 2,000 miles, however remote they were from the great caravan routes. Mr. E. Delmar Morgan sketches the Pamir in its geographical and political relations to the surrounding countries, his paper being accompanied by an admirable map, in which the Russian boundary under the agreement of 1873 is given, together with that now claimed. This is placed more than a hundred miles to the southward, absorbing the territory left neutral by the agreement, and coming within about seventy miles of the English at Gilghit.

Recent events in the Pamir give a peculiar interest to Mr. St. George Littledale's account of his journey across this desolate region, published in the January Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. The traveller, whose main object was to shoot the great horned sheep, the *Ovis Poli*, was accompanied by his wife, their point of departure being Osh, then the farthermost Russian post in Ferghana. From this place, where they were treated with the greatest courtesy by the Russian commandant, they went in a generally southerly direction, skirting the eastern shore of the Karakul and traversing both the Alichur and the Great and Little Pamirs, reaching Gilghit in a little more than two months after leaving Osh. The general elevation was rarely less than 12,000 feet, the highest point reached being apparently 15,950 feet on the pass of Darkot over the Hindu Kush. Mr. Littledale describes the region as in great part a barren wilderness, with few inhabitants, scant vegetation, and little animal life, though birds are very numerous on the lakes. Had he passed a month later, his account of its capacity for supporting life would probably have been more favorable. The latest Russian authority, Col. Grombchevsky, says that "the Pamir is far from being a wilderness. It contains a permanent population, residing in it both summer and winter," and "increasing to a marked extent."

Prof. James Darmesteter has some fine pages in the *Revue Bleue* of January 9. "Les Religions de l'Avenir" is the title of his article, which is, in fact, the preface of his new book, 'Les Prophètes d'Israël,' which was announced to be published by Calman Lévy on the 20th ultimo. The fundamental idea of the book is that "prophétisme"—that is, the *ensemble* of the doctrines proclaimed by the

prophets of Israel from the year 800 to the year 518 before our era, and expressed in the so-called prophetic books of the Old Testament—is one of the essential elements of the religion of the future. It will not set up new altars or new rites, since its aim is to lead men beyond altars and rites, but it will inspire and revive the "two actual religions which to-day dispute possession of France, and which to-morrow will share it in peace, that of Science and that of Christ." M. Darmesteter's article is quite in line with those of M. de Vogüé and others who have been writing on the new religious movement in France, and will be of great interest to all who have been following the development of that movement.

Cardinal Newman is to have a statue at Oxford. The list of subscribers to it shows a singularly wide range. It includes Anglicans and Roman Catholics and Nonconformists, peers and commoners, university heads and ecclesiastical dignitaries of every shade of thought, politicians like Lord Rosebery and Mr. Justin M'Carthy, literary men like Mr. Lecky and Mr. F.T. Palgrave, and the late Dean Church.

Our readers will recall the mention in these columns last May of the generous offer by Miss Garrett of $100,000 to the trustees of Johns Hopkins University, on condition that by February 1, 1892, the trustees should have raised $221,000, and would in that month formally announce the opening in October, 1892, of the Medical School of the University. The admission of its women students to all the dignities and honors of the Medical School was a further condition of the offer. The sum needed to secure Miss Garrett's $100,000 was the amount still lacking towards the $500,000 named by the trustees as necessary to the opening of the Medical School when they accepted the contribution of $111,300 from the committees of the Women's Fund, on condition of receiving women students on the same terms as men. It has just been announced that the trustees have raised no part of this amount. Miss Garrett has therefore released the time limit to her donation, and gives the University an indefinite period to secure the endowment of its Medical Department, reserving the right, however, to cancel the offer of $100,000, by giving one year's notice of withdrawal. When the thousands of dollars which, during 1891, were contributed by numerous donors for the cause of higher education in the United States are considered, it is subject of surprise even more than of regret, that a university whose professors and alumni during the past decade have carried the reputation of American research and scholarship into every great seat of learning in both the Old and the New World, should still go begging for what is, after all, a paltry portion of a superb educational foundation.

—The February *Atlantic* lacks any article of special distinction, all the papers being of limited interest. The recent archæological discoveries at Rome, in respect to the celebration of the Secular Games in 17 B. C., are described by Prof. Lanciani with enthusiasm, and the fortunes of Gabriele Giolito, a Venetian publisher of the sixteenth century, are told by Mr. Horatio F. Brown in a similar vein of student ardor. The intelligence of animals is examined by Prof. Evans, with a view to the confusion of the late Prof. von Prantl, who denied them the "time-sense," besides other things, and the critic has made an entertaining collection of those peculiar institutions of beast, fowl, and insect which seem to parody the organs of human society. The course of study followed by French girls is treated of by Henrietta Channing Dana with thoroughness and good sense, in a way instructive to the managers of our female colleges, and also illustrative of the better and less-known phases of French family life. Some Russian travel, a bit of Shaksperian criticism, and a paper by Prof. Shaler describing the condition of political opinion in Kentucky in 1861, complete the list of serious articles, with a single exception, an unsigned paper upon "The League as a Political Instrument," which, in connection with the remarkable tariff-reform paper of last month, and other political papers that have appeared under Mr. Scudder's editorship, mark a return of the *Atlantic* to the useful discussion of public questions. The idea of this contribution—namely, that the development of the League puts into the hands of independent-thinking citizens an instrument of proved power in the form of temporary party organization for single definite ends, dissolving when those ends are gained—is not new, but the clearness with which the fact is stated and the practical force of it realized gives significance to the paper, and foreshadows an attempt, at least, to systematize independent voting and convert it from a defiant "rebuke" into an aggressive weapon. The success of the Copyright League, the Civil-Service League, and the Indian Service Association is the solid foundation of the writer's argument.

—*Harper's* is also without any article of special distinction, but it makes up for the lack by lending itself to a piece of as crude sensationalism as has appeared in magazine literature for many a day. This extraordinary contribution is nothing less than an entire five-act play by Amélie Rives Chanler on the subject of "Athelwold." The scene is laid in that distant age when "Angleland" existed, and we presume it is mere carping on our part to suggest that the historical setting is pretty closely confined to the orthography. The story is of love, and the action is for the most part osculatory. It is Catullus's little lyric drawn out in linked sweetness, kiss by kiss. The author seems to have remembered *Rosalind's* way when she was "gravelled for matter." There are eighty-two of these amatory exercises in a single act, without making distinction of plural and singular. There has been of late much discussion of wedding literature to the stage once more, but this is the way to throw contempt on "the literary drama." It is, however, little that this play cannot be thought of as acted. Not to put too fine a point on it, here is the very slush of vulgarity: in character, in incident, in diction, the underbred cannot farther go; it is the burlesque and travesty of the thing it aims at being, and what service is done, either to the public or to the name of American letters or the young woman herself, by its publication? In the remainder of the magazine Mr. Julian Ralph writes of Chicago in "the large style," though not perhaps as Matthew Arnold meant the phrase; the Royal Danish Theatre is the subject of a paper from Mr. Archer; Mr. Horatio Bridge's recollections of Hawthorne continue; and an article of local interest, on the "Old Shipping Merchants of New York," winds up the number.

—The *Century* justifies its reputation for public spirit this month by the merciless exposure it makes of the history and methods of the Louisiana lottery and the character of the men who have been engaged in the enterprise. The paper itself is a remarkable one in lively management of matter naturally dry, in variety of attack, in restless and unexpected sarcasm. The black story is told so that it makes its own darkness visible without aid of light from any moral world; the origin of the scheme, its breeding out of the racing and gambling industries of New York, its course in the State that it chose for degradation, its gradual fettering of the whole community there, the forlorn struggle against it, are recounted in a way to make the names of its owners (for the paper deals directly with persons) a synonym of infamy in public affairs; and the present gravity of the question is urged home without effort, but with telling effect. The Supreme Court reminds Mr. John A. Morris that he is a citizen, but such a paper as this also reminds him that he does really live in a community where public opinion is still capable of blasting the success of enormous wealth gathered in defiance of the common morals of the land. The fight may not be over, but the example of such a deadly stroke as this paper is a fine object-lesson to both sides; it shows resource and courage of the sort that makes a bad cause beware. Incidentally, also, the stripping off of the mask of charity is a blow to all schemes for condoning evil practices for a price devoted to good objects—and few errors in morals are so insidious as this one, or so widespread among honest people. To quicken conscience in such matters is a good work. Another paper of public importance in the number is Mr. Atkinson's on "The Registration of Australian Land Titles." The remaining papers are of the usual kind, and fairly distributed among the different departments of science, society, history, art, and fiction.

—*Scribner's* contains a philanthropic paper by Mr. Albert Shaw describing briefly the Young Women's Institute of London, which has been developed under the fostering care of Mrs. Quentin Hogg, and is meant to do for working girls at the West End the same service that her husband's "Polytechnic" does for young men. The club has had only a few years' trial, but its success is assured, and it already provides for a membership of twelve hundred. The plan is essentially the same as that of the older institution for young men, and includes the dining, athletic, and school features; there is some interchange between the two clubs in order that some of the special advantages of the men's side may be shared by the women; the final result, too, will probably be to settle the Institute on a permanent foundation endowed from the Public Charities Funds. The example is an interesting one, but it obviously owes much to favoring circumstances, to the experience and benevolence of Mr. Hogg and his wife, to their prestige, and to the fact that the Public Charities Fund is available for the perpetuation of the organization. A scientific article of considerable interest deals with the "Illusions of Memory," and, apart from the description and analysis of the tricks of this faculty, points out some analogies between its operations in unusual states and the workings of the mind under hypnotic influence. At the end the strength of the faculty is made to depend on sane and healthy conditions in general rather than on any special cultivation. The Revenue Service affords a readable article, and some remarks of Washington Allston on his methods of painting have as much interest as the subject permits.

—A measure of the quality of instruction and grade of students at the Harvard "Annex" is afforded by the "Fay House Monographs" published by the Society for the Collegiate Instruction of Women. Two of these have been anatomical studies; the third and latest is entitled 'Fugitive Slaves (1619–1865),' and has

been prepared by Miss Marion Gleason (Mrs. McDougall), under the direction of Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard. The monograph occupies 150 octavo pages, and is in every way a highly creditable as it is a very useful performance. The several chapters deal with "Legislation and Cases before the Constitution," "Legislation from 1789 to 1850," "Principal Cases from 1789 to 1860," "Fugitives and their Friends," "Personal Liberty Laws," "The End of the Fugitive Slave Question (1860–1865)." This systematic presentation is accompanied in five invaluable appendixes by the documents, viz., the colonial laws relating to fugitives, national acts and propositions relating to fugitive slaves (1778–1854), and again (1860–64), list of important fugitive slave cases, and bibliography of fugitive-slave cases and fugitive-slave legislation. Add a very full index. In the colonial portion Mrs. McDougall has had no predecessor; nor has any one relieved her of the drudgery of wading through the Congressional records, without which it would have been impossible to realize how constant were the efforts made to amend more stringently the law of 1793, since history preferably deals with *faits accomplis* and is silent about abortive measures, however significant of states and tendencies of opinion. This restless striving to stop the exodus from slavery to freedom is perhaps the most striking revelation in Mrs. McDougall's monograph; but it is also instructive to compare the text of the fugitive-slave act signed by Washington with that which brought infamy on Millard Fillmore, and to notice how little difference there was in respect to the treatment of slaves as mere chattels, and to the absence of provisions against the kidnapping of free men of color—or free Caucasians, for that matter. And if we consider how many doctors of divinity enforced, after Webster, the duty of returning Onesimus, we shall not conclude that a perceptible moral advance had been made in 1850 over the North Carolina stage of 1741, evidenced by a law requiring a description of apprehended unknown runaways to be "sent to the clerk or reader of each church or chapel within the county. They were required to post all such notices every Lord's day for two months in some convenient place near the church." Finally, it is wholesome for the Grand Old Party to be reminded that in 1864, amidst the civil war caused by slavery alone, Senator John Sherman proposed to abolish the Fugitive Slave Law of 1850 only by an act reviving the law of 1793. Mrs. McDougall's survey is very comprehensive, and we have observed but one omission, viz.: an estimate of the number of past-fugitives compelled by the law of 1850 to abandon their homes and occupations and seek refuge in Canada. Statistics on this point are of course vague, but they are not wholly wanting. On page 26, the dates of British West India Emancipation should be 1833, 1838. The fugitive William Browne, on p. 5, is not indexed; his namesake, on p. 56, presumably stands for the late William Wells Brown.

—The volume of Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society for 1891 winds up the record of the Society's first century, and so is largely occupied with an account of the centennial celebration. It is illustrated with portraits of three eminent men, President Walker of Harvard, Richard H. Dana, and Robert Bennet Forbes, memoirs being furnished by O. B. Frothingham, Charles Francis Adams, and Leverett Saltonstall, respectively. There is also a very precious photograph, taken in 1858, of a remarkable group of members, of whom Mr. Robert C. Winthrop is the most distinguished survivor. Mr. Winthrop's son contributes the opening paper of the present collection, and it is easily first also in lightness of touch, and in the charm with which the writer invests genealogical and family particulars concerning persons of no great consequence, yet types of early Puritan society. Mr. Winthrop also prints a strong and characteristic letter of Thomas Hooker's, replete with worldly wisdom. The most serious and permanently valuable study is that of Mr. Charles Francis Adams on "Some Phases of Sexual Morality and Church Discipline in Colonial New England." The first part of his subject is not new to those who have been led, for other reasons, to examine church records, which abound in evidence of marriages to legitimize children; or to those who have ventured into the literature of bundling. Mr. Adams, however, gives precision and strength to his deductions by comparing the records of several localities in Massachusetts, and discovers "the compelling cause to the confessions [of the sin of fornication]" openly made in church to have been "the parents' desire to secure baptism for their offspring during a period when baptism was believed to be essential to salvation, with the Calvinistic hell as an alternative." In the Groton Church, under this compulsion, 66 out of 200 persons owning the baptismal covenant between 1761 and 1775 "confessed to fornication before marriage." "C. F." became the abbreviated record of this circumstance. Mr. Adams remarks upon the increase in the number of the confessions after 1725, which he connects with "The Great Awakening," or revival period, of 1726-1744, and its dangerous association of the sexes in a state of religious exaltation. Mr. Adams closes with some encouraging reflections as to the comparative morality of the last century and the present, without, however, attributing our gain in sexual morality to the rise in the status of woman, as would appear to be necessary.

CLARK'S COLLEGES OF OXFORD.—I.

The Colleges of Oxford: Their History and Traditions. Twenty-one chapters contributed by members of the colleges, edited by Andrew Clark, M.A., Fellow of Lincoln College, Oxford. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan.

The Rev. Andrew Clark has hit upon the plan of having the history of each of the Oxford Colleges written by one of its own members, and in each case he has succeeded in getting a distinguished man to do the work. The papers, coming from different hands, are, as might have been expected, not uniform in mode of treatment. Some have more of anecdote and social antiquities, others more of architecture, others (the writer of which has, perhaps, been bursar) more of the history of college finance and landowning; but they supplement each other, and on the whole they give a satisfactory account of those foundations, and sufficiently enable us to follow the thread of their corporate life through the six centuries of English history. There will be room for revision in a second edition, but in the main the work has probably been done once for all.

The eldest of the foundations is University College, the name of which, by its identity with that of the body of which the colleges in the aggregate are a federation, perplexes the American visitor who has not been accustomed to distinguish exactly between a university and a college. The Master and Fellows some years ago had the courage—or, as Mr. Freeman, who has no mercy on myths, thought, the effrontery—to celebrate the thousandth anniversary of their college as a foundation of King Alfred. That the eldest of English literary institutions should dedicate itself to Alfred's memory would be proper enough; and it is likely enough that Oxford was the seat of one of Alfred's schools. But University College was founded in the thirteenth century by Master William of Durham, who had been an English student in the University of Paris and had been driven out by an academical revolution. The story of the foundation by Alfred is a fable or worse. It appears to have been fabricated by the college to induce Richard II. to exert his prerogative in its favor in a law suit. It sufficed, however, with the help, perhaps, of a touch of Hanoverian policy, to lead the Court of King's Bench in 1728 to decree that the College was a royal foundation, and that the Visitor was not the University, or the Faculty of Theology, but the Crown. It was argued on that occasion that it would be too shocking for the Court to hold that a society of clergymen had for so many years been returning thanks to God for the bounty of a mythical founder, and that religion would thereby receive a greater scandal than it had from all the atheists, deists, and apostates from Julian down to Collins. It is not easy for the University now to return, as the author of this essay wisely exhorts it, to the firm ground of historical truth. The myth is incorporated into its legal existence as well as blazoned in its escutcheon, and embodied in the fine bust of Alfred which looks down on the Fellows as they sip (or did before recent reforms) their wine around the ample fireplace in the cosey old Common Room.

The statue of James II., which was left intact over the college gate, attests the mildness of the Revolution of 1688. Obadiah Walker, who was Master at that time, was a learned man and about the most respectable of the apostates to Roman Catholicism, though his name, rhyming with *Ave Maria*, lent itself to popular mockery. In an ecclesiastical law suit the other day, where there was a question as to the mode of treating the remnants of the bread and wine after the administration of the Sacrament, Sir Horace Davey, an ex-Fellow of University, referred to the practice of his own college, where the Master and Fellows, when the service is over, instead of consuming the remainder of the elements at the communion table, march out to consume them in the ante-chapel. It did not occur to him that this practice, evidently a protest against the High-Church view, was a relic of the reaction which followed the expulsion of Walker and the Romanizing party. That reaction has left other traces in the College customs. The vicissitudes of history are marked by the combination of the statue of Eldon with that of James II., while the Common Room of the College was the scene of the expulsion of Shelley. For the expulsion of Shelley, we may remark in passing, the College was not much to be blamed. His circulation, among clerical dignitaries, of an atheistic treatise, was an outrage, even on the atheistic hypothesis, and his contumacy shut upon him the gate of mercy.

University and Balliol, though, as the oldest foundations, they head the list, were not the first colleges. The first real college, the type of the series and the model to which University and Balliol were afterwards assimilated, was Merton, founded by Walter de Merton in what has been called the Renaissance of the thirteenth century. Merton's idea was the combination of the cenobitic, cloistral, and disciplined

life of a monastery with secular studies, which were practically anti-monastic. His antagonism to the domination of the friars, who were then carrying everything before them, is marked by the statute excluding them from his fellowships. His cloistral discipline was the antidote to the turbulence which reigned among a vast concourse of students, many of them half barbarous, living at large in the city, and which broke out in riots, and even in regular battles between the Northern and Southern "nations." The idea, meeting the needs of the time, took root and bore fruit in a series of imitations.

The grandest of the imitations was New College, or, to give it its proper name, the College of St. Mary Winton, founded by William of Wykeham, prelate, statesman, and architect, in the time of Edward III. St. Mary Winton College was to Merton as an abbey to a priory. The equipments for religious services were on an abbatial scale of magnificence, and the warden lived with the sumptuous state of a great abbot. But as a literary foundation New College was distinguished by its connection with the school at Winchester, which was to supply it with carefully trained scholars, and by the stress laid in the statutes on the study of the classical languages, or at least of Latin (*grammatica*), as contrasted with those of scholastic logic and philosophy. Mr. Rashdall, the writer of the paper in this volume on New College, rejects the notion that Wykeham himself had any idea connected with the Renaissance; but he afterwards admits that the first breath of the Renaissance air is felt in the characteristic studies of the foundation. It is hard to believe that a great patron of learning contemporary with Chaucer should have been untouched, or not consciously touched, by the spirit and movement of his age. Wykeham, it is true, was a conservative and an adversary of the Wicliffites; his object, no doubt, was to recruit the ranks of the clergy and put on them the armor of learning, though in a critical and revolutionary age the armor of learning can hardly be put on men without engendering other than conservative tendencies in their minds. The University was apparently at this time in a state of depression, and a collateral object of Wykeham's was the revival of literary discipline. Before him all the instruction had been received in the public schools of the University, the college being only the boarding-house, or at least having no regular staff of teachers. Wykeham introduced teaching within the college, and thus became, for good or evil, the founder of the tutorial system which ultimately superseded the teaching of the University, and reduced the University professorships to an insignificance from which they have been only just redeemed by recent reforms, while even now the tutorial system disputes their domain with them, as energetic professors, like Prof. Freeman, think they have reason to complain. A loose system of obtaining from the University exemptions from the statutable conditions of graduation had prevailed. To guard against this, Wykeham, as an academical reformer, strictly forbade his students to "sue for graces." By a strange and almost incredible perversion of his intention, this exceptional restriction was itself turned into an exceptional exemption, and when regular examinations for degrees were introduced by the University, it was understood that a New College man had the privilege of taking his degree without a University examination. The consequence was the almost total wreck, for a long period, of Wykeham's Oxford foundation. His school at Winchester, which retained its high character, sent up to Oxford generations of "golden scholars," only to have them turned by privileged idleness into "silver bachelors" and "leaden masters." A similar calamity befell the kindred foundation of King's College at Cambridge, with which Eton was connected as Winchester was connected with New College. Both cases are sad warnings against allowing the letter of a founder's will to operate long after his death. The principle upon which Parliament acted in the reform of the Oxford and Cambridge Colleges, and which it may be said practically to have adopted with regard to all foundations, is that only a founder's main object shall be respected for more than fifty years after the date of the foundation—a limit certainly beyond the foresight of any ordinary man.

Wykeham's statutes give us an insight into the life and character of students in those days:

"One piece of rough mediæval horse-play which incurs the founder's especial wrath is that 'most vile and horrid sport of shaving beards, which is wont to take place on the night preceding the inception of Masters of Arts.' Among the more ordinary pastimes forbidden by the founder are the haunting of taverns and 'spectacles,' the keeping of dogs, hawks, or ferrets; the games of chess, hazard, or ball; and other 'noxious, inordinate, or illicit' games, 'especially those played for money'; shooting with 'arrows, stones, earth, or other missiles' to the danger of windows and buildings; the 'effusion of wine, beer, or other liquor' (some unpleasant details are added under this head) upon the floor of upper chambers; 'dancing or wrestling or other incautious or inordinate games' in the hall or 'perchance in the chapel itself'; the reason alleged for this last prohibition being that danger might be done to the sculptured 'image of the Holy and Undivided Trinity,' and other ornaments on the wall between the chapel and the hall. After this comprehensive list of unlawful amusements, the reader may be inclined to ask, 'What recreations did the good bishop allow his scholars?' Only one seems contemplated by the statutes; the founder's experience of human nature told him that, 'after bodily refection by the taking of meat and drink, men are made more inclined to scurrilities, base talk, and (what is worse) detraction and strife'; he accordingly provides that on ordinary days, after the loving cup has gone round, there is to be no lingering in hall after dinner or supper (except for the usual 'potation' at curfew); but on festivals and other winter nights, 'on which, in honour of God and his Mother, or some other saint,' there is a fire in the hall, the Fellows are allowed to indulge in singing or reading 'poems, chronicles of the realm, and wonders of the world.'"

RECENT NOVELS.

The House of Martha. By Frank R. Stockton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Squirrel Inn. By Frank R. Stockton. The Century Co.

Lord Arthur Savile's Crime, and Other Stories. By Oscar Wilde. Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Johnstown Stage, and Other Stories. By Robert Howe Fletcher. D. Appleton & Co.

Mr. Zinzan of Bath. By Mary Deane. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Dame Care. Translated from the German of Herman Suderman by Bertha Overbeck. Harper & Bros.

The Grandmother. By Bozena Nemec. Translated from the Bohemian by Frances Gregor. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Countess Erika's Apprenticeship. Translated from the German of Ossip Schubin by Mrs. A. L. Wister. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

The Story of Francis Cludde. By Stanley J. Weyman. Cassell Publishing Co.

Ciphers. By Ellen Olney Kirk. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

It is a singular frame of mind that one finds one's self in on reading 'The House of Martha.' A tale of genuine passion from the pen of Mr. Stockton seems almost a joke in itself; and it is perhaps to draw us up into the regions of emotion not too urgently, that these new-born loves and fears are attached to characters of the old Stocktonian type—dryly comical, solemnly grotesque. That a man who hires a listener to his own monologues should turn out to be the wildly impetuous hero of a romantic love story, gives one the same curious feeling that would arise on encountering Mrs. Aleshine (in perfectly dry clothing) at a meeting of the New York Historical Society, or on finding Pomona at the head of the State Charities Aid Association. There are moments of interest in the romance; there are moments of joy over the humor that flows from but one pen; there are yet other bewildering moments when the fun seems to be in one syllable and the characters no better fitted to mystery or to the tender passion than are Rollo and Lucy. One cannot say that the interest flags, but certainly it zigzags.

'The Squirrel Inn,' by the same author, is added proof that this writer's humor is too delicate, too prim, one might almost say, to lend itself effectively to plot. The present story in suggestion is dramatic, but its substance is too light and slight even for farce. One says at once, "How easily this would go on the stage; and how very dull it would be." Now what is thinner reading as a story than a dull farce? And yet the old charm peeps out in a tantalizing way—tantalizing because it sends the wishes back to the Stockton stories which are no more, but which we hope will be again.

Mr. Oscar Wilde's little volume might be called a collection of skits; and this attitude of the gentleman towards matters in general is a familiar one. Yet a subjectivity of method on his part, which all who were happy enough to see him in this country a few years ago will somewhat painfully remember, nearly disappears in his stories, leaving his method freer and himself a more agreeable satirist than might have been supposed. We detect little of the rebuking knee-breeches or the exemplifying forelock here, while there is abundance of wit and invention. "The Canterville Ghost" and "The Sphinx without a Secret" are easily better than the two remaining sketches; in the former, the irreverent treatment by an American family of an English ancestral ghost is the happy subject of happy treatment. The story which gives the book its name is a stiffish dose of trying to be funny, but its opening chapter is worth reading for as clever a picture of a social function as we have lately seen. The volume is charmingly bound and printed, only the title-page of each story betraying any eccentricity, and so we may feel that we have got off as easily as could be expected.

We defy any one to open a book of stories nowadays and find it beginning with a sage-brush plain, a glaring sky, and a lonely stage station, without a momentary sympathy with the Man without a Country. Our Southern California maidens, with ragged shoes, black eyes, and many acres, our miners' camps, our sombreros, lariats, revolvers, and, most of all, our dialects, begin to recall *Richard II.'s*

"Patience is stale, and I am weary of it.
[*Beats the Keeper.*]"

Mr. Fletcher's stories are no worse than the others, perhaps better than many, but so hopelessly hackneyed are his landscape and figures that it is difficult to do justice to that half of

his tales which deals with the prairie or the Pacific Coast. While the remaining ones afford a few original positions, the characters are absolutely stereotyped. The general effect of the book, then, is mediocre, although the writer has a ready pen and a sense of form.

A cheerless foreboding of a holiday book assails one who picks up 'Mr. Zinzan of Bath,' in its inordinately large covers, its festal, harlequin binding, its wide margins, and profuse illustrations. Beauty is not always its own excuse for being, nor is there always a moral in being fair. 'Mr. Zinzan' proves to be no Christmas gift-book, but a fresh, pleasing little story set in attractive mounting; the story being one of loves and brave apparel—the scene, Bath in the days of George the Second, under the rule of Beau Nash. Pretty Mistress Dolly Chesney, with her adventures, gowns, and heartburns, during her first season—her minuets, masks, and snuff-boxes (which we learn with relief she carried but did not use)—running her daily round of gayety—floating about of a morning in the bath in wig and powder, and sipping chocolate—making conquests at the afternoon rout, and trembling through her first dance at the evening assembly before the dowagers, is a winning portrait. Another and a telling one is that of the great Beau himself, who glitters in pomp and power, denies royalty a dance after eleven o'clock, says "No" to aprons at the assembly and makes her Grace the Duchess drop hers at the door, lace though it be; the great Beau, who foreshadows our own McAllister, but in the added glory of buckles and ruffles, and diffusing a nimbus of powder with every stately bow. These and many other lifelike figures make up a lifelike view of the city where, as Thackeray says, "all history went and bathed and drank"—a view suggestive of history if not historic, albeit from these pages are absent the bigger bigwigs, a Walpole, a Chesterfield, a Pitt, who might figure in a Chronicle of Bath under the card-playing monarch.

Let not him who begins 'Dame Care' be discouraged by its commonplace tone at the outset from continuing the reading. Let him not be hindered by clumsiness in the translation or by the scent of the obsolete which clings round it still. Such phrases as "The coachmen with their shining buttons sat on their boxes with proud smiles and threw contemptuous glances all around"; "Oh, golly! the hussy has courage," might easily act as deterrents but for a friendly word of warning, and thus might be lost the acquaintance with a little story at once striking and poetic; sad with almost the sadness of Turgeneff, but blooming with more of the humanities than usually flourish on Russian soil. Paul Meyerhofer hears the fairy story of Dame Care from his mother, who, however, will never tell him the ending. He spends his life in learning it, and it is not until it is told in full on the last page that the completeness and artistic quality of the little book are wholly revealed. There are plenty of Teutonisms to be forgiven, but it well stands a searching test for any work of art, that of retrospect.

A story of Bohemia, translated from the Bohemian, is not published every day, and interest is bespoken besides for 'The Grandmother' by the biographical notice of the author which prefaces the story. Bozena Nemec's not numerous writings are dear to the hearts of Bohemians. She was one of the earlier authors among them, having been born in 1820, and having while still quite young gained popularity by her patriotic poems and stories. She and her husband were active in behalf of their country during the Revolution of 1848, and suffered for their zeal by being ever after suspiciously watched by the Government and forced into a struggle against cruel poverty. Mme. Nemec's love of her country and love for the peasantry were the leading motives in her work. She wrote in Bohemian (although the best of her education had been in German), that she might the more surely reach the hearts of her people. It is said that as a faithful delineator of Bohemian country life she has no equal, and certainly the present volume is a remarkably realistic account of the daily being, doing, suffering, and enjoying of an old peasant woman and her family and neighbors. Long and detailed as the chronicle is, it moves with an energetic spring not less characteristic of the narrative than of the sturdy, vivacious grandmother herself. A most agreeable idea is given of the Bohemian domestic hearth and of the loving optimism of family life. The Princess is more or less a figure-head, but Grandmother, with her superstitions, her horse-sense, and her loving heart, is beautifully alive, and so are the children who hang at her skirts—maidenly Borunka and sprite-like Adelka. Dogs, chickens, doves, deer, ants, and ladybugs are among the prominent characters, and in the main we find them as interesting as the children do, even if here and there, while Knowledge is flying about, saying "Take me," a rebellious reminiscence will arise of 'Evenings at Home' and 'Sandford and Merton.' On the whole, though the book can hardly be called a novel, it is interesting as a specimen of Bohemian literature, and as a mirror of manners and superstitions; while as a narrative it will please grandmothers, grandchildren, and those who love either class.

The grandchildren must decidedly not be given Ossip Schubin's latest work to read. This clever author begins to flaunt the defects of her virtues. Her stories, it is true, grow more firm and more inventive, but her development in that direction does not keep pace with the monstrous growth of her note-taking, which, having been her strong point heretofore, now threatens to swamp her other powers. The delineation of the manners of Vanity Fair is as lawful a field for a novel as the working out of a plot, but if it consists mainly of episodes which neither advance nor illumine the story, it cannot be called a well-constructed novel, though it may furnish amusing reading. Ossip Schubin has elected to describe, in 'Countess Erika's Apprenticeship,' the manners of aristocratic society in Berlin. No one under a countess figures in her pages, and princesses grow on every bush. There are, of course, a few artists wherewithal to stock the princesses' bear-gardens, but even they are all "vons." With few exceptions, the characters are a wicked and adulterous generation, and it is the list of their misdemeanors, either detailed or hinted, which, thinly clad in a story, supplies the real *raison d'être* of the book. The supreme struggles of the small fry to associate with the great, of the great to keep themselves supplied with scandals, subjective and objective, are only equalled by those of the writer to show an arm-in-arm intimacy with human nature, and more particularly with the aristocracy. The whirling of the scene from Berlin to Bayreuth and to Venice changes only the sky and not the mind. The Grand Canal, "Parsifal," the Thiergarten, are simply pegs on which to hang the same clever but shallow feats of pen, the same display of knowingness. There is an air of cheerful alacrity about the vices of Ossip Schubin's world which is wanting to its reluctant and perfunctory virtues. Wit and the wish to be caustic are not absent, and in a superficial sense the story is entertaining. If the world loves anything better than a lover, it is a lord, even in his sins. So has it been ever since the immortal Evelina's cousin cried, "Law! Polly, Miss danced with a lord!" Here may be found, then, the charm of fine names and titles, and of all, in short, that is included in the Indian boy's definition of "unwieldy wealth," namely, "dazzling gauds and plenty too much elephants." Apropos of 'Countess Erika,' a passing query suggests itself: What is the connection between the persistent use of the present tense in novels and a certain style of story which it invariably accompanies? Intensely modern it always is, and modernly intense, reeking with the world, the flesh, and the devil. The heroine, here and usually, renounces all three at last in favor of the only suitor who is not a roué, but the real fun of the thing is over then; the gist of the book has been the author's acquaintance with methods of getting into intrigues and out of them.

No one can wonder that the writer, in a preface, congratulates herself upon having Mrs. Wister for a translator, nor that she authorizes the present translation to the exclusion of every other one.

Stanley Weyman, already favorably known as the author of 'The House of the Wolf,' now gives us 'The Story of Francis Cludde.' Both are historical novels or novelettes, and if the earlier book, considered as history, might have borne the sub-title, 'The Massacre of Saint Bartholomew Made Easy,' the present volume could be called 'Bloody Mary in the n^{th} Dilution.' No doubt, for story-telling purposes, dilution is to be desired, and this is certainly a commendable story, being full of interest and told with great spirit. Master Francis Cludde, a hot-headed young Englishman, runs away from his home in Warwickshire to carve his own fortunes. In London he falls in with the Duchess of Suffolk and her kinswoman, who are fleeing to Holland to escape Catholic persecution. Holland, in 1555, it will be surmised, soon becomes a very hot place for even English Protestants. Many and wild are the adventures of the little group, now enlarged by the Duchess's husband and a Dutch Protestant family, in getting out of Holland with their heads on their shoulders. How they did it—how they came back in later times to England, and how Master Cludde made an honorable name for himself—all is told in an animated style, while the interest of suspense is admirably maintained. It is a capital book for the young, and even the less hardened nerves of the middle-aged will find here no superfluity of gore or brutality to mar their pleasure in a bright and clean tale of prowess and adventure.

The application of the aphorism—"Ciphers forget their integer"—with which Mrs. Kirk begins her new novel, 'Ciphers,' is not altogether clear; but it is evident enough that most of the characters represented in this story of modern New York society life are ciphers; though they might readily make the mistake of imagining themselves integers. The beautiful and wealthy widow who creates a sensation on her reappearance in society, and the manly young architect with whom she falls in love, have enough inherent character to give them some value and to save the reader from drearily echoing the words of the Preacher, "All is vanity." Yet in spite of the breath of fresh air which these two chief actors bring into drawing-rooms crowded with the trivial appurtenances which suggest, accord-

ing to the author, the "acme of civilization," the story leaves one unrefreshed and unstimulated. The principal figures are not drawn vigorously enough to produce a very marked impression or to compensate for the inanities of the others. And a novel that fails to brighten life or to enrich it has surely failed of its purpose.

THE NON-EUCLIDEAN GEOMETRY.

Geometrical Researches on the Theory of Parallels. By Nicholaus Lobatchewsky. Translated from the original by George Bruce Halsted, A.M., Ph.D., ex-Fellow of Princeton College and Johns Hopkins University, Professor of Mathematics in the University of Texas. Austin. 1891.

LOBACHEVSKI'S little book, 'Geometrische Untersuchungen,' marks an epoch in the history of thought, that of the overthrow of the axioms of geometry. The philosophical consequences of this are undoubtedly momentous, and there are thinkers who hold that it must lead to a new conception of nature, less mechanical than that which has guided the steps of science since Newton's discovery. The book has been published many years—in fact, the essence of it was set forth before 1830; so long does it take a pure idea to make its way, unbacked by any interest more aggressive than the love of truth. In this case, the idea is lucid, easy, and convincing. Nobody with enough mathematical capacity to be able to understand the first book of geometry need fear the least difficulty in mastering Lobachevski's tract; and really it is high time that every thinking man and woman should know what is in it.

In the pre-Lobachevskian days, elementary geometry was universally regarded as the very exemplar of conclusive reasoning carried to great lengths. It had been the ideal of speculative thinkers in all ages. Metaphysics, indeed, as an historical fact, has been nothing but an attempt to copy, in thinking about substances, the geometer's reasoning about shapes. This is shown by the declarations of Plato and others, by the spatial origin of many metaphysical conceptions and of the terms appropriated to them, such as *abstract*, *form*, *analogy*, etc., and by the love of donning the outer clothing of geometry, even when no fit for philosophy. For instance, one of the remarkable features of geometry is the small number of premises from which galaxies of theorems result; and accordingly it has been the effort of almost all metaphysicians to reduce their first principles to the fewest possible, even if they had to crowd disparate thoughts into one formu'a. It did not seem to occur to them that since a list of first principles is a work of analysis, it would not be a small number of elementary propositions so much as a large number that would bespeak its thoroughness. Admiration for the elements of geometry was not, however, confined to metaphysicians. Euclid's treatise was acknowledged by all kinds of minds to be all but absolutely perfect in its reasoning, and the very type of what science should aim at as to form and matter.

In the empyrean of geometry there was but one little speck—the theory of parallels. Euclid had had a difficulty in proving the sum of the angles of a triangle to be not less than two right angles. His treatment of the subject betrays a very profound study of it; for instead of slipping over the difficulty unaware, as forty-nine out of fifty mathematicians would have done, instead of even bringing the necessary assumption to a persuasive shape, he takes as his fifth postulate (or 11th axiom, in incorrect editions) a proposition that begs the question in the frankest manner—namely, if two straight lines in a plane are met by a third making the sum of the inner angles on one side of this third less than two right angles, then these two lines will meet on that side if sufficiently produced. Innumerable attempts were made to demonstrate this; but, at length, the efforts of Legendre and others made it pretty clear that this proposition could be deduced only from some other nearly equivalent. The least unsatisfactory assumption ever proposed was that of Playfair, that if of three unlimited straight lines lying in one plane two intersect, the third must cross one or both. It was at this point that Lobachevski cut the knot by supposing Euclid's postulate untrue, and showing that the result was a perfectly consistent system of geometry which may, for all we can yet observe, be the system of nature. All this time, Euclid's proof (Elements, Bk. I., props. 16 and 17) of what substantially amounts to the proposition, that the sum of the three angles of a triangle are *not greater* than two right angles, was regarded as perfect. It was not till 1854 that Riemann first discovered that, though accepted for two thousand years as conclusive (and it stands to-day unchanged in almost all the text-books), this pretended proof is really quite fallacious. It is plain that it is so, because it uses no premises not as true in the case of spherical as in that of plane triangles; and yet the conclusion drawn from those premises is known to be false of spherical triangles.

The truth is, that elementary geometry, instead of being the perfection of human reasoning, is riddled with fallacies, and is thoroughly unmathematical in its method of development. It has in some measure confused all mathematics, by leaving unnoticed most of the really fundamental propositions, while raising to an undue rank certain others almost arbitrarily selected. It leads young men into bad logical ways; and it causes pupil and teacher to think that whoever has difficulty with this sophisticated logic is wanting in aptitude for the apprehension of mathematics. The study of geometry ought to begin with the theory of perspective. Let a man be supposed to stand on an unbroken sandy plain. Let him fix a needle upon a post, and set up a plate of glass in a steady position, and draw a perspective picture upon the glass by placing his eye so as to bring the needle point over each point in the sand to be represented and marking it on the glass in the same line of sight. The horizon is where the lines of sight just skim the surface of the rounded earth. These lines of sight form a cone, and their perspective representation will be the section of this cone by the plane of the glass. But for simplicity let it be supposed that the earth is flat and indefinitely extended, so that the *plain* is also a *plane*, and an unbounded one. Then every straight line in the sand will have a straight line for its picture, for all the lines of sight from the needle-point to points in that straight line will lie in one plane; and this plane will cut the plane of the glass in a straight line.

Lobachevski and Riemann cast no manner of doubt upon the geometry of perspective, so far as this is confined to questions of incidence and coincidence. But when it comes to the measurement of distances and angles, their objections begin. According to the Euclidean notions, the infinitely distant parts of an unbounded plane would be represented in perspective by a straight horizon or vanishing line. But Lobachevski says we cannot be sure that this line would be straight, that may be it would be a hyperbola like the perspective of the terrestrial horizon; and, in fact, the straight line being only a special case of the hyperbola, it is proper to say that such is its form. Riemann, however, points out that we cannot even be sure there would be any such line at all, for we cannot be sure that space has any infinitely distant parts, since it may be that if we were to move off in any direction in a straight line, we might find that, after traversing a sufficient distance, we had got around to our starting-point again.

Prof. Halsted's translation (which, while our notice has been waiting, has reached, we are glad to see, a fourth edition) is excellent; his useful bibliography of non-Euclidean geometry was already well known. We could only wish there were a more copious appendix. The work of Lobachevski, though simple and convincing, is not what would now be considered a scientific presentation of the subject, and is open to a good deal of criticism. A new synthetic exposition is much needed, and might well accompany a collection of the contributions of Lobachevski, Bolzai, Riemann, Cayley, Klein, and Clifford.

JAMES SMETHAM.

Letters of James Smetham. With an introductory memoir. Edited by Sarah Smetham and William Davies. Macmillan & Co.

THE name of James Smetham will call up to only a very limited circle of art students in England any associations. He was an instance of a type of man, not uncommon in English stock, rarely to be found in any other, in whom extreme sensibility in moral, intellectual, and æsthetic nature alike, without great strength, intellectually or physically, gives some of the best early fruits of culture, and wears out the machine it drives just when people look for something great from so much earnestness and so correct an estimate of the task in view. Writing verses at nine years and taking to art early, with the burthen of a religious tendency which we can hardly exaggerate in calling morbid, Smetham forced the note of a conscience which dominated whatever he did, and ended, as was to be apprehended, if not foreseen, in insanity, before he reached sixty. The last eleven years of his life were passed in intellectual night. Some of his early work had attracted the attention of Ruskin, ever sympathetic with all that had the tinge of devotional in art; and in a letter to the critic, Smetham tells the story of his efforts and his development.

At eight he decided to become a painter, was apprenticed to an architect, got rid of his indentures by showing his incapacity and reluctance to do what was set for him, quite as much as by his pertinacity in following pictorial art, and finally got consent to go his way. If he had had an education of the kind that the painters of the fifteenth century got, he might have become a remarkable painter, never a great one, except as Fra Angelico was great. In fact, his temperament was more akin to that of the Beato than to that of the Frate's great pupil Benozzo Gozzoli; and, but for his having been born and bred a Methodist, he might have been an ecstatic like the Angelico. But, instead of this, he went to the school of the Royal Academy, the last place in the world to learn anything but to sharpen crayons and draw from the antique with them; and presently he began to paint, his own master, like so many more in England; and, like most of them, only learning late what he ought

to have been taught in the very beginning. The Royal Academy did not work him the harm it generally does to men of his temperament, for he remained only a few months there. But he gained a living by painting portraits (though, later, photography broke off this resource), and the usual struggle of young painters working without help or patronage began. He went into the country to live, after his few months in the Royal Academy school, and a passage in his letter of autobiography to Ruskin is the prediction of his final eclipse:

"I went into the neighborhood of Bolton Abbey, where my father then resided; and here you will understand me when I speak of the great change which came over my life. The death of my brother [a Wesleyan minister in London] cast a great shade over my wild dreams and extravagant ambitions. I did a great deal for his approbation, and when he had gone my spirit followed him. I perceived that to attain to him was not a matter of fancy or speculation, and 'the commandment' came to me. A complete uproar and chaos of my inward life followed, and I fell into the 'slough of despond.' The beauty of nature mocked me, my fancies became ghosts. I felt my discordances with the spiritual universe; and it was not till my father also died that my soul was stilled and set in order. I had worked on (except for one dreadful period of four months, when I could not work at all though in perfect health) wearily and painfully; but now I resumed my pursuits with new zest, and devised the plans of study, some of the results of which you have seen. . . . A salutary fear shut me up in a happy seclusion, and I could not precipitate myself into the battle of life; so I went on painting portraits and interspersing them with fancy pictures, gaining money enough to keep me, and then snatching a month or two for study; now in a large town, now in a little one, now in a remote farm painting the farmer and his family, and roaming in his fields, and by the edge of his plantations; then in London."

It is not difficult to see here the symptoms of the mental disease which later came over him. Whether it might have been possible for him to cure the morbid and fatal tendency by a vigorous wrestle with humanity and getting calloused by the process, it is impossible to say; but if there were any hope for a healthy development of his talent and mental activity, it would have been only there. His seclusion, his giving the lead to the moodiness which many men who can recall their early years of poetical impression will recognize, were the surest tendencies to destroy his intellectual equilibrium; and if his Life has any value for those who read it, it will be that it is an illustration of the way in which minds over-inclined to introspection and spinning their mental fabrics from their spiritual natures tend towards a collapse. Ruskin, who had the same tendency, seems to have had a perception of it in Smetham, for he writes to him on the occasion of receiving from him a drawing on which the artist had bestowed great labor and feeling:

"I have hardly ever seen any work of the kind carried so far as the drawing in the principal face. I shall indeed value it very highly; but if, indeed, you think any words or thoughts of mine have ever been true to you, pray consider these to be the truest, that it is unsafe for you, with your peculiar temperament, to set yourself subjects of this pathetic and exciting kind for some time to come. Your health is not sturdy; you are not satisfied with what you do, and have to do some work which is irksome and tedious to you. If your work is divided between that which is tedious and that which tries your feeling and intellect to the utmost, no nervous system can stand it; and you should, I am very strongly persuaded, devote yourself to drawing and painting pretty faces, and things involving little thought or pathos, until, your skill being perfectly developed, you find yourself able to touch the higher chords without effort."

Smetham's was an essentially devotional nature—not merely religious in the sense of being governed by the immanent eternal law and divine presence, but dependent on the emotional activity which, where not united to a sound constitution and a robust frame, provides so many of the inmates of our lunatic asylums. To him the sense of the dominance over himself of the divine law and the willing obedience to it were not enough for conscience—he must be perpetually awakening the emotional illusions of the spiritual presence in that conscious state which is in itself a step towards insanity—perpetually feeling of his spiritual nature to be assured that it was there, like a man in a dream touching his body to be assured that it is himself. This is a condition in itself symptomatic of mental disease, and in another epoch, or another country, would have sent Smetham into a monastery; but in the condition in which he lived, it simply determined the wearing out of his mental machinery by the manifold charges on it. In one of his letters he gives utterance to the following rhapsody, which, with all its exaltation, is clearly only the expression of his habitual temper, what he was moved to in all his waking hours:

"It is the Truth that lives. This evening, going round the fields and lanes, on my old steps of thirteen years ago—the same gray twilight, sharp air, and pensive gold purple sunset over Highgate—my heart glowed within me as I thought how my life has changed by the belief of a few simple things since those old days. I thanked God aloud. I sent some plain expressions of praise upward to the heavens, where I saw one white star in the gray, tender blue eastward; such expressions as I could scarcely repeat, so unlike me to say aloud were they; but I could not help it. My heart was glowing silently like that star in the heavens. A star is ever the same. All that we know of it was known by the Shepherds of the East—by us as children—but it is for ever there. The leaves are tossing on the grass, or perishing in the pool, but the star is simple and the same. The leaf is not so simple to us as the star, it is not so grand, it is not so ineffable. I find the Truth to be like that: I know no more intellectually of it than when I first believed; but what a result comes from its abiding! A deeper, deeper happiness absorbs the heart and pervades the soul. A deepening calm rules and assimilates the faculties, and compels them into action; not excitement, but definite and proper action. The peace of God, which passes all understanding, which baffles all analysis, which has an infinitude of depth about it—as you cannot understand remote stars, nor the overhanging vault which you cannot at all explore, but can only feel as you feel your life, so you cannot touch this Peace of God with your understanding. It lies round you like an atmosphere. It dwells in you like a fragrance. It goes from you like a subtle elixir vitæ. 'My peace I leave with you, My peace I give unto you: not as the world giveth give I unto you.'"

With the exception of part of the latter sentences of this quotation, there is in it nothing that does not show the naïve and unaffected expression of the man himself with no atmosphere of the pulpit. If a little verbiage envelops the definition of the Truth (with a capital T), it is not strange; the letters are in the vein of a diary, and all diarists know that to write simply and unconsciously is the next thing to the impossible. Smetham's perceptions of the truths of art show that his feeling was the true one, and that, had he been wisely taught, he might have made his mark in the century. Speaking of the Turner sketches at Marlborough House, he says: "They confirm what I have long believed to be true, that in preparing for painting the best way is not to paint finished things from Nature, but to make slight, often symbolic, records, in abundance, of facts. There is scarcely an instance of a finished sketch of effect directly from Nature in all Turner." He did not take kdinly to pre-Raphaelitism. Speaking of some landscapes by Rembrandt, he says: "The pre-Raffaelite dicta of ten years ago would have laid these landscapes dead. The 'awe of observation,' peeping, and botanizing, and protesting, and putting the screw on square inches, would slay all such art, and it is the grandest of all." There is a most interesting letter of description of a visit to Denmark Hill, when Ruskin was there, and his father and mother still alive, and the portraits of the three are of the best:

"His father is a fine old gentleman who has a lot of bushy gray hair, and eyebrows sticking up all rough and knowing, with a comfortable way of coming up to you with his hands in his pockets and making you comfortable, and saying, in answer to your remark, that 'John's' prose works are pretty good. His mother is a ruddy, dignified, richly dressed old gentlewoman of seventy-five, who knows Chamounix better than Camberwell; evidently a good old lady, with the *Christian Treasury* tossing about on the table. She puts 'John' down and holds her own opinions, and flatly contradicts him; and he receives all her opinions with a soft reverence and gentleness that is pleasant to witness."

The brief sketch of Ruskin is perhaps recognizable in its complete truth only by those who knew him in that phase of his life, and is "worth framing."

"I wish I could reproduce a good impression of John for you, to give you the notion of his 'perfect gentleness and lowlihood.' He certainly bursts out with a remark, and in a contradictious way, but only because he believes it, with no air of dogmatism or conceit. He is different at home from that which he is in a lecture before a mixed audience, and there is a spiritual sweetness in the half-timid expression of his eyes; and in bowing to you, as in taking wine, with (if I heard aright) 'I drink to thee,' he had a look that has followed me, a look bordering on the tearful."

The book has a value in no ways proportional to the position which the artist took in the world of art. It betrays the complete image of a man who was a true artist by temperament and mental outfit, but who failed of the success which is the real object of labor, from the want of the correct education in living and in art which is necessary to technical mastery, and from causes which are always potent in the life of men who approach art in the modern condition and in the modern temperament. He was far from a great man, though he might have been a very distinguished one but for the dispersion of his energy and the sapping of his intellectual powers by the morbid devotionalism which found no counteracting influence in his practical life. His was a true and characteristic life because true to its morbid type, and therefore an instructive one—a life for a warning, not for an example.

The Financier and the Finances of the American Revolution. By William Graham Sumner. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1891.

THE problem to which the colonies and the confederation devoted most of their attention was how to carry on a war without taxing themselves for the maintenance of an army. As Prof. Sumner puts it, "It seemed to be accepted by everybody as a rational and correct view of the situation, that, of course, taxes could not be laid, because the fight was against taxation. We have not met with a single case in which anybody undertook to point out the distinction between resisting all taxation and resisting taxation which was not levied upon due authority; nor have we found one case in which anybody argued that the people had intelligently undertaken to resist the authority of Great Britain, and that they could or would subject themselves to the neces-

sary cost of it, in money and military effort, like men." In point of fact, the idea that taxation was necessary to the existence of society, an idea which seems to us elementary enough, was scarcely comprehended in the colonial period, for the excellent reason that society as then constituted existed practically without taxation. There was not much government nor very much need of it. The colony was "a congeries of coöperative land companies," and the taxes in these communities "were really nothing but the subscriptions of a club." Since they rebelled against Great Britain simply because she taxed them, it is perhaps not very surprising that their leaders hesitated to tell them that by their revolt they had only made taxes more inevitable.

Under these circumstances the governments of the Revolution were driven to resort to the most desperate expedients. The revolt against British taxation led to the suspension of most of the slight taxes that had been levied by the colonial governments, and we find the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts, two weeks before the battle of Bunker Hill, grasping eagerly at the report that there was a man in Salem who had £500 which he was willing to lend them. "It would be of the greatest importance to pay the soldiers, and might prevent the greatest mischief." At the outset some money appears to have been raised in this way, but the inducements to resort to the issue of paper currency were too strong to be resisted. It depreciated at once, of course, and then followed a series of measures intended to force people to part with their goods in exchange for this paper, the particulars of which are given by Prof. Sumner, and which could end in only one way. These enactments, however, did for a time terrify some persons into giving up their goods, and were especially convenient in plundering the Tories. But revenue so gained was not all profit, as the Tories retaliated by plundering the Whigs when they got a chance. In the course of three or four years all the devices that human folly and passion could suggest were exhausted. Specie had been driven out of use, the Continental currency had expired amid universal execration, and the business of the country was reduced to a system of barter.

It might seem that at last a resort to taxation had become inevitable, but, happily or unhappily, one other expedient remained. According to the theories of the age, colonial trade was a vast source of wealth to any nation that engaged in it, and there was from the beginning a good deal of hope that, by offering their trade to the rivals of Great Britain, the colonies might procure some substantial assistance. At this critical juncture these hopes were beginning to be realized, although the attempt to stop the trade with Great Britain had only resulted in making it illicit—both Congress and the States prohibiting it to their subjects, while they engaged in it themselves. The appetites of the French had been early whetted by stories of the enormous profits made in this traffic—the gain from a successful voyage to the West Indies sometimes being enough to balance the loss of two vessels with their cargoes—and the French Government seems at first to have intended to confine the expression of its sympathy with the colonists to allowing them to market their products in France. The address of the American Commissioners, however, was such as to induce the foreigners to part with their goods before they were paid for them, and eventually to induce the French Government to make loans in money. This was exactly what the colonists most desired, and the question of repayment by shipment of supplies, or in any other way, lost much of its interest. The success of the French and American arms in the latter years of the war produced the conviction abroad that independence would be won, and borrowing became easier; for it was thought, justly, as the event proved, that, after the States had secured their independence, they would easily carry their burden of indebtedness.

It was early in 1781 that Robert Morris was unanimously elected by Congress Superintendent of Finance, an office created for him and in which he had no successor. He was commonly spoken of as the Financier, and that title is inscribed upon his tombstone. He was a man of affairs, a merchant, banker, and speculator, and he made it a condition of taking office that he should be permitted to continue his private business. He could, of course, not expect much remuneration from Congress, but as it was necessary under the circumstances to speculate on their behalf as well as his own, the resulting confusion of accounts gave his enemies a chance to bring ugly charges against him. There seems to have been no reason to doubt his honesty, and as he freely used his own credit in raising supplies for the public, bringing some kind of order out of financial chaos and greatly reducing expenditure, the balance may be said to have been heavily on his side, although the accounts made him out a debtor.

The importance of Morris's appointment lay in the fact that it put the management of the finances into the hands of an executive officer, it having previously been controlled by a committee of Congress, under whose incompetent direction the most deplorable waste and corruption had occurred. Prof. Sumner does not give us a very clear idea of what reforms Morris effected, but he quotes a statement that it had cost Congress $18,000,000 a year in hard money to carry on the war, while under Morris's administration the cost was reduced to $4,000,000. For one thing, Morris insisted on controlling his own subordinates, although Congress was extremely reluctant to give up this patronage. His understanding of what ought to be done was clear enough, but his attempts to make the States pay their quotas to the general Government seem to have produced little result. He was driven to undertake a general mercantile business on behalf of the Government, buying, selling, exporting, and importing commodities by the ship's cargo. He established the Banks of Pennsylvania and of North America, which proved of some convenience, and he engaged extensively in operations in the exchange market, some of which at least were sheer "bill-kiting." At all events, it may be said the country managed under his administration of the finances to struggle through three most critical years, and when he resigned, the success of the loans made in Holland relieved us of our most pressing difficulties.

There are numberless matters of interest touched upon by Prof. Sumner to which we are tempted to refer, but we can only advise our readers to consult his work for themselves. It is furnished with a copious list of authorities and a full index, and the thanks of his countrymen are due to the author for the immense labor which he has performed—a labor which is not less valuable because it simply subserves historical truth, and has not been affected by any disposition to extenuate the failings of the period. The glories of the time have been elsewhere sufficiently dwelt upon. As a matter of fact, the country came through the Revolution without exhaustion, and throughout the war the army may be said to have been starving in the midst of plenty. The utter lack of administrative organization, the absence of financial experience, and the timidity of the leaders which prevented them from calling upon the people for taxes, nearly wrecked a cause which there were abundant resources to sustain. The colonies are said to have raised an army of 25,000 men during the Seven Years' War, and during the Revolution they never maintained more than 30,000 at any one time.

So far as Morris as an individual is concerned, Prof. Sumner's portrait is but a faint and colorless outline. He learned evil ways in administering the distressed finances of the nation, but his subsequent ruin was due entirely to his wild speculations in land. His services were evidently believed at the time to be most important, and though he took office at a period when the conditions were beginning to turn in our favor, his labors were sufficiently arduous to entitle him to the honor of posterity. He declared, in words which Prof. Sumner places on his title-page, "It is of the nature of expedients to increase the evils which they postpone"; but a policy of expedients was forced upon him, and he made the best of the situation.

A Brave Black Regiment. History of the Fifty-fourth Regiment of Massachusetts Volunteer Infantry, 1863–1865. By Luis F. Emilio. 8vo, pp. xvi., 410. The Boston Book Co.

Captain Emilio has written a modest, candid, and full history of the colored regiment made famous by its charge upon the parapet of Fort Wagner, where Colonel Robert G. Shaw died at its head. It was the pioneer organization of black troops and had a just preëminence on that account. Fully weighing the importance of the experiment, Governor Andrew determined to give to it a corps of officers selected with exceptional care, and to be rigid in excluding from the rank and file all unhealthy and weak recruits. The result was an organization which bore the fatigue and exposure of camp life with uncommon success. Its ranks were always full and always ready for duty.

Its military career was an honorable one, though both the more important engagements in which it had part turned out unfortunately. The attack upon Wagner was repulsed because there was no unity in the assault by the several regiments engaged in it, and so the heroism of Shaw's regiment, as well as of others, was wasted. The fault was not with the regimental officers, who did their duty nobly. Their other battle was that of Olustee in Florida, when the little army to which they belonged was defeated, but the Fifty-fourth performed well the honorable and perilous duty of covering the retreat. Their skirmishes and minor engagements were numerous, but they were not accompanied by the stimulus and the éclat of success on a large field, and the whole service of the regiment was rather a steady and faithful one than one of marked brilliancy. The roster shows that the recruiting for the regiment was not confined to Massachusetts, but was active in New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan. Nearly every free State had some representation in the ranks, and the regiment was therefore rightly considered a typical one, exhibiting the military aptitude of the free colored men of the country. Later in the war, very great numbers of freedmen were enlisted, but neither in education, in habits of self-respect, nor in the train-

ing under carefully chosen officers, could they be expected to rival the Fifty-fourth Massachusetts. The whole subject of the actual value of the colored troops has as yet been very imperfectly studied, and would well repay a searching investigation from a strictly military point of view, to determine whether their enlistment and use was in fact an economy of the military resources of the country.

The narrative makes it very clear that Col. Shaw's regiment was orderly, well-disciplined, and brave. It had some peculiar discouragements to contend with. First of these was the threat of outlawry on the part of the Confederacy against officers and men of black and mulatto regiments. The warning given by the United States Government that severe retaliation would follow any treatment of them contrary to the laws of war, protected the captured, apparently, though the massacre at Fort Pillow was horrid proof that quarter could be refused on little or no pretext. A small number of the Fifty-fourth were taken prisoners and were surrendered at Wilmington just before the close of the war. The Confederacy, however, had, up to that time, refused to exchange colored prisoners, and the doubt as to his fate if captured must have hung over every colored man who enlisted. Besides this, the Fifty-fourth had a special grievance in regard to its pay. Mr. Stanton's authorization to Gov. Andrew to raise colored regiments preceded the act of Congress on the subject, which fixed the pay at a lower rate than for white men. The recruiting officers of the Massachusetts regiment offered to enlisted men the same pay as others received, in good faith, but without authority of law. When the time for payment came, the regiment refused to take the lower pay, even under protest. The Massachusetts Legislature appropriated State funds to make up the difference, but the non-commissioned officers and men made it a question of principle, and maintained their position till Congress awarded them the full pay, eighteen months after their service had begun. No better proof of loyalty and good discipline could be given than is found in their steady obedience to orders during the long delay, very few cases of insubordination being reported. Capt. Emilio's history does not enter as fully into either of these questions as is desirable for historical purposes, for there were two sides to the discussion, as is usual. He gives the side of the regiment, as they felt it, warmly but temperately, assuming that there could be no debate as to the injustice of their treatment by the national Government.

The book should be welcomed as an important chapter of our war history, well presented, and well illustrated by good maps and good portraits of the men of both races who carried the muskets as well as the sabres.

Japanese Letters. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

THIS book purports to be a collection of private letters from two Japanese, which have been "edited" by Commander Hastings Berkeley, R. N., author of 'Wealth and Welfare.' They profess to give, as the sub-title advertises, "Eastern impressions of Western men and manners, as contained in the correspondeuce of Tokiwara and Yashiri." Tokiwara is the "representative of young Japan," who has left the land of earthquakes and attempts at Parliament, and is travelling in Egypt, England, and the Continent. The youthful enthusiast is set over against the aged and sober Yashiri, who remains at home, conservative in politics and sceptical of the benefits promised to his country by the infusion of Occidental ideas. England is the country from which Tokiwara believes Japan is to learn the secret of industrial and political supremacy. Like so many Japanese, he hopes that Nippon is to become "the England of the East." Yashiri, on the other hand, distrusts the power of his æsthetically-minded fellow-islanders to become a business nation. The national temperament is impulsive, while the striking quality of the English is "their power of self-restraint, their reluctance to undertake more than they feel they can carry out." Mightily impressed with London is the young traveller, and the intensity and permanency of endeavor in the Briton are constant surprises to him. With a philosophical power and coloring of language that is wholly English, this young Japanese, doubtless faultlessly clothed by the tailors of Ludgate Hill, discusses, in a suspiciously Occidental and un-Japanese style of thought, religion, science, fashion, politics, art, and education.

The "editor" of these letters, who modestly ascribes to Yashiri and Tokiwara his own cogitations and criticisms, has succeeded in soaking out the last watermarks of real Japanese thought, and in translating away all native idiom and peculiarities. True, he introduces here and there a Japanese word, and then obligingly turns it into English in a foot-note. The skill which he has shown, however, in destroying the moulds of Japanese thought and in obliterating the native canvas-texture beneath the English paint and varnish, is worthy of nobler work. The Englishman whose religion is "British interests," and the club-man and naval officer who enjoys ventriloquizing his opinions, is manifest in every chapter. We should mark paragraphs on pp. 23 and 29 as strong evidences of this. The "editor" has evidently seen Japan from the deck of a man-of-war, and probably picked up many notions about the Japanese, so that he is well able to compare, for example, the uses of the pocket-handkerchief and the nose-paper on different sides of the Pacific. Every Japanese familiar with the facts knows that "our three hundred feudal nobles in 1869" did not spontaneously (p. 252) relinquish their "fiefs, feudal power, and military splendor," but that the stronger compelled the weaker to do so. The few men of personal importance gave the many figure-heads to understand that blood and destruction awaited them unless they at once complied with the orders given in the Emperor's name. Very properly the "editor" brings his chapters to an end after likening the Japanese to the French mind in love of ideas, and making a complimentary reference to Thomas Carlyle. The true author of these essays has given us, under the thin disguise of letters labelled Japanese—which are Japanese in the same sense as are Sullivan's music and opera singers—an interesting contribution to the discussion of the subject of Japan's attempt to appropriate Western civilization. Even in their earnest search for religion, for the basis of morality, for the best government, the people of Japan are worthy of all sympathy. And this quality the editor shows commendably, despite the catch-penny title of his book.

Selected Fragments of Roman Poetry from the Earliest Times of the Republic to the Augustan Age. Edited by W. W. Merry, D.D. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1891.

IT was a good idea of Dr. Merry's to give in a convenient form a representative selection from the fragments of Roman epic, dramatic, and satiric poetry. To most men, Latin epic poetry means Vergil, satire means Horace and Juvenal, with sometimes Persius, while Roman drama is utterly unknown. For of course in Plautus and Terence there is hardly anything Roman except their mere language. The fact is, we know nothing of real Roman drama except what we can learn from the remains of the tragedies, praetextæ, and togatæ, written by such men as Livius, Ennius, Nævius, Pacuvius, and Afranius. Nor can one understand the growth and thoroughly appreciate the perfection of the later epic and satire without having studied the fragments of the earlier writers in the same kinds of poetry. Of course, material for such study has not been wanting, but it has been scattered about in different books, and these have generally been too large or too difficult for the beginner. Dr. Merry's collection is therefore welcome, and will doubtless be more useful than his modesty allows him to hope. We are more than glad to forgive him for attempting nothing himself in the lines of textual criticism and metrical arrangement, since he offers English readers the results of the work of such scholars as Ribbeck, Vahlen, Baehrens, Riese, and L. Müller.

The book contains selections from about forty poets, as well as some early formulæ, the Scipio epitaphs, and popular songs. Some of these poets we have already mentioned. Among others are Turpilius, Accius, Lucilius, the two Varros, Cicero, and Cinna. A brief word of introduction might have been said about each of them—at least their dates should have been given—but the notes are confined to a summary of the contents of the fragments and to the explanation of a few of the more difficult terms. On the whole, the beginner wants more notes everywhere than Dr. Merry gives him—notes like those in Allen's admirable edition of the 'Remnants of Early Latin.' Most valuable, however, are the suggestions about the plots of the lost plays of which we have fragments. In the ordinary editions only the bare Latin is provided, and the task of making sense and connection is worse than a Chinese puzzle. It is good to find that at last some praise is accorded in an English book to the work which Cicero did in poetry. Ridiculed as his muse has been, its productions yet show a real advance in the matter of form, if not in thought. Lucretius and Catullus are not the only stations in the long journey from Ennius to Vergil, and hexameters like those which Cicero and a few others have left behind them mark the stages of development which resulted finally in the 'Æneid.' The perfection of the Vergilian form can no more be appreciated by one who has not studied the earlier hexameters than can the lyric metres of Horace by one who knows nothing of their Greek models.

We have noticed a few misprints here and there, such as the references to Terentius Scaurus and to Festus on the first page, and on page 16 *Menippae* for *Menippeae*. Of errors may be noted *immulgens* for *inmulgens* (p. 13), as well as *nefrens* for *nefrendes*. In a revision it would be well for the editor to consult both here and elsewhere De Ponor's Festus. The statement (p. 2) '*rue=ruinam*,' with '*lue=luem*' preceding it, is misleading. The metre in the quotation from Nævius on page 23 requires *utrubi*, not *uterubi*, and the former is what Charisius gives in the place cited. It is perhaps trusting one's authorities too far when a line quoted as a senarius by Gellius is printed as a saturnian by Dr. Merry (p. 4), following without a word of warning the wholesale rearrangement of Baehrens. Still, all these are tri-

fling blots, easily removed, on what promises to be a useful handbook.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

À Kempis, Thomas. Meditations on the Life of Christ. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Andrews, Rev. S. J. Life of Our Lord upon Earth. Scribners. $2.50.
Burnham, Mrs. C. L. Miss Bagg's Secretary. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Cambridge, Ada. Not All in Vain. Appletons.
Cobb, Sylvanus, Jr. Bion the Wanderer. Cassell. 50 cents.
Collins, Clinton. All Poetry: A Selection of English Verse. Cincinnati: The Traddles Co. 70 cents.
Coltman, Robert, Jr. The Chinese: Their Present and Future: Medical, Political and Social. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis.
Conway, M. D. Prisons of Air. United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Crushed Yet Conquering. F. H. Revell Co. $2.40.
Davis, N. S., Jr. Consumption: How to Prevent It and How to Live with It. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis. 75 cents.
Eschstruth, Nataly von. The Wild Rose of Gross-Stauffen. Worthington Co.
Evolution in Science, Philosophy and Art. Appletons.
Fabbri, Cora. Lyrics. Harpers.
Farjeon, B. L. For the Defence. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Fawcett, Edgar. Women Must Weep. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
Flower, Prof. W. H. The Horse. Appletons. $1.
Ford, W. C. Letters of William Lee. 3 vols. Brooklyn: Historical Printing Co. $12.
Freytag, Gustav. The Lost Manuscript. Chicago: The *Open Court* Publishing Co. $1.
Fullerton, W. M. In Cairo. Macmillan.
Gotch, J. A. Architecture of the Renaissance in England. Parts II. and III. London: B. T. Batsford; Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Hale, Rev. E. E. The Story of Massachusetts. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Hardy, Thomas. Tess of the D'Urbervilles. Harpers.
Harte, Bret. A First Family of Tasajara. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Heine, H. Pictures of Travel. 2 vols. J. W. Lovell Co. $3.50.
Hillebrand, Karl. Zeiten, Völker und Menschen. Dritter Band. Aus und über England. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner.
Homan's Banker's Almanac and Register and Legal Directory. Homans Publishing Co.
Hoppin, Prof. J. M. The Early Renaissance, and Other Essays on Art Subjects. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Hutchinson, W. F. Under the Southern Cross: A Guide to the Sanitariums, etc., in the West Indies and Spanish Main. Providence: H. Gregory. $1.50.
James, Prof. William. Psychology. Henry Holt & Co. $1.60.
Jephson, Henry. The Platform; its Rise and Progress. 2 vols. Macmillan. $4.
Kielblock, Adolph. The Stage Fright; or, How to Face an Audience. Boston: G. H. Ellis.
Libbey, Laura J. We Parted at the Altar. Robert Bonner's Sons.
Lockwood, Mrs. S. E. H. An English Grammar for the Higher Grades in Grammar Schools. Boston: Ginn & Co. 80 cents.
Loughead, Mrs. F. H. A Crown of Thorns. San Francisco: C. A. Murdock & Co. 25 cents.
Matson, Miss Cora A. As the Cardinal Flower: Poems. Fulton, N. Y.: Fred Bennett. $1.
Molinari, G. de. Religion. Paris: Guillaumin.
Moltke's Letters to His Mother and Brothers. Harpers.
Morris, Mowbray. Montrose. [English Men of Action.] Macmillan. 60 cents.
Moule, H. C. G. Charles Simeon. London: Methuen & Co.
Müller, F. Max. Anthropological Religion. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Penn, I. G. The Afro-American Press and its Editors. Springfield, Mass.: Willey & Co.
Pocket-Map of Argentine Republic, Paraguay, Uruguay and Chile. Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.
Robinson, John. Our Trees. Salem, Mass.: N. A. Horton & Son.
Ruskin, J. The Eagle's Nest. [Brantwood Edition.] Charles E. Merrill & Co. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 18, 1892.

The Week.

THE voice of the people of New York in the town elections of twenty counties is clearly audible in the following table, compiled by the Albany *Evening Journal*, showing the political divisions in the new Boards of Supervisors as compared with those chosen last year:

	1891.		1892.	
	Rep.	Dem.	Rep.	Dem.
Broome	14	15	22	7
Chemung	7	4	3	8
Chenango	9	12	13	8
Cortland	7	8	10	5
Cattaraugus	19	13	20	12
Delaware	11	8	12	7
Franklin	12	7	16	3
Herkimer	10	9	12	7
Madison	9	5	13	1
Montgomery	4	6	6	4
Onondaga	7	12	15	4
Otsego	13	11	13	11
Putnam	3	3	3	3
Schoharie	3	13	6	10
Schuyler	5	3	4	4
Seneca	5	5	5	5
St. Lawrence	27	4	28	3
Steuben	15	17	23	9
Tioga	6	4	9	1
Washington	13	4	15	2
Totals	199	163	248	114

Here is a net Democratic loss of 49 in a total of 163, or more than 30 per cent. That is a condemnation of Hillism, as exhibited in seat-stealing and snap-convention-calling, which is not to be misunderstood. The Democratic party would have small chance of carrying the State of New York with a candidate in any way representing the odious performances which have called forth such a rebuke as that. The voters of the counties in which Hill perpetrated his canvassing-board outrages are clearly determined that there shall be no chance for the repetition of those outrages after the next election. The Republicans have made gains in fifteen of the twenty counties, have held their own unchanged in three others, and the Democrats have made gains in only two, one of these being Hill's corrupted county of Chemung.

However reluctant the bar may be to attack a judge on the bench, and however incompetent the public may be for the task of initiating a movement against him, it can hardly be that we are reduced to such helplessness that nothing will be done to call Judge Maynard to account for his share in the late election frauds. He has been positively charged by one of the witnesses in a judicial inquiry with having assisted in these frauds, by abstracting one of the returns from the official custodian on its way to the Board of Canvassers. This is a criminal offence, defined in the Penal Code as "grand larceny in the second degree," and punishable by imprisonment for not less than two or more than five years. He has, further, in the public estimation as the matter stands at present, apparently been appointed to a seat in the Court of Appeals, to fill an unexpired term, as a reward for the commission of this offence. No such incident has heretofore occurred in our judicial annals. We do not say that the charge has been proved. Judge Maynard may have a defence to it. But nothing has as yet been done to make him produce this defence. No proceeding is pending in which he is a party defendant.

The testimony of the Comptroller and his messenger shows that Mr. Maynard, without any authority whatever, went into the Comptroller's office and abstracted from his mail an official document which had been sent to the Comptroller for him to file in the official records of the State. This document was the legal return of the election in the Fifteenth Senatorial District, showing that the Republican candidate had been elected. If that return had been received by the Comptroller and filed by him, in accordance with his oath of office, with the State Canvassing Board, that Board would have been obliged to canvass it as the Supreme Court and the Court of Appeals directed, and the Democrats could not have stolen control of the Senate. One other bit of evidence has been given which implicates Judge Maynard as the leader in the conspiracy by which this legal return was prevented from reaching the State Canvassing Board. In the statement which Senator Hill made to Col. George Bliss, and which the latter repeated to Judge Cullen in Brooklyn on February 10, Mr. Hill declared that when the Clerk of Dutchess County, who is himself charged with inducing one of the Governor's messengers to give him a duplicate of the legal return from the Governor's mail, came to him on the morning that Mr. Maynard committed his offence, and asked his advice as Governor about what he should do to regain possession of the returns, he as Governor advised the clerk to "see Deputy Attorney-General Maynard, who was counsel for the State Board of Canvassers, and take his advice." Whether a movement to bring Judge Maynard to justice be made or not, the members of the bar owe it to themselves and to the community not to allow it to go on the record that such a man had been placed upon the bench of the Court of Appeals without their notice.

The Maryland House on Thursday, by a vote of 78 to 3, the full Democratic vote in the affirmative, adopted a resolution declaring it their sense that the National House of Representatives "should deal with the subject of tariff reform, whether by general bill or otherwise, upon the broad lines marked out by President Cleveland's message of December, 1887, and the Mills Bill, in order that the party may enter upon the great contest of 1892 with a definite policy, which will convince the country that it does not mean to take any backward step, and that its faith in the common sense and conscience of the people is unshaken." This is as clear and explicit as a declaration could well be made. Such a deliverance would be of importance if made by any body of Democrats, but its significance is vastly increased when it comes from the Legislature of Maryland, a State whose Democratic leaders have been charged with inclining towards the reactionary policy advocated and represented by Hill. As this Legislature recently reëlected Mr. Gorman to his seat in the Senate, and ratified his choice for the other seat, its present action should convince even Hill of the folly of expecting Mr. Gorman's support.

The first popular verdict to be rendered by the Democrats of any part of the country upon the reactionary tendencies in the party which have been manifested at Washington the last two months, has been pronounced in the Sixteenth Congressional District of Illinois. That district is represented by Mr. George W. Fithian, who made the fight in 1890 upon the tariff-reform issue, and went to Washington at the opening of the session prepared to continue it. He therefore refused, as did two other Illinois Democrats, to support Springer as a candidate for Speaker, and voted for Mills as the champion of tariff reform. During and after the contest for Speaker, these three recalcitrants were threatened with defeat for renomination in their districts because they had refused to be fooled by the "favorite son" doctrine. The canvass for members of the next Congress begins in Illinois soon after the first session of the existing Congress has opened, and most of the primaries in Mr. Fithian's district have now been held. He has already enough delegates instructed for him to insure his renomination, and the same result appears certain in the districts of his two associates, Mr. Lane and Mr. Forman. Such object-les-

sons as this will not be lost upon the managers of the Democratic party.

We are now near the beginning of March. Some persons of influence were confident that Congress might adjourn by the middle of May. But what with the dilatoriness of the Committee of Ways and Means and the doggedness of the Watch-Dog of the Treasury, no tariff bill, large or small, had been reported until the 16th day of February, and only one appropriation bill, and that the shortest of all, has passed the House. The result is that the country is gaining the conviction that the tariff issue is to be "burked" in order that Mr. Cleveland may not become too popular before the Convention meets. Any tariff fight whatever is certain to enure to his benefit. When the pugnacity of the Democrats is excited, as it will be by a real struggle on that issue, the fact that Mr. Cleveland made the issue will be impressed upon the public mind. If there were a settled purpose in the Speakership contest to defeat Mr. Cleveland, it would manifest itself in a sluggish tariff policy rather than in a single-bill policy. We do not think that Mr. Springer has any sinister design whatever, but we take leave to remind him that his own fortunes and those of his party are at stake equally with those of Presidential candidates, few or many, and that he cannot afford to waste more time.

Congressman Harter of Ohio has sent a very telling document to the Grand Army posts throughout the country, showing what effect the free coinage of silver would have on pensions and pensioners. Such a measure would substitute the value of a silver dollar in place of the value of a gold dollar on every pension. The silver dollar is now worth 70 cents. Consequently all pensions would be worth, under the silver régime, 70 per cent. of what they are now worth. Thirty cents would be shaved off each dollar of pensions. A soldier now getting $4 per month would then get only $2.80, and all others in proportion. But, says Mr. Harter, and here he is perfectly sound, the prospect is that silver will decline still more. It is more likely to fall to 60 cents per dollar than to go back to 80 cents. Every new railway built in the mountains, and every new discovery in metallurgy, tend to increase the product of silver and to lower its value. It is a fact that ores which cost *twenty-one* dollars per ton for treatment in Colorado a few years ago, are now treated for *six* dollars per ton. These discoveries and new facilities are as applicable to the ores of Canada, Mexico, and other countries as to those of the United States. The most productive silver mine in the world at the present time is the Broken Hill Proprietary of Australia. Mexico is only beginning to show what she can do in the way of silver output with modern machinery, modern transportation, and modern chemistry. But supposing that the price of silver does not fall any more, the depreciation of pensions under free coinage would be equal to $45,000,000 per year. What is true of pensioners is equally true of savings-bank depositors, life-insurance beneficiaries, and all persons who have fixed payments in *dollars* coming to them. Such persons cannot recoup themselves by strikes any more than they can ward off a thunderbolt by shaking their fists at the sky.

In view of these palpable facts, how foolish and belated is the report of Mr. Bland's Committee presented to the House of Representatives on Monday. Much space is taken in it to show that there can be no "Dump of Silver" in this country from any other part of the world, because there are no great stocks of silver accumulated anywhere. If this were true, it would prove nothing to the point, since the great store of mother Earth would continue to swamp the market in the future as it has in the past. Who would have thought, when the Government's purchases of silver were raised from two millions to four and a half millions per month, that the price would fall 26 cents per ounce in eighteen months? Yet that is what has happened. The price in August, 1890, was 116.9 cents; it is now about 90, and there is no reason to suppose that it has reached its minimum. And yet Mr. Bland puts some emphasis on the statement that there is no great supply of silver in sight that might be dumped upon us at short notice. But, says this report, the foreigner cannot bring silver here and exchange it for gold without the consent of the owner of the gold. No, but everybody who has to pay a debt, including the savings banks, the life-insurance companies, and the Government, can pay depositors, widows, orphans, and pensioners with money worth 30 per cent. less than it is now worth, and *must* do so, because, when the standard of the country is changed, they cannot help themselves.

Mr. Bland's Free-Coinage Bill differs so widely from any measure heretofore proposed by anybody that we can hardly give it serious consideration. The proposal to make our standard of value depend upon the standard of another country, and to have all of our silver dollars recoined on a new ratio in the event that that other country does something, is altogether absurd. This proviso deserves careful attention. It reads as follows:

"Section 6. That so soon as France shall reopen her mints to the free and unrestricted coinage of silver at her present ratio, namely, fifteen and one-half pounds of silver to be worth one pound of gold, Troy, it shall be the duty of the President of the United States to immediately make public proclamation of that fact, whereupon the said ratio shall be the legal ratio of the United States, and thereafter the standard silver dollar shall consist of 400 grains of standard silver, and the laws relating to the standard silver dollars of 412½ grains standard silver shall be applicable to the new dollar of 400 grains standard silver. That the silver dollars of 412½ grains then in the Treasury or thereafter coming into the Treasury shall immediately and as fast as practicable be coined into dollars of 400 grains standard silver. Any gain or seigniorage arising therefrom shall be accounted for and paid into the Treasury."

There are 349,000,000 of standard silver dollars in the Treasury. Of this sum $320,000,000 belongs to the holders of silver certificates which are in circulation. Is the Government to seize upon these standard silver dollars and clip off 12½ grains from each one and pocket it as seigniorage? Or will it deal in this fashion only with the $29,000,000 belonging to itself? In the latter case, what will be the legal-tender value of the present silver dollar of 412½ grains? Will it be one dollar, or something over and above that? And is it possible that anybody can seriously think of putting our standard of value, the measure of all our debits and credits, contracts, undertakings, bargains, and sales, at the discretion of a foreign country? We observe that no provision is made in the bill for the contingency of France closing her mint again, or changing her ratio. As she changed her ratio twenty-seven times in the space of two centuries, it would surely be wise to take that chance into our reckoning.

Senator Hale made a rather serious mistake the other day when singing the praises of reciprocity in the Senate. He was pointing to the increase in our exports of flour to Cuba, as one of the great blessings brought about by the Spanish treaty, whereupon he was asked when that treaty took effect. He admitted that he did not know, but he did not let a little thing like that disconcert him, and went on with his discourse. As a matter of fact, the reduced duties on flour did not take effect until January 1, yet it is somewhat curious to observe that a considerable increase in our exports of flour to Cuba did, in fact, take place in the last six months of 1891, even under the old duty which the *Tribune* asserted to be practically prohibitory. Thus, the exports in all of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1891, were of a value of but $591,886, while in the next six months alone they amounted to $406,205, before a cent was taken off the duty. In December 34,316 barrels were exported to Cuba—more than in any two of the preceding eighteen months. These facts seem to indicate that the duties and the treaty have not had so much to do with the matter as supposed, but that we have in the recent gains in exports a part of the general extraordinary shipments of breadstuffs abroad. The returns for January show still greater exports of flour to Cuba, and we have no doubt that both our exporters and the Cuban consumer will be substantially aided by the lowered duties; but there is little sense in making reciprocity account for everything that happens, including our enormous crops and exportable surplus. An examination of the sta-

tistics of our exports of flour to Brazil, where the reciprocity treaty has run longer, will show that there, too, natural causes have not ceased to operate in presence of the miracles of reciprocity.

The good effects of the system of promotion for merit, as demonstrated by examination, are already visible in the Post-office Department, where it was instituted last July. There is a marked diminution of petty irregularities, and a corresponding increase in the quantity and quality of the work performed. Each clerk now feels that his advancement depends entirely upon himself, and the man of ability no longer fears that one of inferior merit will be more quickly advanced because the latter has an "influence." A large number of promotion examinations has been held, the greatest stress being laid upon the office work, and the questions being especially framed for each examination and with particular reference to each body of clerks examined. The system has also been extended to other branches of the Department, and the system of promotion for merit now applies to the Railway Mail Service as well as to every post-office where there are fifty or more employees. Each railway postal clerk with a desire for transfer to the more congenial duties in the Department at Washington, and every clerk with similar ambitions in each of the large city post-offices, is now making a record upon which will depend his chances for this transfer. This record is kept up from day to day, and the transfers are made quarterly. The Postmaster-General is much impressed by the effect thus produced upon the large body of people who see a way for their advancement.

Senator Quay is as frank and open in his methods as Senator Hill. He says of the Pennsylvania delegation, which he is now "packing" for personal use in the National Republican Convention, that it will not be committed to any candidate, but will go to Minneapolis as a "Quay delegation," and that when he gets on the ground with it he will look the field over, and see what to do with his men. The idea that the delegation should in any sense represent the wishes of the Republican voters of Pennsylvania, he would probably regard as a joke. The Republican party in Pennsylvania exists primarily for the benefit of Quay, as in former times it existed for the benefit of Simon Cameron. It would be a decided novelty for the State to have in a national Republican convention a delegation which was not in the market, controlled by one man, and for sale to the highest bidder—that is, to the candidate who will give the best terms to the owner of the delegation.

Masked behind what is outwardly the ignoble collapse of the Connecticut Legislature is in reality a most vital step towards a constitutional change in that State. For many years and up to recently the Democratic leaders have skulked and cringed in fear that the "little towns" would resent any practical measures aimed at a revision of the ancient organic law. But a few months ago the party made its first advance by enlarging the delegations of the large towns and cities in its own State conventions; and the Democratic Senate, just before it adjourned last Friday, went further and took up a bill for a constitutional convention. But for filibustering and the weariness of the Senate from the long deadlock, the bill would have been passed, as a test vote showed. As it is, the bill has been referred to a committee which is almost certain to report the measure favorably on the 2d of next May, and its passage will put the Republican House in the extremely awkward dilemma of answering to the people for a failure of the reform, or accepting it to the injury of the party's selfish interest, now bulwarked by the "rotten-borough" Constitution.

It does not seem possible that the Democratic Legislature of New Jersey will take the risk of passing any bill this winter to make disreputable horse-racing and betting on such racing less offensive in the eye of the law than it now is. It is true that there is a great deal of "politics" behind the racing scandals in New Jersey; that leading officers of Hudson County are interested in the Guttenburg track; that the judicial machinery of that county has been used to protect the gamblers, and that Gov. Abbett has deemed it expedient, as an ambitious politician, to hob-nob socially with the same disreputable crowd. But all this is less difficult to bring about than a yea-and-nay vote in a Legislature in favor of a bill giving legal sanction to gambling and gamblers. Many a rural legislator who will quietly tuck a ten-dollar bill into his pocket and vote as the giver asks him to on a corporation measure that his constituents do not understand, will refuse to incur the home censure that he knows will be visited upon him if he votes for a measure that is against good morals. As the Democrats have a majority of 11 in the Senate and 24 in the Assembly, they will, as a party, have to assume the responsibility for any racing and pool-selling laws that may be enacted this winter, even if a Republican is put forward as the introducer of the bills.

Oxford has given the world a great many exhibitions of religious panic, and the excitement caused by the proposal of some of Cardinal Newman's friends to erect a statue to his memory within the grounds of that Church of England stronghold is only the latest. It serves to recall, however, the similar artificial stir caused by one of the earliest efforts made to unmask Newman and his friends in the beginning of the "Oxford Movement." This was the plan to erect a memorial to the heroes of the English Reformation—Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer—whose work and opinions were the pet aversion of the Tractarians. They naturally held aloof from the plan to build the Martyrs' Memorial, and thereby gave ground for fresh suspicion that they were Romanists at heart—which at the time they were as far as possible from being. If the proposition were now to set up a statue to Newman as a man of genius whose name is indissolubly linked with Oxford, there could not be much objection to it; but the attempt to give a specially religious significance to the memorial in his honor was enough to defeat the whole project, besides inviting comparisons which his friends ought to be the last to suggest. The influence of his austere character and fidelity to conviction will long be great, but the opinions for which he battled and upon which he staked his life were so hopelessly out of touch with the modern world, even with modern Oxford, that one sees how Carlyle could assert of him that he had not the intellect of a moderate-sized rabbit. The Oxford of 'Essays and Reviews,' and abolished tests, and enthusiasm for German thought, would be as shocking to Newman as would the sight of Darwin's tomb in Westminster Abbey.

The Anarchistic outbreaks in Spain are probably only sporadic, though many Spaniards are recalling the work of the Black Hand under Alphonso XII., and fearing that the present disturbances imply a reorganization of that society. But the better opinion seems to be that a certain amount of floating Socialistic doctrine, combined with the extraordinary series of calamities which Spain has suffered during the past year, has been enough to lead to the semi-organized attempts at plundering which have passed themselves off as uprisings of Anarchists. There can be no question that the condition of the average Spanish laborer is a hard one. A Spanish correspondent of the *Journal des Débats*, writing of the very province where the recent disorders and executions occurred, not long ago detailed the low wages and hard treatment of the agricultural laborers, and showed how open they were to the Anarchistic propaganda. In the north of Spain, on the other hand, the striking miners avow their aim to bring about a "social revolution"; and in their zeal and strong organization and enlistment of women in the cause, they recall the beginnings and spirit of the revolution of 1868, which brought about the downfall of Isabella and her methods of government. But there appears to be no general sympathy with the movement, and the Government can count upon the coöperation of all political parties in putting down the agitators with a rough hand.

"HARMONY."

We observe that there is a disposition, which even such an opponent of Hill as the *World* seems disposed to encourage, to "harmonize the party" by coming to some sort of terms with the Hill faction. Now, the only portion of Hill's following which is united, coherent, and corporate, so to speak, and capable of being negotiated with and of giving and receiving rings of harmony, is Tammany Hall. It will be noticed that wherever Hill goes at this trying crisis in his career, his companions, counsellors, and comforters are the Tammany chiefs. At his conference on Saturday night in this city, the Tammany "Honorables" occupied the chief places. There were the Hon. Richard Croker, the Hon. Bourke Cockran, the Hon. T. F. Gilroy, the Hon. James Martin, the Hon. Frank Fitzgerald, the Right Hon. Thomas F. Grady, and so on. This has been the only class of persons he has ever been in the habit of seeing on his visits to this city. The leaders of his delegation at Chicago will undoubtedly be Tammany men, and the Hon. Bourke Cockran will in all probability be the spokesman who will present his name. His policy at the Convention will doubtless be one of intimidation, and the Tammany vote will be the weapon he will use in trying to have his way. There is no doubt, too, that this weapon can be easily made to look formidable, for it consists of a solid mass of about 120,000, which acts as an army, under command, and on which no speeches, or documents, or other similar instruments of persuasion can make the smallest impression.

As a general rule a political organization in a free country, although it may, and indeed must, have leaders, nevertheless has to be led in the way it would go. The members do not surrender their wills and consciences to their chiefs. They reserve to themselves the power of deciding what their objective point shall be, and give their leaders no power but the power of deciding how they shall reach it. The Tammany Association is something very different. Although a political association, there is really no politics in it. The Hon. Cockran's famous question, "What is there in this for Tammany?" did not mean, "Does this proposal furnish Tammany with the means of embodying in legislation or administration some favorite idea about public policy?" It meant, "How much can Tammany get out of this in cash or other valuable consideration?" The interest Tammany takes in Federal politics is always really very languid. None of the Honbles. knows or cares much about Federal questions, such as taxation, or currency, or foreign relations, or army, or navy. Twice in the history of the Association—the first time under Tweed and now under Hill—the leaders have had faint hopes of being able to enter into the Federal arena by getting one of their "pals" into the Presidency, but this ambition was roused solely by the chance it offered of controlling Federal offices in this State and city. They have come nearer to it now under Hill than ever before, for Croker has actually been able to dictate the appointment of the doorkeeper of the House of Representatives. He has doubtless smacked his lips a good deal over this morsel as a foretaste of good things to come.

This fact—that the following of the Tammany Quartet is a dumb, blind, conscienceless crowd, which can be led in any direction, without open discussion or explanation—is one which all harmonizers have to bear in mind, for it makes all compacts with the Honbles. worthless. No matter what promises they may make openly on the platform, they can break them secretly, and have done so in two memorable instances. Moreover, the weight of their disciplined force in a Presidential election is always overrated. When the people of the State are really roused, Tammany, formidable as it appears in peaceful times, counts for very little. In 1876, John Kelly, the then Boss of the organization, went to the Convention at St. Louis as the open and rabid opponent of Mr. Tilden's nomination, and distributed a hostile circular among the delegates, signed by a considerable number of respectable and representative Democrats of the city and State, and fought the Democratic candidate vigorously at the election. Tilden nevertheless carried the State by a majority of 33,000. In 1880 the same Kelly went to the Convention as the enthusiastic supporter of Gen. Hancock. Kelly made a speech, in which he informed the Convention that "there could be no doubt as to what the result would be in this State in November," just as the Honble. Cockran will doubtless do if Hill should be nominated next June. Garfield carried the State by 21,000 majority. In 1884 this same Kelly, supported by two Honbles. still extant, Cockran and Grady, went to the Convention at Chicago to oppose Mr. Cleveland, and did oppose him to the end. Cleveland carried the State by a small majority. In 1888 there was no formal opposition to Cleveland's renomination from Tammany or any other quarter. "Harmony" prevailed right and left, and yet Harrison carried the State by 14,000 majority, and Hill was elected Governor by 19,000.

The moral of all this is plain. Harmony with Tammany is not sure to do any good; discord with Tammany is not sure to do any harm. To make concessions to Tammany for the sake of its support is something even worse than buying a pig in a poke. It is alienating that shifting, uncertain, independent vote which, partly Democratic, partly Republican, so sways from side to side as to make political prophecy in this State worthless. But it is quite certain that whatever Tammany wants will be something to disgust, in a greater or less degree, the 33,000, or the 21,000, or the 14,000 voters who, in this State, as experience shows, cast the vote of the State at Presidential elections. It must not be left out of account, too, that Tammany has not, since Tweed's day, been so much discredited in the eyes of the country as it is to-day. The present Tammany Honbles. have hardly a respectable Democrat on their side. Hill's supporters and backers are largely of the semi-criminal class. Any one who looks at the signatures to the anti-Tilden circular which Kelly carried to St. Louis in 1876 will see at a glance that it would be impossible for Croker to obtain any names of corresponding weight or significance to-day.

OUR NATIONAL OBSERVATORY.

For the past five or six years our navy has been building a great observatory, and has finally got it about done. It will have cost something in excess of $800,000—nearly double the amount expended in constructing any of the great European institutions of like character. It is situated on a hill in the northwestern part of Washington, where "the atmospheric conditions are, perhaps, slightly better" than they were at the old site—at least, such is the testimony of the most distinguished astronomer of the Naval Observatory; but this advantage is offset by the very massiveness of the pile itself. If there is any one thing which modern manipulation of astronomical instruments has proved more conclusively than another, it is that working observatories should be built with an absolute minimum of material. Iron or steel, canvas and wood, are demonstrably unsurpassed. Progressive astronomers the world over have repeatedly testified to this, as witness the new observatories at Cambridge, Nice, Greenwich, Paris, the Cape of Good Hope, and elsewhere. Nor does one need to be a professional stargazer to see why large masses of any compact material in or near an observing-room are strongly objectionable, particularly in summer; the simple fact being that heat, radiating from them in the early part of the night, when the instruments are most used, produces those annoying atmospheric effects known as irregular refraction and bad definition. Nature wages incessant war upon the investigator; he can hope to win only by unremitting endeavor to circumvent her. Hence the constant aim of the working astronomer must be the minutest avoidance of all such perturbing conditions. But our navy's astronomers, paying little attention to all this, drew up specifications for their grand new observatory requiring masonry enough for a State capitol. Every extra load of brick and stone has helped to impair the desirability of the site. The great telescope, among the largest in the world, requires the steadiest atmosphere if one would fully utilize its extraordinary power; but even that splendid instrument is housed in quarters of solid masonry, where it is entirely safe to say that nearly all the summer observations made with it must hereafter be relatively inferior to the winter, because the immediate surrounding

atmosphere will be getting favorable for the best vision only about the time the observer will ordinarily have finished his work and gone home to bed.

One might discuss the instruments *seriatim* only to find little that is more hopeful; but this would involve too great technicality, and it is more to our present purpose to pass on to the management itself. Although an acknowledged scientific institution, the Naval Observatory has had no scientific head, no great astronomical problem to work upon, no expert supervision, no concerted plan of astronomical investigation. In the early history of the institution, no star-place could be completely determined without the use of two separate instruments and two observers instead of one. But for years, instead of coöperating, each observer seems to have worked away on his own list of stars, quite independently of what the other might be doing. At another time the "Superintendent" ambitiously blocked out a programme of observations to include nothing less than the determination of the magnitude, color, and accurate position of every star in the heavens within optical reach of the instruments! He was going to

> ". . . make a stir,
> Like a sage astronomer."

But as he had made no estimate of the time it would take to complete so enormous a piece of work, his venture necessarily ended in ignominious failure. The lack of organized effort at the Observatory is well illustrated by what took place some years afterwards, on the eve of a very important event, which four astronomers of the Observatory undertook to record. One, being preoccupied, did not find out until it was too late that the heat of the sun had broken his shade-glass; another trusted a treacherous clock-motion to carry his telescope, and so failed; the third, omitting to note whether his telescope was armed with a direct or an inverting eye-piece, was much chagrined to find out afterwards that he had missed the phenomenon completely, because it had been inconsiderate enough to take place on the side of the sun just opposite to that on which he had been expectantly gazing; while the fourth got no observation, for some reason or other, and prudently withheld all explanation of the circumstances. Divided responsibility was of course no responsibility. It is fair to presume that a competent head of the institution, invested with sole responsibility, would have made sure in sufficient season that the instruments were in working condition, and his corps of astronomers in some sort of training for the simpler types of observation.

Illustrations of this sort might easily be multiplied indefinitely. They show better than argument the folly of putting a man in charge of work that he knows nothing about. No official enterprise, the world over, is conducted in this inconsequent manner, and a half-century seems long enough for even a government to find out the fallacy of it. For a long period of years, says a prominent authority in these matters, the operations at the Naval Observatory were "creditable to no one but the one or two astronomers by whom all the observations of value were made." Another well-known astronomer, who has had excellent opportunities to judge, likens the Naval Observatory to "an astronomical mob, sometimes successful in obtaining the most brilliant results by individual prowess, but always lacking in coördination of work, and wasteful of effort." The principles governing naval seniority and advancement have repeatedly been shown to be utterly inapplicable to the needs of the Observatory service; and the authority just quoted remarks further, and with no small grain of truth, that "placidity and longevity are the stepping-stones to material success, which no zeal, no eminence of acquirement, can hasten, and no laziness and incompetence delay." To form some idea of things as they are now, it is only necessary to quote from a recent report of the Superintendent, in which he says that "the issuing of the annual volumes of the Observatory has been for years falling further and further behind, until now publication is five years behind the observations, and the amount of work done has been growing less and less."

What relation this Government institution, if left to itself, would sustain to the future progress of astronomy may be gathered from its supineness in the past with regard to stellar photography. Astronomers in Paris and elsewhere, taking the initiative, have achieved results of the highest importance, and have paved the way for solid progress in that identical branch of astronomy which Government observatories are maintained for. All the while this has been going on abroad, a pair of photographic instruments of the very best type for beginning such work, and which had cost the Government large sums of money, have been lying idle at our Observatory. Indeed, if any one has ever taken such a thing as a star-photograph at the Observatory, no Superintendent has ever mentioned the fact in his report. In this most significant development of recent astronomy, our national institution can now only commit itself to the rôle of a follower, when it had every facility for constituting itself the leader. Again, the chief European governments have systematically encouraged for years that delicate research known as "the spectroscopic determination of the motion of stars in the line of sight." No one at the Naval Observatory has ever made a single observation of this type; Congress has never been asked for an appropriation to enable the purchase of the necessary apparatus; indeed, it is not known that the Observatory possesses a spectroscope.

But the present issue is, what shall be done with the Government buildings, telescopes, and astronomers — a celestial "plant" which the mass of the people doubtless think is a credit to the nation? Evidently the Observatory and its management are incapable of reform from within, and so the astronomers of the country at large have undertaken the task. At their instance a bill was introduced into the House on January 18, and into the Senate the day after, with the hearty support of the Navy Department, and it will without doubt become a law. It provides a more perfect organization for the Observatory, cast in the general mould of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich. In the first place, the institution is hereafter to be known as "The United States National Observatory," but without detachment from the Navy Department. A Director is to be appointed by the President, who shall be a "practical astronomer of eminent abilities and professional experience," to receive a salary of $5,000; and he is to have a chief assistant, also a skilled astronomer, with a salary of $3,600, who may act as Director during a temporary vacancy in the office of his chief. Further, the bill provides for a Board of Visitors, to consist of the two aforesaid astronomers and "three additional persons of scientific attainments, and not otherwise in the employ of the Government, who shall be appointed by the Secretary of the Navy," and serve without salary. But it does not appear that this Board has anything more than merely advisory functions. Apparently, also, certain wholesome changes are to be wrought in the present astronomical body which can scarcely fail to better the institution and its standing. The corps of so-called "professors of mathematics in the navy"—of whom some are eminent for their knowledge of this science, while others have attained a certain distinction for their ignorance of it—are to be no longer eligible for observatory duty so soon as the present members of the corps have either died, resigned, or been retired. The new Director will, accordingly, have the opportunity of assembling a corps of active and harmonious workers (and he ought to have the power to remove them when for any reason they prove unsatisfactory); observations will probably be computed, and perhaps published, before the time has gone by when they would have been of some use; and the Observatory, having gradually sloughed off a pottering and contentious staff, may begin to address itself to the serious business of concerted action in astronomical research.

THE READING'S LEASES.

ALTHOUGH the general outline of the combination of coal roads has been made public, there yet remains a word to be said about its lawfulness and effect. It has been calculated that the advance in the prices of stocks of the roads interested, including the Lackawanna, has amounted to forty millions, a very handsome profit to all holders. Whether the actual results when realized will be found to sustain so

large an increase in stock values may be doubted. A large increase in the retail price of coal to consumers is out of the question from every point of view, and indeed those in the confidence of the new owners assert that this truth is so well known to them that nothing of the kind is contemplated. At the same time one at all familiar with present conditions in the mining, carrying, and selling of anthracite can easily see wherein economies can be introduced which will result in important savings.

The Reading, Lehigh Valley, New Jersey Central, and Lackawanna Roads in 1891 carried over 70 per cent. of the large output of that year. Controlling so large a proportion of the tonnage, the combination can fill the orders of the different States and cities from the mines nearest to the markets and send the coal by the most direct route. Steadiness in mining and cheapness in the transportation can both be helped thereby. Another point not hitherto noticed is that a great advance has been made, because of this new combination, towards clearing up the trunk-line situation. The Lehigh Valley and the Lackawanna have been thorns in the side of the large through carriers for a long time. These coal roads, earning their profits from the carriage of anthracite, have felt that any additional grain from Buffalo or immigrant travel from New York was so much clear gain to them, even if taken at lower rates than quoted by the older routes. Thus the competition of the Lehigh Valley and the Lackawanna often disturbed the rates and consequently the net earnings of the other roads which depended upon the through traffic. Until now there has seemed no way to check the unequal rivalry short of a war of exhaustion, in which the coal-carrying lines would have had the great advantage of an established business unaffected by any lowering of the tariffs on wheat, corn, live stock, or immigrants.

The change in the general attitude of the Lackawanna Road is particularly welcome to railroad and coal-men. That company was led by aggressive and able men, who, naturally enough, were satisfied with the independent policy of their own road, and so cared but little for the general situation. It has always been supposed that control of the Lackawanna's stock could not be purchased, and it is said that until but little more than a week ago the officers of the company were firm in that belief. The fact that hereafter the Lackawanna will turn its policy towards the general good of the coal trade and of the trunk lines of railroads is one of the important effects growing out of the situation. As regards the lease of the Lehigh Valley to the Reading, the question is often asked by what means a strong corporation was induced to surrender control to a weaker. This is not strictly the situation; it should be regarded rather as an attempt to unite the several interests in the most feasible way, of which the lease in question was but a part. Of course the probability of getting larger dividends through increased traffic, even without the Reading guarantee, had great weight with the owners of the majority of Lehigh Valley stock. It should also be borne in mind that the Lehigh Valley has within a year or two spent many millions of dollars for terminals on New York harbor and connecting lines, and that, in view of the condition of the investment market, it is possible that the road has yet a large floating debt awaiting funding. If so, the bankers might have used the fact in argument.

The legality of the leases has been questioned. Mr. A. J. Cassatt of the Pennsylvania is outspoken in his view that if the lease of the Beach Creek Railroad to the Pennsylvania or the Northern Central was illegal, the lease of the Lehigh Valley to the Reading must be equally so. Mr. Johnson, the counsel for the combination, rests his case, apparently, upon the ground that, unlike the first instance, the two companies draw their tonnage from different coal regions, the Schuylkill and the Lehigh, and are therefore not competing or parallel roads within the meaning of the Pennsylvania statute. This is an interpretation of the law which can be said to be really correct or not only after a judicial decision; but at least it is an ingenious defence of the legality of the leases. All combinations tend towards an enrichment of themselves at the expense of the public, but in the present case we may give the coal roads the benefit of a present doubt upon that point, for, as the *Financial Chronicle* justly observes, "In these days of National and State Commissions, there can be no monopoly to fear, and with that danger removed the people are every way advantaged by the prosperity of our carriers."

"THE EXCLUSIVES."

A REPORTER for the *Herald* has interviewed Mr. Ward McAllister to some purpose, for he has extracted from him the somewhat startling announcement that the "Four Hundred" are to be reduced to one hundred and fifty. We believe he has also made known in other quarters that these one hundred and fifty are to be called "The Exclusives." This important change, which in other ages and countries would certainly have put the Government in peril, is, he confesses, the direct outcome of an innovation of his own known as "The Dinner Dance." "The Dinner Dance" was conceived by him, and means a dinner of thirty at one of five houses, followed by a dance at another of the five, in regular order; and thirty multiplied by five gives one hundred and fifty, as any child may see. But he predicts that the arrangement cannot last. Why not? it may be asked. Because similar "noted and brilliant functions," got up by the Princess Metternich in Paris and at Almack's in London, lasted only a few years. This reasoning is, however, unworthy of a mind like Mr. McAllister's. Like causes, it is true, produce like effects, but he himself admits, further on, that the causes here are not alike, and therefore, although the effects may be similar in both cases, evidently there are in this branch of sociology effects which may have one or more causes each. The Princess of Metternich's "functions" in Paris, we know from history, ceased only because the Princess herself left Paris, and the goings on at "The Royal Almacks" in London, as General Choke called it in 'Martin Chuzzlewit,' ceased because the lady patronesses died or got tired of the work.

But, as Mr. McAllister shows, the breakdown of the system in New York will come from the fact that "there are people of wealth coming here every year who have the right to join our society." "These dinners are delightful," he says, "but they can't last—the competition for places will be too great." There is the whole explanation in a nutshell. Mr. McAllister, like a clever social analyst, recognizes the forces which really settle these things in New York. The Ins may cut down their numbers as much as they please, and close the gates on themselves, but the Outs are always on the march in overwhelming numbers to attack the place, and it has to surrender when summoned. The One Hundred and Fifty will accordingly, as sure as there is a sun in the sky, have to become Four Hundred again in the near future, and in a future not very remote it may be One Thousand. "The people of wealth" are not to be trifled with when they come to New York "to get into society." Mr. McAllister himself could not withstand them if he would. One of the strongest proofs of his capacity as a leader is to be found in his constant recognition of the facts of the situation. He is a thoroughly modern man, who sees all things exactly as they are. He does not allow his Society to become a fools' paradise. He makes and keeps it elastic and receptive, and yet he is not embittered, as a smaller man might be, against a really exclusive Society, like that of royalty, by the treatment he received in Queen Victoria's kitchen when dinner was announced.

There is only one way, as Mr. McAllister knows as well as we do, to restrain these demands for admission from the outside which threaten to break down the One Hundred and Fifty, and eventually the Four Hundred, and that is to set up other barriers than wealth and a knowledge of table service and of etiquette. Happily, nothing is plainer than that this knowledge is spreading just now with a rapidity which nobody could even ten years ago have foreseen. The agencies by which it is spread multiply every year. The number of dinners given by people outside the Four Hundred is increasingly great, owing simply to the growth of wealth. There are probably five hundred in New York at this season, every evening, of which Mr. McAllister never hears, and those who attend them pay an attention to

the cookery, and the order of courses, and the proper use of different knives, forks, and glasses, which, when coupled with American keenness of perception, is sure in the course of a single winter to qualify probably two or three hundred to dine even with Mr. McAllister himself without making a single mistake. Then there are many newspapers, both here and elsewhere, which furnish weekly answers to questions on difficult points of etiquette and table manners, which are doing an immense work of education. Mr. McAllister is himself one of the most potent of these agencies. His recent work on Society, and his remarkable series of articles in the *World*, have been of inestimable benefit to tens of thousands who are preparing themselves for a brilliant social existence in New York. How many, too, are getting day by day, under the tuition of Pinard and Sherry, a knowledge of the art of giving dinners, which, though not comparable with that of Mr. McAllister, of course, at least enables them to set up strong claims to his eventual recognition.

This rapid work of multiplication, not only in New York but in other cities, constitutes a danger to the Exclusives for which Mr. McAllister suggests no remedy, so far as we know, in any of his writings. It ought to show him how injudicious it is to rely on wealth alone as a qualification even for admission to the Society of the One Hundred and Fifty, which he says now includes "all that is brightest and best in America." Does he not see that if all that is necessary to be one of "the brightest and best" in America is to buy and furnish a house and give "Dinner Dances" in it, the circle must be indefinitely enlarged, and its claim to exclusiveness ruined from garret to cellar, through the mere material development of the country? He occasionally, we admit, alludes faintly to "manners," as things which will do an Exclusive no harm, but makes in none of his works any mention of education. This, and the correct use of the local language, are, no doubt, required in most countries as a qualification for a life among "the brightest and best," and they perhaps ought to be required here. But if this test should be adopted as a barrier against mere wealth, the question would at once arise, Whose manners should be the standard? Who should furnish the model in a Society which furnishes no traditional standard, and which is engaged in a process of parthenogenesis, so to speak? We suppose the answer which most people would make to this would be: "Why, Mr. McAllister's manners, of course."

Far be it from us to say that this ought not to furnish an easy solution for a knotty problem. Who, indeed, is the American gentleman if it be not Mr. McAllister? But, nevertheless, with all due respect be it said, nothing is less likely than that he would be universally or even generally accepted as a model, for a reason (not peculiar to America) which makes a man who sets up for a model of manners in all democratic societies a little ridiculous. No good work as such a model can be done in any society which has no court or aristocracy to define the term "gentleman." In addition to this, in our country the question of State pride would come into play, and we should have Society torn by the conflicting claims of model gentlemen from various States. Controversies, fatal to the maintenance of any one general standard, would arise over such questions as the way to eat fish, the proper side of the spoon to use in taking up the soup, the proper amount of water in the finger-bowls, or the number of wines which should be served at "a really first-class entertainment." On these subjects Mr. McAllister, like all really strong men, has doubtless strong opinions of his own; but other States would not accept them, and there would be revolts against his authority even here in New York. In fact, if we are rightly informed, his dictum on the proper place of roast leg of mutton in a *dîner à la Russe* has already caused serious discontent among his followers. It is easy to see how these discontents would become aggravated were an attempt made to treat his rules as supremely authoritative all over the country.

In fact, the question of the proper mode of admitting people to Society in this city, in spite of Mr. McAllister's learned labors, seems at present, to all intents and purposes incapable of settlement. At all events, we have no suggestion to offer. All we can do is to point out the dangers and difficulties of the present system. Abler hands must save Society, if it can be saved. But we do not hesitate to say that were Mr. McAllister (*absit omen!*) taken from us, the One Hundred and Fifty, and the Four Hundred, too, would bitterly regret not having availed themselves of his vast knowledge and ripe experience and sound judgment to define for all coming time the personal qualities and amount of real and personal estate entitling a man or woman to be one of "America's brightest and best."

WAS COTTON MATHER A FELLOW OF THE ROYAL SOCIETY?

In most biographical notices of Cotton Mather, that eminent man is said to have been a Fellow of the Royal Society. In some of such notices, the statement is emphasized by describing him as the first native-born American who attained to that honor. According to his son, there were many in New England who were "so foolish as to doubt, nay, to deny, his right to that title." Cotton Mather's name did not and does not appear in any list of the Fellows of the Society. Becoming himself uneasy upon the point, he inquired of the Secretary to the Royal Society whether he really was a Fellow. In reply, he was informed that he had been elected a Fellow both by the Council and by the general body of Fellows. That his name did not appear in the published list was due, he was told, to the fact that, being in America, he was unable to subscribe personally to the orders of the Society, from which foreigners were dispensed, but not British subjects. Years went by, and still Cotton Mather felt uncertain of his position. On May 21, 1723, he wrote the subjoined letter to Dr. Jurin, then Secretary of the Royal Society:

"Syr: You are better known to me than I am to you; and I congratulate unto myself, as well as unto the world, the felicity of your succession in the office of *Secretary* to the *Royal Society*. But in order to a mutual better knowledge, I owe you, & must now give you, some very short account of myself; more particularly, with relation to that Illustrious Body, whereof I hoped, I had the Honour of being esteemed a Member. Having the pleasure of some correspondence with your excellent predecessor Mr. Waller, I did communicate unto him (and unto my valuable Dr. Woodward) a great number of American, and philosophical, curiosities; with an intimation of my purpose to continue the communications. Those Gentlemen put the, as unexpected as undeserved, respect upon me, of proposing me for a Member of the *Royal Society;* and they both wrote unto me, that I was chosen accordingly both by the Council and Body of the Society, on the Anniversary Day for such election in the year 1713.—Adding that the only Reason of my not having my name in the *printed* list of the *Society*, was because of my being beyond-Sea and yet a Natural Born Subject, & so not capable of being inserted among the gentlemen of other Nations.

"Your Secretary also, Dr. Halley in the *philosophical Transactions* of 1714 printed my name, with an F.R.S. annexed unto it. Mr. Petiver did the like, in his Naturæ Collectanea; and in his letters to me, he had these words, 'Your election succeeded without opposition, and you were elected after the usual method of Balloting. The reason of your being out of the *printed list*, is your not being personally here, to subscribe to the orders that should be tendered you'; to which he added co· gratulations & complements not proper to be by my pen transcribed.

"A Distinguished, & a diminutive crue of odd people here, when they could find no other darts to throw at me, imagined their not finding my name on the printed list of the *Royal Society*, would enable them to detect me of an imposture for affixing an F.R.S. unto my name, on some just occasions for it. And an infamous fellow, whose name is John Checkley, a sorry *Toryman* (that yet had the impudence to write as a Divine) wrote a letter full of scandalous invectives against me, which was publickly read in the *Royal Society*. This wretched man, ambitious to do the part of a *Divine*, printed here some Rapsodies, to prove, *that the God whom* K. William, *and the christians* of New England *have worshipped*, is the D— l —. A young and a bright kinsman of mine, bestowed such castigations on the Blasphemer that I became thereupon the object of his implacable revenge. But of this matter, I gave Dr. Woodward a more full account, a year and a half ago: Which because I know not whether ever he received it, I now repeat a little of; Relying to your justice, if any further indignity of this Nature should be offered me. But, that I may not lay aside any of the meek, patient, humble disposition with which I should address you on this occasion, I shall keep such Terms, as I used unto my Doctor when he had what he required of me upon it.

"I should never have presumed upon affixing an F. R. S. unto my poor unworthy name, had I not thought, that my Honourable masters, would have taxed me as guilty of some ingratitude unto them for their unmerited favours, if I had always declined it.

"The many treatises (many more than three hundred) which Heaven has allowed & assisted me to publish, (in the midst of many other constant & heavy labours) on various arguments, and in various Dead as well as Living Languages, added unto some other circumstances needless to be mentioned, had procured me from some Europæan Universities, without my seeking in the least measure for them, the Testimonies of the highest respect that they could show to the meanest of men, and among the rest a *Diploma* for the *Doctorate in Theology*. Upon this I was under some temptation unto the vanity of Thinking that it was possible the *Royal Society*, also might esteem it no dis-

grace, to permit my name among their members. Especially, when my remittances to their Treasury, might for number (however not for value) be æqual to what they might receive of some other members whose correspondence they cast a kind Aspect upon. For the embellishments wherewith I studied usually, (after the manner of the German Ephemerides) to make my dry & dull stories a little more palatable to men of erudition, some of your own members, as well as Monsr Tournefort helped me to some apology.

"But if after all, it be the pleasure of those Honourable persons, who compose or govern the *Royal Society*, that I should lay asside my pretensions to be at all related unto that illustrious Body, upon the least signification of it by your pen, it shall be dutifully complied withal. I will only continue to take the leave of still communicating Annually to you (as long as I live) what *Curiosa Americana* I can become the possessor of. For (my Jewish Rabbis having taught me, to *love the work*, and have *little regard unto the Rabbinate*) it is not the Title, but the service that is the Heighth, & indeed the whole, of my ambition.

"As a Token of my purposes this way, and as an earnest of a much greater variety, which I propose to send you by another hand, about a Fortnight hence, I now present you with a tedious account of sentiments & occurrents relating to a subject, about which I perceive you are sollicitous to have the exactest informations. At this time, I add no more, but with hearty prayers, to Heaven, that you may be continued long as a great Blessing to the world I subscribe

"Syr
"Your most affectionate
"Friend and Servant
"COTTON MATHER

"BOSTON N. ENGLAND
"May 21 1723.
"Dr. Jurin."

The answer to the above letter should be interesting. There is, however, no record of it in the archives of the Royal Society. Under the circumstances, it will be well to inquire how far the proceedings of the Society establish the fact of Cotton Mather's connection with it.

For the election of Fellows, the ordinary procedure observed by the Royal Society is this: The names are first submitted to the Council of the Society. After candidates have by the Council been chosen for submission at a general meeting of Fellows, their names are brought before such meeting. Here the election is made, and two-thirds of the votes are necessary to secure it.

In the Journal of the Society there is the following entry, under date of July 23, 1713:

"A letter drawn up by Mr. Waller for Mr. Cotton Mather at Boston in New England was read; giving an account of the receipt of his letter and his manuscript, containing his several observations on Natural subjects, with an invitation to a future correspondence; which was ordered to be sent.

"Mr. Waller proposed the same gentleman as a candidate, according to his desire mentioned in his said letter; which was referred to the next Council."

The Minutes of the Council of July 27, 1713, record that "Mr. Cotton Mather was proposed, balloted for, and approved to be a Member of the Society." A diligent search among the records of the Society has, however, failed to find that Cotton Mather's name was ever submitted to the general body of Fellows. Would it be an undue surmise to suspect that Cotton Mather's mistaken zeal in the witchcraft heresy stood in the way of his obtaining a two-thirds vote, and that, the Council finding this the case, did not risk a rejection?

If Cotton Mather may not be reckoned a duly elected Fellow of the Royal Society, who, then, of Americans born, is to be reckoned the earliest Fellow of that distinguished body? On the 11th of March, 1714, the Rev. Mr. William Brattle, minister of the Church at Cambridge, New England, was elected a Fellow by the general body of members. On November the 21st, "Sir Hans Sloane proposed Mr. Elihu Yale, Executor to Dr. Thomas Paget, as a candidate, which was referred to the next Council." Yale was elected on the 30th of November, 1717, and Paul Dudley on the 2d of November, 1721. In a List of Fellows of the Royal Society, to be found among the Rawlinson MSS. in the Bodleian (*C.* 437), the names of Brattle, (1713–14), Yale (1717), and Dudley (1721) are given, but not the name of Cotton Mather.

A NEW SHAKSPERE?

LONDON, January 28, 1892.

THE one event of interest in the theatrical world of London is the special matinée. At the regular performance the rule at present, as almost always, is music-hall fooling, called pantomime, gorgeous spectacle advertised as Shakspere, and sentimental melodrama which passes for farce, comedy, or tragedy, according to the traditions of the theatre in which it is played. But fortunately a few managers and actors of ambition long to test their talents in other than conventional lines, and then they give a matinée. To introduce an experiment into the evening bill is to court failure. Not much more than a year ago a loud blast of trumpets heralded the innovation at the Haymarket, where Mr. Beerbohm Tree proposed to devote his Monday evenings to the production of new or original plays. He brought out "Beau Austin"; he revived his old successful melodramas; and it is now already months since his famous Monday evenings were brought to an end for ever more. The matinée remains the ambitious actor's only chance.

For long this ambition carried him—or her, for as frequently as not the would-be innovator is an actress—to Ibsen. It was as inevitable as the courting of the unbecoming by the dress-reformer. In rapid succession we had "The Doll's House," "Rosmersholm," "Hedda Gabler," until a performance of "The Lady from the Sea," ridiculous in its inadequacy, resulted in a healthy reaction, and we have heard no more of Ibsen since. Next Zola had his turn—Zola, who, like Ibsen, calls for actors of the first order, and usually falls to the mercy of the third-rate. Only within the last few days have I seen the effort made to convert his "Thérèse Raquin" into an Adelphi melodrama; unsuccessfully, however, for the worst acting cannot destroy the power of the play. But Zola on the stage, even in London, is not an innovation. M. Antoine and his company from the Théâtre Libre have shown Londoners the strength of the French naturalist as a dramatist. Something entirely novel was wanted—there was a demand for a new dramatic sensation; and to Mr. Tree belongs the credit of having been first in the field in the endeavor to supply it. His novelty was Maeterlinck's "L'Intruse," which in its English version, as "The Intruder," was the great feature of a special matinée, held at the Haymarket yesterday for the benefit of Mrs. Bernard Beere.

Maurice Maeterlinck, as every one now knows, is the young Belgian poet who has lately sprung into notoriety. He has published a volume of poems, 'Serres Chaudes,' which are but amusing French parodies of Walt Whitman, the tragedy of "La Princesse Maleine," and two short plays, "L'Intruse" and "Les Aveugles." Until last spring his notoriety had scarcely spread beyond a small circle of admirers among the *décadents* and *symbolistes* of Paris, but in May "L'Intruse" was given at the Vaudeville matinée for Verlaine, and the next day, I think it was, Octave Mirbeau came out with an eloquent article, in which the play was extolled as the greatest and most daring of modern times, and Maeterlinck himself called the Belgian Shakspere. Mallarmé was the next to lead the chorus of his praise, and the Belgian poet's reputation was made for better or worse. In England, where his work has been translated and published, he has been less fortunate in his admirers. Mr. Hall Caine is the most eloquent; and while the author of the "Bondman" and the "Scapegoat" may be an authority on melodrama, his criticism of tragedy and poetry can hardly be accepted seriously.

Maeterlinck has been sadly handicapped by the injudicious name bestowed upon him by his French friends. To live up to his reputation as Belgian Shakspere is no light matter, nor does his work as yet give reasonable foundation for it. His verse, if verse it can be called, is often foolish simply because in it he is so unwilling to be himself, so eager to be Walt Whitman. His "Princesse Maleine," as a whole, must be counted a failure, though there are scenes in it of unquestioned greatness. But its very failure as a whole and its partial success explain at once his limitations and his strength. His force lies in his power to imagine the horror of certain situations, and to express it by the most realistic methods. To sustain this horror, to prevent the realistic interpretation from falling into the commonplace, through five long acts, is an impossibility. In the blackest tragedy, in moments of intense fear and dread, his people speak in every-day language, but language which, because of his wonderful skill in the use of words, becomes in their mouths musical and rhythmical. The murderess does not harangue her victim. The grief-stricken husband does not pour forth his sorrow in a long monologue. Each talks simply, as, the chances are, in real life each would under the same circumstances. In the conversation of several people, the natural repetitions which occur are made to tell, like the refrain in a ballad. But, once the interest falters, once the horror no longer holds you, then the dialogue dwindles into mere Ollendorff. Take a page from the "Princesse Maleine"—it is but one of many:

"Je vois le phare."
"Vous voyez le phare?"
"Oui, je crois que c'est le phare."
"Mais alors vous devez voir la ville."
"Je ne vois pas la ville."
"Vous ne voyez pas la ville?"
"Je ne vois pas la ville."
"Vous ne voyez pas le beffroi?"
"Non."

And yet this same original method of ordering the dialogues, in the scene where the King and Queen strangle *Maleine*, adds tremendously to its tragedy. Now, neither "L'Intruse" nor "Les Aveugles" is much longer than this one scene, and therefore in each, but more especially in the former, you feel only the master. It is in his short plays that Maeterlinck is great.

It is a pity that Mr. Beerbohm Tree has not the ability or even the courage of his intentions, else he would be what he is called, the finest English actor of the day. It was a daring experiment to produce "L'Intruse" upon the English stage. The story is briefly this: A woman after a dangerous confinement lies ill in a rear room. Her father, husband, brother, and three daughters sit together, as they have sat for so many long evenings, that strange restraint upon them which serious illness in a house always brings with it. The old man, himself on the verge of the grave, and blind, is more sensitive than the others to the approach of death. In every sound that breaks the stillness, in every silence, he hears

the Intruder, so that at last he communicates his vague terrors to those waiting with him, though they seek to reassure him, and the horror grows upon them, as it does upon the reader, until the door into the sick-room opens and a Sister of Mercy comes in and, as is the Belgian custom, announces the death of the woman by signing herself with the sign of the cross. Silently they pass to the chamber of death, all except the old man, who gropes about helplessly in his darkness. It is the modern *Danse Macabre.*

The entire effect throughout is produced by the short, abrupt dialogue, with its constant repetitions, which, in the trivial scenes of "La Princesse Maleine," seems like parody. There is no movement, except when one of the young girls goes to the window to see who is in the garden, to the door to look for the visitor whose steps they hear on the stairs, to another room to watch the baby sleeping there, or when the father tries the lamp which is gradually going out.

And now what does Mr. Tree do with this strange play, powerful in its subtlety? Exactly what might be expected of him. He is manager as well as actor. He knows the sort of thing the gods, whether they sit in gallery or stalls, like; he knows how he has made his biggest successes before. He gets himself up admirably, so that as soon as the curtain is raised you hear the customary murmur of approval throughout the house. He turns the old man into the hero of melodrama—advanced in years, it is true—just as he has already turned *Hamlet* and *Falstaff* and *Beau Austin.* He makes all he can of what little chance for action there is, and he cuts down the dialogue recklessly: even when he wants to try an artistic experiment, his audience must not be bored. The result is, that in the Haymarket version "The Intruder" was not only without effect, but was absolutely meaningless, except to those who had already read it. There were some who had, for interest in Maeterlinck filled at least a few seats, even if admiration for Mrs. Bernard Beere crowded the house. But the great majority, when the Sister of Mercy made the sign of the cross, wondered what it was all about, and fondly hoped that the ghost they expected would still appear. To-day the papers have been calling "The Intruder" silly, and imbecile, and idiotic, and the usual adjectives which form the stock-in-trade of the English critic. Of Maeterlinck's "L'Intruse," however, they are qualified to say nothing; it has not yet been seen in England. Nevertheless, Maeterlinck will arrive, and we should prepare to relinquish Ibsen in his favor. N. N.

Correspondence.

AID FOR STARVING RUSSIANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When you suggested that it would be better to cable money in aid of the Russian sufferers than to send ships with supplies, I was much impressed, as were doubtless many of your readers. I should like to tell you some of the reasons why the Iowa Auxiliary to the Red Cross has decided to send to Russia a cargo of corn rather than money. In the first place, we get free transportation from here to the famine district, and go all the way under the auspices of the American Red Cross, whose field agent, Dr. Hubbell, accompanies the expedition. We not only buy our corn here, where it is cheapest, but get large gifts from farmers who would not feel able to give money.

According to Russian estimates, it will cost $5 to keep one person alive from now until next August. With our free transportation we can do it for $2.10. We hope to send a shipload of shelled corn in three weeks or less, and shall send inexpensive mills, with men to put them up, or else the Red Cross will send millers who will show the Russians how to grind the corn properly with their own machinery; and the services of Col. Murphy, who is now introducing corn meal into Europe, have been tendered the Red Cross by Secretary Rusk, so that proper instruction in cooking is insured.

This movement in Iowa is really remarkable and very well organized, although of course there are always persons who are so provincial as to imagine that the world is no larger than the area covered by the United States, and that a vessel leaving our ports immediately falls off into nowhere, or who think that corrupt Russian officials are going to eat an inordinate amount of hasty pudding, kindly prepared for them by our Red Cross cooks. * * *

Des Moines, Feb. 2, 1892.

[As to the suggestion of sending mills and millers, and the use of corn meal, both mills and millers are an unnecessary expense. There are plenty of windmills in the Russian villages for grinding rye and wheat; and as a Russian peasant will "learn as much in three months as a lower-class Englishman will in three years," according to the testimony of an Englishman who had had workmen of both nationalities under him, it is not likely that they will require anything beyond their native wits to discover how to put the corn into shape for eating, especially when prompted by hunger, as at present. Cooking the corn properly is another matter. During the Irish famine, when America sent over corn, the people did not cook it sufficiently, and the natural result was dysentery, and so on. Our opinion that it is unnecessary to send an invoice of people to distribute the contributions in money and breadstuffs, is confirmed by the *European Messenger,* one of the most prominent and trustworthy of Russian monthlies. It says on the subject of the numerous persons who have volunteered to assist in the relief work, that they would be of much less use than in an epidemic. Any one can nurse a sick person, whether he has ever seen the patient before or not; but knowledge of local conditions, and even of persons, is required in this case. The deduction is, that a volunteer would be of use only after an apprenticeship of at least two weeks, and that when assisted by the experience and advice of residents on the spot who are qualified as to the points mentioned. It will be noticed that, in this case, no allowance is made for ignorance of the Russian language and the general problems of peasant existence, which would handicap foreigners more than the uninitiated imagine.

In view of the fact that Philadelphia has decided to send a ship with the breadstuffs of the Northwest's contributing, it is not worth while to enter further into the general question as to the comparative merits of money contributions and contributions in kind. If it were still desirable to discuss the matter, we should maintain our stand on the firm ground that, if sufficient rye flour, such as the peasants are accustomed to use for their sour black bread, could be bought on the spot, or anywhere on the other side of the ocean, it would be not only cheaper, but more nutritious, pound for pound, than the wheat flour sent from America. As soon as navigation opens on the rivers Kama and Volga, direct access can be had to the worst-stricken districts, with grain from the abundant crops of Siberia, through Perm, where the railway terminates on the European side of the Ural Mountains. The recent cablegram which attributed to Gen. Annenkoff the wild scheme of setting up these communications by blowing up the ice in the Volga, displays a faint comprehension of the point here raised, on the part of the correspondent. But Gen. Annenkoff knows that the Neva, at St. Petersburg, which is far swifter in current than the Volga, cannot be kept open in winter, and he can never have dreamed of such a device. He would have used the river as a great natural avenue, as the Neva is used, assuming that he could have cleared it and have kept it clear of the tremendous snows, the heaviest seen for a generation at least, which have been complicating the situation along the Volga this winter. The problem now is, to provision the districts which are dependent upon carts and sledges, before the spring thaws set in in April, and then to hasten grain down the Kama and Volga and their branches when navigation opens, at the middle or last of April. One of the most pressing needs of the peasants is grain to sow in April, so that they may have a crop next summer. An eminently practical gift would be wheat and rye—especially rye—for seed. Corn will not grow. It should be sent promptly, to allow of time for its distribution.

We may take this opportunity to refute the statements, which have been too frequently repeated by our press, to the effect that the Government took no notice of the situation until it was too late to help. By a private letter from a large landed proprietor in one of the suffering Volga provinces, dated August 28 last, we are informed that the general Government had already appropriated 5,000,000 rubles for that province, and that 50 steamers and 200 barks, all laden with grain for the sufferers, were stuck fast in the shallows of the river, above Kazan, the water being unusually low, so that all steamers arrived at their landings not hours, but days, behind time.

Another misconception, founded on imperfect knowledge of geography and lack of logical reasoning, which we take this opportunity to correct, is that which attributes this great famine to "the expulsion of the Jews from Russia." The geographical error is much on a level with

mixing up the Atlantic and the Pacific coasts. The Jewish "Pale of Settlement," in the southwest provinces of the Empire, is not suffering from the famine to any extent. The Russian cultivators of the soil in the far east and southeast are the sufferers, and the Jews are altogether absent, or far less numerous there than elsewhere. The logical error consists in imagining that the penniless Jews, who have left the non-stricken western provinces voluntarily, and who arrive here in such a condition that even the well-known liberality of the Hebrew Benevolent Societies is unable to feed them, so that these societies are compelled to apply (a rare case) to American charity, could have had any money to lend to the peasants had they remained at home, a thousand versts from the scene of action. It is absurd.

We quote further from the correspondent referred to above, as to the causes of the famine:

"What the newspapers write about the bad crops is quite true [this refutes the falsehood that the press has ever been silenced on the subject]. In all the governments along the shores of the Volga, the hot, dry summer has destroyed nearly all the grain. In most places there was nothing to be gathered, so that the peasants had to sit at home and mourn over their state. Happily, our district has suffered less; they could gather rye enough in sufficient quantity to have seed for next year and some left for food, though they say that most of the peasants will have food but till December. The spring grain, like wheat and oats, has all perished, so that our poor horses and cows will have but meagre food during the winter. The Zemstvo [the local assembly] is taking measures to help the peasants; it buys rye in the other governments and has it brought over here, and gives it to the peasants. The prices for grain and vegetables have risen excessively. Rye costs now one ruble twenty-five kopeks for forty pounds; potatoes cost one ruble fifty kopeks for forty pounds. [A ruble cannot be worth more than forty to forty-five cents, with so poor a harvest; nominally it is seventy-five cents; generally it is fifty cents. This is about three times the normal price of rye.] It is thought that in winter they will rise still higher. What will the poor people do? There are already a quantity of beggars, and some hire themselves as workmen without wages, merely for the sake of food. The great heats have occasioned low water in the Volga [with the results which we have mentioned above]. One day it is so hot that one can scarcely breathe; in the night the thermometer shows 20° Réaumur [about 78° Fahrenheit]. The next day it is cold, and in the night there is a strong frost which has spoiled the vegetables; and then it is hot again."

When we add to these atmospheric conditions the fact that the peasants are too poor—not too improvident—to lay by grain or money for a rainy day, or to buy the costly agricultural implements which would enable them to cultivate all their land (instead of being forced to let one-third of it lie fallow), and to cultivate it in the proper manner, surely we have abundant and rational explanation of the terrible famine, without ranting over its being "a judgment on Russia" because Jews do or do not dwell within her limits, or because she owns Siberia. The landed proprietor from whose letter we have quoted is not only providing for his own villages, but is feeding about 200 strange beggars a day. This answers still another accusation—that the Russians are not helping as they should in this crisis. —Ed. Nation.]

SILVER SOUP KITCHENS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The free-coinage-of-silver advocates say that their scheme will "make money plenty" among the people and relieve poverty; upon this statement, in fact, they base their whole argument. Now, I am one of the impecunious, in spite of persistent industry to the utmost of my ability. I am anxious to escape this condition, and want to fill my purse in any honest way. Will you be so good as to explain this benevolent promise of the free-coinage men? Is, possibly, any plan for free distribution included in the scheme? When the Government coins all the silver presented, and the dollars are piled up in mountains of wealth in the offices of the silver-mining companies preparatory to the relief of the poverty of the waiting millions, how is the transfer to be effected? Fearing lest I may be overlooked in this grand scheme of national philanthropy, I anxiously ask for information in the name of the vast majority of voters, who are, like myself,

Impecunious.

St. Louis, February 10, 1892.

HILL AND HARRISON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: How far Gov. Hill is responsible for the defeat of Cleveland in 1888 is a question which now very much agitates the Democratic mind. While I assert that he is wholly to blame for it, I acquit him altogether of any charge or suspicion that he traded votes for himself with the friends of Harrison. Hill got more votes for Governor than the Cleveland electors because there were more saloon Republicans opposed to Warner Miller and high license than "swallow-tail" Democrats scratching Hill. But there was another "deal," by which the Harrison electors got in the city of New York about 9,000 more votes than their party strength, and Cleveland just as many less. The equivalent was given by the Republicans in votes taken from Erhardt and turned over to Grant, by which the latter became Mayor. But for such a deal, Erhardt would have been elected, and New York city would have been saved the misrule of Tammany, and the world would never have heard anything about the McKinley Bill, or Porter's Census, or Patrick Egan.

This "deal" between Tammany and the local agents of Matt Quay could not have been carried out if David B. Hill had, in the winter of 1888, signed Saxton's Australian Ballot Bill. Such a law would have made deals impossible; and because it would render them impossible, Hill vetoed it. Kentucky is a good enough Democratic State, and it was the first to enact the Australian ballot, pure and simple, without pasters or any other conveniences for carrying out deals. Indiana enacted this law, in order to stop the judicious distribution of "soap" to "blocks of five," by a partisan Democratic majority. Hill vetoed a similar law to prevent the smashing of the machine; hence the Grant-Quay deal; hence four years of Ben Harrison. Q. E. D.—Yours truly,

L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., February 11, 1892.

THE PIONEER BLACK REGIMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Excuse me if I call attention to an inadvertence in the notice of Capt. Emilio's history of the Fifty-fourth Massachusetts, contained in your last issue. It is there stated: "It was the pioneer organization of black troops, and had a just preëminence on that account." A glance at the very first page of the book reviewed will show that the author makes no such claim, but himself calls attention to the fact that black regiments had been organized in Louisiana, South Carolina, and Kansas in the year 1862, and adds (p. 2): "After these regiments next came, in order of organization, the Fifty-fourth Massachusetts, which was the first raised in the Northern States east of the Mississippi River." This is a guarded and careful statement, and is followed on the same page by the original order from the War Department, giving Gov. Andrew authority to enlist negroes, and dated January 26, 1863—about five months later than the orders under which the earlier regiments had been recruited.

T. W. Higginson.

Cambridge, Mass., February 12, 1892.

[We had, of course, in mind the restricted section defined by Captain Emilio.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of February 11 I find a notice of 'A Brave Black Regiment,' in which it is stated that "Mr. Stanton's authorization to Gov. Andrew to raise colored regiments preceded the act of Congress on the subject which fixed the pay at a lower rate than for white men." It is also asserted that the recruiting officers offered the same pay to the colored soldiers as was offered to white soldiers in good faith, but without authority of law. Presumably the writer of the review made proper investigation before thus committing himself, and there would be nothing surprising if my memory of occurrences which took place thirty years ago was faulty; but I have a strong enough impression in regard to the matter to make it worth while for me to submit it to you and to suggest further investigation.

Maj. George L. Stearns and I were the recruiting officers alluded to, and, as I remember it, our promises, which, of course, were authorized by Gov. Andrew, were based upon the fact that there was no law in existence by which any regularly enlisted soldier, white or black, was entitled to more or to less pay than any other regularly enlisted soldier of the same grade. In other words, the laws governing the payment of United States troops were uniform in their application. The act of Congress to which it is probable the *Nation* reviewer refers, regulated the pay, not of soldiers, but of *laborers* engaged and employed in the army. The refusal by the Government for eighteen months to pay the colored troops their just due was not owing to a nice regard for law, but must be attributed to the contempt for the rights of the colored man which then prevailed, and which always was and is to-day a national characteristic.

The employment of colored soldiers marks an era in the history of our civil war which, so far as I know, has not yet received proper consideration, and it is to be hoped that some competent historian will yet do justice to its significance.—Yours very truly,

Richard P. Hallowell.

Boston, February 13, 1892.

[The subject is a complicated one, and we can only refer those interested to the debates in the Senate begun on February 3, 1864, when Mr. Wilson introduced his bill to equalize the pay of soldiers in the United States Army. Mr. Sumner contended, and seemed to prove, that some

men, at least, of the Fifty-fourth Massachusetts subscribed to an enlistment specifically under the original statute of July 22, 1861, which made no distinction of color, though doubtless contemplating only whites. The statute of July 17, 1862, authorizing the employment of "persons of African descent," and fixing their pay at $10, was ambiguously worded, and left plenty of ground for hair-splitting as to the nature of "any military or naval service for which they may be found competent" in addition to "constructing entrenchments, . . . or any other labor." Senator Wilson said that "some of the best lawyers in the country . . . think the distinction in the act of 1862 applies to men working for the Government, not soldiers"; but a good lawyer and good Republican like Senator Fessenden thought otherwise, and he could point to his ineffectual effort at the time to put the colored soldiers on a level with the white. We were in error in saying that Secretary Stanton's authorization to Gov. Andrew *preceded* the statute of 1862. It bore date, as Col. Higginson points out above, January 26, 1863, and curiously testifies to the Government's timidity with regard to colored enlistments by being general in terms, and only incidentally conceding that the volunteers in question "may include persons of African descent, organized into separate corps."—Ed. Nation.]

GEOMETRY NOT MATHEMATICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A dissatisfaction with the method in which geometry is at present taught finds frequent expression, a case in point being the review of Mr. Halsted's translation of Lobachevsky in the last number of the *Nation*, and, by a peculiar coincidence, in the communication by Mr. Stille on "Science in America," in the same number. In the one case, the author desires to have geometry attacked by the beginner from the point of view of perspective; in the other, criticism is not aimed at the elementary presentation of the subject, but a spirit of discontent is visible which expresses itself in the demand that more students should go beyond the dull elements and breathe the purer air of the "modern geometry" of Jacob Steiner.

Does not the difficulty lie deeper than is suggested by either of these two writers? There seems to be a fundamental misconception of the nature of geometry in the minds not merely of the general public, but also of almost every teacher of the subject. "Mathematics is the science which draws necessary conclusions," so wrote the late Prof. Benjamin Peirce in 1870, and no clearer and more accurate definition could be imagined; and yet it has produced but little effect as yet on students of geometry. Geometry is the simplest of the natural sciences to which, owing to its simplicity, mathematics (*i. e.*, the methods of formal logic, either with or without the assistance of symbols) has been applied with such wonderful success, and which of late years has so richly repaid its debts to mathematics in the hands of Riemann, Clebsch, and others still living. We should laugh at the idea of teaching the mathematical theory of electricity before the student knows in a qualitative way what electricity is, either by a description of the phenomena or, better still, by actual laboratory contact with them. Why should not the same rule apply to geometry? Even then logic need not be entirely discarded, but let it assist the learner, not clog his progress. It is not a perfectly safe guide, as history tells us, even in the hands of a master, and the learner is almost as safe in trusting to his "common sense" as to his own unaided deductions.

The training of the logical faculty is, moreover, of far less vital importance than the development of the mind which results from this first real draught from the cup of science, which strengthens a healthy imagination, and should even yield an æsthetic enjoyment. If we could lead the student first to see the truth of a proposition, and then, perhaps much later, to prove it, we might hope in time to have mathematicians in America. For every mathematical discovery is made in this way, let the mathematician conceal his footprints as he will; it must come as an intuition, and the man to whom it has thus come is its discoverer, even though he never succeed in finding a proof.

Of course there will still remain innumerable points of detail to consider. The wonderful geometric developments of the last hundred years should not be completely ignored; "projective" rather than metrical properties of figures might be brought to the front; but this will all regulate itself when once it is really understood that geometry is not mathematics, but is a physical science to which mathematics may be applied. Maxime Bôcher.

Cambridge, February 13, 1892.

AN HISTORIAN'S SLIPS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Lovers of chess will be surprised to learn on page 435, vol. v., of Schouler's 'History of the United States of America under the Constitution' that (1859) "Paul Morphy, the *English* chess-player, was one of the latest foreign celebrities who catered to our entertainment."

May I also point out that "one Barney" (a favorite way with Mr. Schouler of expressing contempt), by whose hand Mr. Monroe sent to the French Convention an American flag (vol. i., p. 319), and "who, in the name of the American people, tendered it with some inflammatory remarks of his own, prompted by the recollection of a personal outrage he had borne from the British fleet off the West Indies," was the same individual as "Commodore Barney, our renowned privateer officer" (vol. iv., p. 408)? I add the "inflammatory remarks" of Captain Barney, styled by Monroe "an officer of distinguished merit, who has rendered us great services by sea, in the course of *our* Revolution." They are taken from a transcript of the proceedings of the French Convention, September 25, 1794, to be found in an appendix to 'A Biographical Memoir of the late Commodore Joshua Barney,' by Mary Barney (Boston: Gray & Bowen, 1832) :

Speech of Capt. Barney, bearer of the colors.

Citizen President: Having been directed by the Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States of America to present to the National Convention the flag demanded [asked] of him, the flag under the auspices of which I have had the honor to fight against our common enemy during the war which has assured liberty and independence, I discharge the duty with most lively satisfaction, and deliver it to you. Henceforth, suspended on the side of that of the French republic, it will become the symbols of the union which subsists between the two nations, and last, I hope, as long as the freedom which they have so bravely acquired and so wisely consolidated.

Respectfully, Basil Sollers.

Baltimore, February 8, 1892.

THE TYPOGRAPHICAL ERROR IN 'CRANFORD.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The note from "A. B. N." on "A Typographical Error in 'Cranford'" is interesting, and there is fortunately evidence to show that his happy emendation is really a restoration of the author's text. 'Cranford' appeared piecemeal in *Household Words*, and a reference to the number for May 7, 1853, will show that it was not *loin*, but, as "A. B. N." supposes, *lion*—the pudding originally "made in most wonderful representation of a lion *couchant* that ever was moulded," and served up a second day—"a little of the cold lion sliced and fried." Through how many editions this printer's error—turning *lion* into *loin*—has run, I do not know; but it is found in the only two at the moment accessible, recent ones published by Macmillans and Smith & Elder, respectively.—Yours truly,

William E. A. Axon.

Manchester, England, January 27, 1892.

THE WASHINGTON PEDIGREE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have found a letter from George Washington to a nephew, Col. William Augustine Washington (a son of the General's brother Augustine), dated October 3, 1798, from which one or two facts of interest may be drawn. An extract is as follows:

"I thank you for the old documents you sent me respecting the family of our ancestors, but I am possessed of papers which prove beyond a doubt, that of the two brothers who emigrated to this country in the year 1657, during the troubles of that day, that John Washington, from whom we are descended, was the eldest. The pedigree from him I have, and, I believe, very correct; but the descendants of Lawrence, in a regular course, I have not been able to trace. All those of our name in and about Chotank are from the latter. John was the grandfather of my father, and uncle and great-grandfather to Warren [Warner] and me. He left two sons, Lawrence and John, the former, who was the eldest, was the father of my father, Uncle and Aunt Willis. Mrs. Hayward must have been a daughter of the *first Lawrence*, and thence becomes the cousin of the second Lawrence and John."

In the *Nation* of October 15, 1891, was printed a letter from John Washington (a son of the immigrant and of the Chotank branch) in which he mentions an Aunt Howard who died in 1697 or 1698. Mr. Waters suggested that this aunt was Martha Washington, a sister of the immigrants, who had been assisted by her brother to remove to Virginia. Is it possible that Aunt Howard and Mrs. Hayward are one and the same person? The objection to putting her where Washington suggests is that the immigrant John had only one daughter, who died when very young. The wife of John (a widow) had three daughters when he married her, names unknown, and it may be that Mrs. Hayward was one of them. John, the son of John (the immigrant), had but one daughter, whom he lost early. So it is reasonable to decide that if Mrs. Hayward was of the Chotank branch, she belongs to the generation previous to that assigned her by Washington.

One bit of evidence may assist a determination of the matter. The will of John, the immigrant, was proved in 1677, and in it provision was made for Martha's removal to Vir-

ginia. A patent for 30,000 acres of land in Stafford County was issued in 1689 to a Nicholas Hayward. It was in Stafford County that the "cuz. John Washington, Sen:" mentioned in the will of Lawrence, the grandfather of the President, lived. It does not appear to be a very wild guess that Martha may have become Mrs. Hayward after reaching this country, even though she may have been well on in years. In a new country it is proverbial that age does not handicap a woman in matrimonial ventures.

The Chotank branch of the Washingtons is dealt with in a very remarkable work that has just come from the press—'Virginia Genealogies,' by Rev. Horace Edwin Hayden. All the painstaking and anxious research of this writer leaves many points in doubt, though the results add much to our information. He prints the will of a Henry Washington, who was undoubtedly of the Chotank Washingtons, and conjectures that he was a son of John and grandson of Lawrence, the immigrant. This conjecture is fairly supported by Mr. Hayden's arguments, and, if it could be fully established, would be a decided step towards solving the line of that branch of the family.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

BROOKLYN, February 9, 1892.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS have in press 'Money, Silver, and Finance,' by J. Howard Cowperthwait, a work in criticism of our existing national policy. The same firm announce 'The Genesis of the Art Forms; An Essay in Comparative Æsthetics,' by Prof. George L. Raymond of Princeton; 'Methods of Industrial Remuneration,' by David F. Schloss; 'The Test Pronouncer,' by W. H. P. Phyfe; 'Summer Fallow,' poems by Charles Buxton Going; 'Moods and Memories,' poems by Madison Cawein; and 'Pratt Portraits: Studies of a New England Family,' by Anna Fuller.

'Cigarette Papers,' by Joseph Hatton; 'The Idealist,' by Henry T. King; and 'His Great Self,' a new novel by Marion Harland, are announced by J. B. Lippincott Co.

The Rev. Dr. Lyman Abbott's Lowell Institute lectures on 'The Evolution of Christianity' will be published, after revision, in book form by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., who announce also 'The Rationale of Mesmerism,' by A. P. Sinnett; 'A Golden Gossip,' by Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney; and 'Roger Hunt,' a new novel by Mrs. Celia P. Woolley.

Mr. Morris Phillips, editor of the *Home Journal*, will publish early next month 'Abroad and at Home,' a guide-book to summer and winter resorts, hotels, restaurants, etc., on both sides of the water.

John Wiley & Sons announce a text-book of 'Theory and Practice in the Designing of Modern Framed Structures,' by Prof. J. B. Johnson, C. W. Bryan, and F. E. Turneaure.

The *Academy* announces that Sir Charles Dilke and Mr. H. S. Wilkinson (author of 'The Brain of an Army') are jointly preparing a book on the 'Defences of England,' which will be published at an early date by Macmillan & Co.

From the same source we learn that Prof. George J. Romanes has sent to press an elaborate work on evolution, upon which he has been long engaged, and part of which he read last spring, as lectures, at the Royal Institution. The book is to be called 'Darwin, and after Darwin,' and it will be published in two volumes by the Messrs. Longman. The same publishers have in press the Autobiography of Isaac Williams. Isaac Williams (he was always called by his full name) was one of the early Tractarians at Oxford, and, besides his contributions to the series of "Tracts for the Times," was the author of several volumes of verse—'The Baptistery,' 'The Cathedral,' 'The Christian Scholar,' and portions of the 'Lyra Apostolica.' He also wrote two of the volumes of the 'Plain Sermons.' He was, quite as much as Keble, the poet and the saint of the Movement. Newman paid him a touching tribute of love and esteem in his two dedications to him of 'The Church of the Fathers'—one being written before and the other after Newman left the English Church. The Autobiography now to appear will take its place at once beside Dean Church's memorials in the considerable and increasing library of *mémoires pour servir* which the future historian of the Oxford Movement will find ready to his hand. One may hope that it will contain a portrait of Isaac Williams's refined and beautiful face.

A batch of new editions comes to us from Macmillan, viz., F. Marion Crawford's 'Doctor Claudius,' Davidson and Benham's Life of the late Archbishop of Canterbury, now in its third edition, as is also the 'Oxford Movement,' by the late Dean Church, reduced in size and price. We may also mention here the 'Village Sermons' of the same ecclesiastic, and the new, revised, and greatly enlarged edition of Bishop Alexander's 'Leading Ideas of the Gospels.'

The chief illustrated serials that have figured in *Harper's Magazine* for the past year, the two bound volumes of which lie upon our table, are Mr. Besant's papers on historic London and Mr. Theodore Child's on present-day South America, with the Abbey-Lang series on Shakspere's comedies, and Mr. Schuyler's "Glimpses of Western Architecture." Two cases of literary resuscitation occur in Dickens's letters to Collins, and the Thackeray "Boudin" sketches. For the rest, there is the alternation of story and discussion, travel and biography, to the salient features of which we have called due attention in our monthly comments.

No epitome can do justice to the vast variety of topics touched upon by *Harper's Weekly* for 1891, and resort must be had to its own copious index to learn how wide a range is covered by its illustrations, and how complete a gallery of the year's notabilities is furnished by its portraits. Stories appear to be gaining in number over the record for previous volumes, while the page devoted to sport and athletics is a distinct innovation. Yet there is no lack of serious articles, and the editorial pages point as true as ever to the north of honest politics.

The gauds and marvels of woman's dress take up the customary amount of space, both in illustration and letterpress, in Vol. 24 of *Harper's Bazar*. What women shall do with themselves when once dressed is not forgotten by editors and contributors, and subscribers have a considerable amount of art, ancient and modern, served up to them in reproduction and description, while the volume embraces also two serial stories by Mr. Besant and Mr. Hardy—the latter's 'Tess of the D'Urbervilles' being just now in the public's hands in book form.

The third of the little volumes in which Harper & Bros. have gathered specimen essays of the editorial departments of their Magazine is the most welcome, viz., Mr. Curtis's 'From the Easy Chair,' and is disappointing only because it is so very inadequate to the riches of light literature out of which it is drawn. It has been a frequently expressed wish that the less transitory of these bits of town talk should be collected, since they are quite unique in tone and method, and at the same time continue an old tradition of American letters; but this collection by no means answers our desires. Little enough is given, but even this serves to show how distinctly the Easy Chair, month after month, has been for a generation the elegant chronicle of affairs of taste in this city, relieved by the interest of a citizen in the things of the State and of humanity—strains of "a higher mood"; and the aging New Yorker will find the pleasures of memory spread before him on the page—the songs he used to hear, the prima donnas that have gone, the dinners now historical, the sights of the street long swallowed up by the northward flowing tide of business, the players and the lecturers that were "Planco consule," as the editor likes to say—Everett and Emerson, Thoreau and Phillips, and all the rest of the men and things that filled an hour in their time. It is this reminiscential quality that is most felt in this selection of essays that now exhale the unexpected odor of time past. In particular it is a book of this city, indigenous, with the unmistakable trade-mark of Manhattan. But let us hope this publication is no more than a trial of the public taste, for the Easy Chair cannot shrink to any such proportions as this. It might do in Lilliput, but not on our island.

Mr. Edmund Gosse has collected in a handsome volume, 'Gossip in a Library' (John W. Lovell), a series of brief essays, contributed to the *Independent*, upon the more rare or interesting books in his own library. The pieces are the merest gossamer of bibliography, allusion, and comment, and their subjects usually lack novelty. Camden and the 'Mirror for Magistrates,' Lady Winchelsea (whom Mr. Gosse seems to have found much as Swinburne found Jonson's 'Discoveries'), Beau Nash, "Peter Bell," Eliza Heywood, Farquhar, Pharamond, Moncrif, Donne's Funeral Sermon, and all the rest, except a few that "really were" nobodies, afford the author opportunity to say a baker's dozen of very obvious remarks on each topic before he skims away to his next bastard title. How often need we remind our London cousins that these, like the Abbey, are ours too? *Nec tam aversus*—do our cousins fancy that we haven't primers of our own? We have quite enough just as flimsy as this; for the dilettante is a native product, though not fully protected, it seems, from foreign competition.

A primer of information (such as we just referred to) of American manufacture comes to us under the title 'Wells of English' (Boston: Roberts Bros.). The author, Mr. Isaac Bassett Choate, quotes Principal Shairp to the effect that we should know not only great poets but minor writers, and then gives brief accounts of forty, from Thomas of Erceldoune to John Evelyn. The list includes Skelton, More, Wyatt, Surrey, Raleigh, Chapman, Greene, Daniel, Drayton, Marlowe, and other as well-known Elizabethans, Herrick, Walton, Fuller, Crashawe, Lovelace, and Marvell. Of these the author writes the oft-told story, and he fails to add to our knowledge of the obscurer names. What he sets down is unexceptionable save for its being the fruit, apparently, of a common delusion of the student that what is new in the learning will be new in the telling to others in a book. At the same time there can hardly be too many unpretentious volumes, such as this, of average information of the subject and fair taste in appreciation, to aid in

the steady increase of the use of old literature by the library public.

'Four Lectures on Henrik Ibsen, dealing chiefly with his Metrical Works,' by Philip H. Wicksteed (Macmillan), treat of the vexed genius of the latest comer in "world-literature" with sincere admiration, and also, fortunately, with a certain restraint which makes the eulogistic criticism more acceptable. The subjects dealt with are the "Poems," "Brand," "Peter Gynt," and the "Social Plays." The strong personality of Ibsen is given full value in the analysis of the moral intention of these works; and the contradictions of life mirrored in them, the confusion of extreme ideals or formulas illustrated through them, the violent antipathies developed in Ibsen's nature by modern conditions, are all brought out plainly. The study is, therefore, one worth attending to, and the reservations made in conclusion are the more telling because of the enthusiasm shown. That Ibsen has felt deeply some acute phases of evil in society cannot be gainsaid, and what power he has proceeds from his realization of these; but that his reflection in respect to them is real wisdom, or that the form of imagination in which he embodies them is any part of the fine-art of literature—these are other matters. Some light on them, however, the reader may gain better from this little book than from any other that has fallen under our notice. The author is a devotee of the cult, but the points where doubt begins to insinuate itself are perceptible in his work, and hence he is usefully suggestive.

We have received from Frederick Keppel & Co. a large etching after the portrait of John Lothrop Motley, painted by Bisschop for the late Queen of Holland in 1872. At that time, as we are informed, the historian was the Queen's guest at her "House in the Wood" at The Hague, where the picture now is. The etching has been executed by a Dutch artist, Mr. Philip Zilcken, himself at one time private secretary to the Queen. These circumstances invest the present plate with much interest, and the likeness is in a broad way true to life, yet the face is the most disappointing part of the print, both in respect of solid execution and in interpretation of character. We cannot speak of the original canvas, and it may well be that it is chargeable with the defects we feel in the etching. If so, it would appear that Mr. Zilcken had no such personal acquaintance with Mr. Motley as would enable him to improve on the painting. The print is upon Holland paper and also upon vellum.

—The report of Brig.-Gen. Thomas Lincoln Casey, Chief of Engineers, showing the progress made during the year ending December 1, 1891, in the construction of the building for the Library of Congress, has been printed as Senate Miscellaneous Document No. 15 of Fifty-second Congress, First Session. The advancement indicated is very satisfactory. The front walls of the whole building have been carried up to the height of the second-story floor, and a great part of the inner or court walls has been built to a much greater height, while the iron-work and nearly all the brick and terracotta work of the second-story floor are in place. The various iron-work required for the interior has also been carried forward, including the novel book-stack invented by Superintendent B. R. Green, which is being put up in the north stack-room, and all the materials for the heating apparatus and steam power have been received and the greater part put in place. Two large folding-plates, taken from photographs, accompany the report and show the whole exterior walls of the vast building (471x340 feet) as they stood on December 1 last, thus enabling one to get some idea of how the largest and most imposing library structure in the world is going to look. The amount expended during the year was $823,711.52, leaving an unexpended balance of $810,515.57 to be used during the remainder of the fiscal year; while the contracts in force and minor indebtedness call for $1,059,045.54, and the estimated appropriation required to carry on the work to the end of the next fiscal year, June 30, 1893, is $1,035,000. The total appropriations since October 2, 1888, have been $2,450,000, and the total expenditures $1,639,484.43. The completion of the building is promised by January 1, 1897, provided funds are appropriated to the full amounts of the annual estimates submitted within the limit of total cost fixed by the Act of March 2, 1889, namely, $5,500,000, in addition to the appropriations made prior to that date. It is to be hoped that no false ideas of economy will prevent Congress from promptly making such appropriations as are necessary to carry on, without break, this work, which is of truly national importance.

—It must be seldom that a judicial opinion attains the dignity of an historical monograph, but this may fairly be predicated of Judge Nott's opinion, for the Court of Claims, in the case of the Western Cherokees vs. the United States, decided November 30, 1891. "In 1838," says Judge Nott, "the condition of the Cherokee people was this"—and he proceeds to give succinctly the shameful story of the removal of the eastern section of the tribe to the Indian Territory, and the curious antagonism which arose, under the leadership of John Ross, between the earlier emigrants and the later. For this chief Judge Nott expresses the greatest admiration, saying that his "intellectual successes deserve to be ranked among the extraordinary achievements of diplomacy if not of statesmanship. For eight years he had maintained a contest with both the Government and the State of Georgia in the field of intellectual resource—objecting, procrastinating, evading; sometimes invoking moral forces, sometimes foreshadowing forceful resistance; and again and again he had achieved the negative triumph of frustrating the emigration of his people. And it is not a trivial element of the case that for six years his resistance was effectual against the iron determination of Andrew Jackson." Kooweskowee's contention with the Western Cherokees in their new home was marked by the same qualities. Overthrown in Georgia, he asserted the integrity and unity of the Cherokee Nation, and by means of his larger contingent imposed his policy on the dismayed Western Cherokees in the Indian Territory, appropriating 14,000,000 acres of land purchased with their own money, and substituting one government for two, at the cost of a civil war, in which vengeance was visited on the unauthorized tribesmen who had concluded the treaty of New Echota (1835) that led to the removal from Georgia. The claim of the Western Cherokees for restitution has only now been adjudicated, but, though in their favor, not to the benefit of the claimants in the suit as trustees "to receive the money of those who have not appeared." They simply secure priority of payment as being the first to put in an appearance. The opinion is most interesting reading, both from the political and the legal point of view, and is set forth with great clearness and with the aid of documents.

—In the *Educational Review* for February, Mr. Arthur M. Comey presents some figures as to the number of students attending college in the United States now and in former years. The term college is used in a comprehensive sense, the line being drawn apparently at institutions which require no preparation in Latin for admission to their classical course. The title assumed by an institution, of course, goes for nothing, Mr. Comey having found one "university," empowered to confer degrees, whose freshman class is taught only arithmetic, geography, grammar, orthography, and penmanship, while Latin is begun in the junior year, Greek first taken up by seniors, and modern languages not studied at all. On this principle, students in preparatory departments in colleges have not been counted, nor are women included. These omissions are to enable a proper estimate to be formed of the increase of students following the higher learning, for, in the West and South, colleges have found it necessary to prepare their own students, and the proportion of those in the preparatory departments is nearly two-thirds of the whole. As to the omission of female students, Mr. Comey states that in 1850 there was but one co-educational college in the country, with only six women in attendance. But, for various reasons, "scientific" students are reckoned, although purely scientific schools are altogether disregarded. The only reason assigned for the latter omission is the singular one that it would have involved "large additions to tables already very extended." Promise is made, however, of later mention of the "results which would been brought about had they been included."

—The tables produced show the number of students now in attendance at the different colleges in the several States, the number by States, the number in proportion to the population of the States, the number per 100,000 of population by sections of the country, and the comparative increase of students and population since 1850. Where comparisons with population are involved, of course the untrustworthiness of the censuses of 1870 and 1890 must be reckoned with; but taking the returns as we have them, it seems that while there were 38 students per 100,000 of population in 1850, and the number was scarcely increased until 1880, it rose in the last decade to 50. The absolute increase was from 8,837 in 1850 to 31,516 in 1890. The figures showing the distribution by States and sections are to be read in the light of the fact that only 65 per cent. of the students at New England colleges reside in that region, more than 20 per cent. coming from the Middle States. The most striking result of the investigation is that, between 1880 and 1890, population increased 25 per cent., while the increase in the number of students exceeded 50 per cent.

—Count L. N. Tolstoi's latest book has been translated into French by M. E. Halperine-Kaminsky, under the title of 'L'Argent et le Travail,' and is just published by Marpon & Flammarion. It is a new chapter of its author's now familiar gospel: To give away money is to ruin the poor; money should be done away with; safety lies only in a country life supported by daily toil. The book is introduced by a letter to the translator from M. Émile Zola, which appeared in the *Figaro* of January 9. M. Zola disclaims any special fitness to speak as an expert of the main thesis of the book, which, in fact, he could hardly treat worthily in the narrow limits of a letter, but gives his impressions after reading it. He finds that Tolstoi has lost none of his great powers of observation

and expression. He is still the powerful analyst, the profound psychologist, of 'War and Peace' and of 'Anna Karénina.' His descriptions of his hospital visits and of life among the poor, his tracing out of the roots of vanity and selfishness that underlie almsgiving, are as vivid and as subtle as anything that he has ever done. His sincerity, his enthusiasm, his unwavering faith are more than attractive, they are seductive. They throw a spell over generous minds. Even Zola, whose chief traits do not seem to be those of such minds, feels it and bends to it. No doubt Tolstoi is right at bottom, he says; it is a beautiful dream, based on great truths, yet hopelessly impracticable. Tolstoi shows us the Promised Land, flowing with honey and milk, but there are no roads by which to reach it, and no bridges over the stream that divides us from it. He himself is ready to lead the exodus, and has, indeed, stripped himself for the journey. He urges it upon the world with a fervor and eloquence that are almost unparalleled. But no one moves, for no one knows where to plant the first footstep. It is a vast tribute to Tolstoi's greatness, and to the almost boundless influence that such faith and honesty and tenderness as his have upon men, that so unsympathetic and perhaps also so unspiritual a critic as M. Zola is should be moved to say of him: "Je suis un peu honteux de jouer ici le rôle de l'homme raisonnable."

NORTON'S TRANSLATION OF DANTE'S PURGATORY.

The Divine Comedy of Dante. Translated by Charles Eliot Norton. II. Purgatory. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1891.

In reviewing Mr. Norton's translation of Dante's 'Inferno,' we gave reasons for maintaining that the best version of a great epic like 'The Divine Comedy' must be a prose version, because no English metre can reproduce the *terza rima* of the original, and because, under any circumstances, the best metrical version must be a paraphrase. The only excuse for making a metrical translation is that it may reproduce the charm of the *form* of the original; but if it fail in this, and if it also give only a blurred presentation of the *substance*, it is necessarily inferior to a prose translation in which the substance at least is faithfully presented. We pointed out also that Dante, of all foreign classics, has a style so intense and vigorous that it suffers most from any paraphrasing. Dilute his unique qualities, as the metrical translator is forced to do, and they are no longer recognizable; but in a first-rate prose translation, like this of Mr. Norton's, you find them on every page. That the tendency among scholars has set strongly towards prose translations of the world's poetic masterpieces, cannot be denied; that it is a good tendency, we firmly believe. The development of the critical faculty in modern times has made us value exactness above all things. We want to know just what the great poet or the deep thinker said; and if we cannot read his own words, we are satisfied with nothing short of a precise rendering of his message. For, however much we may regret the loss of the beauty of his manner, we are compensated by the truthfulness of the translation. But, we must repeat, a literal prose translation must have literary quality in order to be permanent; it must be no mere college "pony," but endowed with those attributes which raise any original English work to the level of genuine literature. Such requirements we found Mr. Norton had fulfilled in his version of the 'Inferno.'

The 'Purgatorio' has already been twice translated into English prose—by the late W. S. Dugdale and by A. J. Butler—and as, in the case of the 'Inferno,' we showed wherein Mr. Norton excelled his chief competitor, Dr. John Carlyle, it will be necessary to compare his work with that of these translators of the second canticle. The most obvious quality of Dugdale's work is its readableness; it moves easily, smoothly, and seldom brings you to a halt before an obscure passage. If, however, you begin to suspect this fluency, and turn to the original, you find that the ease has been gained at the expense of exactness. Not only does Dugdale paraphrase freely, but he often uses commonplace words to translate the Dantesque prototypes. Take, for example, the following lines:

"A seder ci ponemmo ambedui,
Volti a levante, ond' eravam saliti;
Chè suole a riguardar giovare altrui" (iv. 52–4).

These Dugdale renders: "Here we sat down, our faces towards the east, from whence we had come up, since to look back on troubles surmounted is pleasant." The real meaning is, as Mr. Norton gives it: "There we both sat down, turning to the east, whence we had ascended, for to look back is wont to encourage one." Evidently Dugdale gains nothing here by unliteralness; but he leads us to suspect that, since he treats thus loosely a passage so simple as this, he will run too far astray when he is confronted by a really difficult passage. And this suspicion is frequently confirmed. To cite a single instance, typical of many, we turn to Canto vii., in which Dante, after describing the blossom-carpeted Valley of the Princes, says:

"Non avea pur natura ivi dipinto,
Ma di soavità di mille odori
Vi facea un incognito e indistinto" (vii., 79-81),

which Dugdale translates thus: "Nature had not been content with lavishing her multifarious hues, but with the sweetness of a thousand perfumes had produced there an indescribably delicious fragrance." Such expressions as "lavishing her multifarious hues," and "an indescribably delicious fragrance," might be found in one of Ouida's effusions; they are not, of course, Dantesque, nor do they give the descriptive quality of these particular lines, as will be seen by comparing them with Mr. Norton's version: "Nature had not only painted there, but with the sweetness of a thousand odors she made there one unknown and blended." This, at the first reading, may seem abrupt, but so is the original, and when reread the meaning becomes clear, and the very terseness adds to the suggestiveness of the description. It has always seemed to us that Homer's picture of Helen at the Scæan Gates ('Iliad,' iii. 155 *seq.*) surpasses all other descriptions of womanly beauty; yet he does not specify, as a modern would, he simply tells the *effect* of her beauty upon the old men chirping there like grasshoppers as she passed them. Dante, too, is master of the art of kindling the imagination by describing the effect rather than the cause; he knows when not to define because definition would impose limits and crudeness upon that the essence of whose charm is vagueness. Such a passage as that just quoted illustrates his method in this respect; Dugdale's paraphrase of it shows how completely he can fail in transmitting the spirit of Dante's work. It would be unfair to dismiss his translation if the two specimens we have drawn from it were exceptional, but they are not; from every page we might cull others to corroborate our statement that he sacrifices exactness for the sake of readableness. His work as a whole reminds us of a snow image of some masterly statue, after the sun has just begun to melt the snow, leaving but an indistinct and eroded effigy of the original.

In Mr. A. J. Butler Mr. Norton has a more serious competitor. Mr. Butler is more scholarly and more precise than Mr. Dugdale, and his version differs from Mr. Norton's chiefly in style. He states in his preface that he aims "at the production of a 'crib,' pure and simple," and that he has not attempted "an addition to English literature, but to aid beginners in understanding that of Italy." It is from the literary rather than from the interpretative side, therefore, that we shall naturally look for shortcomings; and yet it may be difficult, within the space at our command, to make these as evident as were Mr. Dugdale's shortcomings in interpretation. The relative merits of two styles cannot always be shown in a single sentence or even in a single paragraph; but if we take a canto and read first Mr. Butler's version of it, and then Mr. Norton's, we shall be conscious of their different quality; and if we analyze, to discover wherein that difference lies, we shall find it in the sum of innumerable slight touches, hardly noticed separately. For an example, let the reader study the apostrophe to Florence (vi., 127-151), and we shall be surprised if he does not feel the superiority of Mr. Norton's style, in which there is a union of strength and elasticity—now one to be used and now the other, as the case requires—not observable in Mr. Butler's style. Perhaps this difference will appear even in a shorter passage, like the following:

"O power of fancy, that at whiles so snatchest us from external things that a man heeds not whereas around are sounding a thousand trumpets, who moves thee, if the sense set thee not forth? Light moves thee, which is given form in heaven, of itself, or through a will which sends it down" (xvii, 13–18).

Thus Mr. Butler, to be compared with this: "O power imaginative, that dost sometimes so steal us from outward things that a man heeds it not, although around him a thousand trumpets sound, who moveth thee if the sense afford thee naught? A light, that in the heavens is formed, moveth thee by itself, or by a will that downward guides it." Leaving aside the question as to whose interpretation is the more nearly correct, can there be a doubt as to which style is the better?

But while superiority of style constitutes the most obvious excellence in Mr. Norton's version, we should create a false impression if we did not lay stress on the fact that this superiority is due to his more intimate sympathy with the spirit, and to his keener critical judgment of the minute details, of Dante's work; these, combined with taste—that faculty which Fitzgerald calls "the feminine of genius"—have enabled him to produce a translation which is "an addition to English literature."

After having thus briefly pointed out the general considerations which cause us to rank his translation above that of either Dugdale or Butler, we would set down a few suggestions which, as it seems to us, are improvements—for it is the privilege of every reader of Dante to believe his own rendering of certain words is the best. Pia de' Tolomei's brief

"Salsi colui che innanellata pria
Disposando m' avea con la sua gemma" (v. 135–6).

is not quite intelligible when translated, "he knows it, who, wedding me, had first ringed me with his own gem." Dante devotes only four lines to Pia; it would be strange, therefore, if, in a passage so condensed, he threw in the words "innanellata pria" merely to let us

know that putting on a ring was one of the symbols of marriage. The other interpretation of these two words, which makes them refer to Pia's previous marriage (the Nello who let malaria waste her to death in Maremma being her second husband)—this interpretation seems to us preferable. Likewise, in the description of the Celestial Pilot (ii., 44) we prefer the reading *parea* to *faria*, although Mr. Norton has Witte with him in adopting the latter. To say of the Pilot "that if but described he would *make* blessed," suggests a train of thought that the imagination cannot easily follow; whereas the other interpretation, blessedness *seemed* to be written upon his face, or, as Butler puts it, "he appeared blessed by a sure title," is both poetic and clear. For the still more disputed line (vi. 111) "E vedrai Santafior, com' è *sicura*," Mr. Norton finds the reading "com' è *oscura*," and translates, "And thou wilt see Santafiora how dark it is." There is still a third variation, "come *si cura*." In this last case the meaning is, "And thou wilt see Santafiora, how it is cared for," that is, ruled or governed. But the first reading, "thou wilt see Santafiora how safe it is," appears to us much the best. The line occurs in the well-known passage in which Dante, pouring out sarcasm on the Guelph abuses in Italy, invokes the Emperor to come and behold them: the poet is ironical when he speaks of the "loving people" (l. 115), ironical also in his reference to the Guelph county of Santafiora. For him to say merely that the condition there is "dark," seems commonplace, and lacks both vividness and irony; but the epithet "safe" is truly ironical, and harmonizes with the general tone of Dante's invective. A little lower in this same passage Dante, addressing Florence, says, sarcastically of course, "this digression does not touch thee, thanks to thy people *che sì argomenta.*" None of the translators succeed, in our opinion, in quite interpreting the words we have italicized. Dugdale perhaps comes nearest with his "that reason so well"; Butler has it, "that is so full of reason"; Longfellow, "thy people who such forethought take"; Plumtre, "wise in argument"; Cary, "thy people, who so wisely speed." Mr. Norton, leaning rather to the interpretation of Longfellow and Cary, makes it "thanks to thy people that for itself takes heed." But it is evident to us that in *sì argomenta* Dante alludes to the well-known passion of the Florentines for arguing: they were disputatious, they split hairs; and so the *sì argomenta* is doubly ironical, implying not only that the Florentines "reasoned well," but that they disputed incessantly over everything. That they took good heed concerning their affairs is a sarcastic deduction from their contentiousness.

It will be seen that our criticism touches debatable passages about which opinions will probably always differ. Coming to more minute details, we should prefer the English "Montagues and Capulets" (vi., 106), which Shakspere has made familiar, to the Italian form "Montecchi" and "Cappelletti"; so, too, "Conrad," for "Corrado" (viii., 65 and 118), although we recognize how hard it is to follow rigidly any rule for Anglicizing foreign proper names. In the paraphrase of the Lord's Prayer, "Our Father *which* art in Heaven" is to be preferred to "who." Dante frequently uses the adjective *vermiglio*, which the English "vermilion" best represents. The precise shade of the color has changed, we believe, in recent times, it being now more yellow and less crimson than formerly; but the word "vermilion" is rich and poetic. The Elizabethans and their successors often used it. Spenser (in the "Epithalamion") speaks of the "goodly vermill stayne," Shakspere (Sonnet 98) of "the deep vermilion in the rose," Milton (in "Comus") of the "vermeil-tinctur'd lip"; Lovelace calls the rose

> "Vermilion ball that's given
> From lip to lip in heaven."

So there is sufficient reason, however dyers may change their fashion, for using it, instead of "red," wherever Dante does (ii., 7; xxviii., 55; xxix., 114 and 148). In translating the famous quotation beginning "Non è il mondan romore altro che un fiato" (xi., 100), we should keep Dante's word "rumor," which suggests (better than "renown") the element of fickleness and uncertainty which go to make up earthly fame. *Matto* (iii., 34) and *folle* (xii., 43) Mr. Norton translates respectively "foolish" and "mad"; it would be better to reverse them, as *matto* is much the stronger epithet. *Dolente* (xv., 81) carries the meaning of being sorry, that is, penitent, rather that that of "painful"; the P's on the sinner's brow are erased not because they give him pain, but because he repents him of the sins for which they stand. Would it not be well to keep the idea of bending which *piega* (xv., 123) conveys, instead of "overcomes," which calls up no picture? The same question arises in regard to *trastulla* (xvi., 90), which is a picturesque word in the Italian. *Marca* (xix., 45; xxvi., 73) is of course the mediæval "march"—still current in the phrase "the Marches of Ancona"—and it would be well to translate it by a word less abstract than "region." Would "countrified" be too colloquial an equivalent for *rozzo* (xxvi., 69)? And is not "ditties" preferable to "verses" as a rendering of *detti* (xxvi., 112)? We note a few misprints: Court for Count of Provence (p. 128, note 6); Anagna for Alagna, and 1253 for 1283 (both on p. 130).

We regret that we have not space for pointing out a few of the many felicities of expression which make Mr. Norton's translation better than Mr. Butler's, which was hitherto the best; but we have aimed simply to suggest places which might be improved before another edition is issued. His notes to the 'Purgatory' are naturally fuller than were those to the 'Hell,' because this canticle deals more largely with abstractions, with mediæval dogma and allegory; but the notes are never too long, and never argumentative. The 'Purgatory' has never, we conceive, had its due share of attention and admiration, although it is a work replete with fine illustrations of Dante's genius. It contains many pictures as vivid as the better-known pictures in the 'Hell,' and as that is animated by sternness, so is this suffused with tenderness. The atmosphere has changed; the gloom and luridness of the infernal regions are succeeded by sunshine and starlight; you can trace the progress of the poet merely by the increasing purity and brightness of the colors of the region through which his pilgrimage lies. Perfect is the correspondence between the outer scene and the spiritual state of the pilgrim; for none ever knew better than Dante that

> "He that has light within his own clear breast
> May sit i' the centre, and enjoy bright day;
> But he that hides a dark soul and foul thoughts,
> Benighted walks under the midday sun;
> Himself is his own dungeon."

These lines might serve as the motto not alone of the 'Purgatory,' but of Dante's entire epic, of whose significance they furnish a sure key.

CLARK'S COLLEGES OF OXFORD.—II.

The Colleges of Oxford: Their History and Traditions. Twenty-one chapters contributed by members of the colleges, edited by Andrew Clark, M.A., Fellow of Lincoln College, Oxford. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan.

THE foundations of Exeter, Oriel, and Queens had intervened between that of Merton and that of New College. In the history of Exeter we find proof that the difference between the Puritan régime and that of the Restoration was really great, though it may have been overstated, and though sceptical criticism may be disposed to refine this with other historical lines of demarcation almost out of existence. Conant, the Puritan rector put in by the Commonwealth, was an exemplary head, and made his college a model both of literary industry and of morality. Upon his ejection for refusing submission to the Act of Conformity, the crew of Comus came in, as Antony Wood, a strong Royalist, has testified. "Exeter College is now (1665) much debauched by a drunken Governor: whereas before in Dr. Conant's time it was accounted a civil house, it is now rude, and uncivil. The rector (Maynard) is good-natured, generous, and a good scholar; but he has forgot the way of College life and the decorum of a good scholar. He is much given to bibbing, and when there is a music meeting in one of the Fellows' chambers he will sit there, smoke, and drink till he is drunk and has to be led to his lodgings by the junior Fellows." So we are told by another and later witness: "There is nothing but drinking and dancery. Exeter is totally spoiled and so is Christchurch. There is over against Balliol a dingy, horrid, scandalous ale-house, fit for none but dragooners and tinkers. Here the Balliol men, by perpetual bibbing, add art and their natural stupidity to make themselves perfect sots."

A Balliol man may read this without a pang, since his College is now in the very front of academical progress. Balliol and Oriel owe their preëminence in recent times to their lucky exemption from the restrictions with regard to birthplace in the election of Fellows which were imposed on most of the colleges by the localism of the Middle Ages. Exeter was a Western College, Queen's was a Northern College, and both suffered from the restriction. Queen's especially had been reduced to a deplorable condition before new life was given it by the emancipatory hand of a Parliamentary Commission. People in the Middle Ages had very faint notions of the natural difference between one man and another. They thought that by the rod of discipline ruthlessly applied a silk purse might be made out of a sow's ear, and therefore in regulating the election of their Fellows they freely indulged in local, family, and other preferences, which proved ruinous to their main designs.

Another instance of the way in which "the best laid plans of mice and men" sometimes "gang agley" is Lincoln College, which, like New College, was founded at the time of Wiclif's movement. The founders were two reactionary Bishops, and the statutes state expressly that the College is intended to combat "that novel and pestilent sect which was assailing the sacraments and possessions of the Church." The phrase is notable, because by connecting the sacraments with the possessions it gives us the true key to the persecutions. It was not only for the doctrine of Transubstantiation that a wealthy Bishop or Abbot was fighting, nor is it likely that mere hatred of doctrinal error, though it might have made them bitter controversialists, would have driven them to wholesale murder. But could Bishops Fleming and Rothersham have looked into the magic glass of futurity, they would

have seen among the Fellows of their college John Wesley, and among its rectors Mark Pattison.

Magdalen was founded by Waynflete, Chancellor of the hapless Henry VI. Its completion is one of the proofs that the general life of the nation was comparatively little disturbed by the murderous quarrels of the nobility. The sumptuous Founder's rooms, which are the pride of the College, once harbored a strange guest. Richard III. lodged in them on his memorable progress. Waynflete came to receive his king, and this tribute from a man who represented the highest morality of his age seems to show that no moral shock was given to the public mind by what is called Richard's usurpation, and that had his fears not hurried him into the murder of his nephews, he might have been generally accepted and have died with the crown upon his head. Magdalen was richly endowed with wealth as well as with beauty; but the founder unluckily indulged his local partialities in the election of Fellows, and the consequence was that his college sank into sinecurism and sensuality, which have been branded for ever by the caustic touch of Gibbon. Delivered by the Parliamentary Commission, it is now what its founder meant that it should be.

Corpus Christi, the college of Keble and Arnold in recent times, is notable as a genuine offspring of the Renaissance. It was founded in preference to a monastery in distinct view of the doom impending over the monastic foundations. Its statutes lay out a regular course of classical study, and in their own language affect a flowery elegance. But the grandest offspring of the Renaissance was Christchurch. Wolsey was not childless; but he of course had no legitimate child, and he fulfilled Bacon's aphorism as to the public philoprogenitiveness of childless men. He fell when his design was but half accomplished, and his place as founder was usurped by the King, though the usurper neglected to remove the Cardinal's hat from the stonework, and totally failed to expel the Cardinal's memory from the hearts of the alumni. Wolsey's munificence was rewarded after all, for his College, or, as all Christchurch men proudly call it, "The House," was for many years the one famous seat of learning and education among the Oxford colleges. The shade cast upon its honor by the supposed expulsion of Locke is undeserved. Locke was not expelled by the College, but deprived by order of the King. The luckless attempt of the Christchurch group of scholars to maintain against Bentley the genuineness of the Letters of Phalaris is a stain on the literary escutcheon not so easily removed.

Wolsey had lived long enough to see, and (as a Cardinal was necessarily a Conservative) no doubt he saw with sorrow, the connection of the Renaissance with the Reformation proved by the appearance of heresy in his College. There soon followed the great religious revolution, with its expulsions, restorations, and re-expulsions of Heads and Fellows, as the tide of change flowed, ebbed, and flowed again, breaking up academical life for the time. Colleges, however, continued to be founded. Trinity and St. Johns were both founded by Catholics under Mary. Wadham, the last great foundation, received its charter from James I. Its architecture, as the writer of the paper on it notes, is the enigma of architectural history, belonging to a style a century and a half earlier than the date of the foundation. This is typical of the whole history of Oxford, where the spirit of the Middle Ages lingered long. It lingered long, partly through the influence of the architecture, though still more owing to that of clerical and celibate fellowships; it regained a brief ascendancy, under the leadership of Newman and Pusey, during three decades of the present century. Keble College, the youngest on the list, is the product of this Neo-Catholic reaction, and not unlikely to be its gravestone. For 'Lux Mundi,' which is partly the work of Keble men, shows that criticism and science have found their way into that which was destined to be the academical fortress of High Church opinion. No college gates can shut out the air, or that with which the air of the times is laden.

The absorption of the University, which had practically taken place before, was formally consummated by Laud's statute requiring every member of the University to be a member of a college. The University was thus saddled with the mediæval statutes of the colleges, and with the restrictions imposed by the partialities of founders on the election of Fellows. We have had occasion to speak of the local restrictions and of their disastrous effects. Still more disastrous, perhaps, were the clerical restrictions. Of these the practical significance and strictness were greatly enhanced by the Reformation. In the Middle Ages, all learning, and even to a great extent art and such mechanical science as there was, were ecclesiastical, and college statutes which required a Fellow to take holy orders within a certain time after his election, by no means devoted him to merely clerical studies or work. But after the Reformation the calling of a clergyman became strictly professional, and dedicated him as a rule either to theology or to pastoral duties. The clerical restrictions now became clerical indeed, and practically excluded from the University all studies but theology and the ancient languages, a knowledge of which was fortunately held necessary for a theologian. All but the members of the State Church were at the same time shut out of the University by tests, mere boys being compelled, with a contempt for the rights of conscience characteristic of a political religion, to subscribe a set of articles comprising scores of disputable positions in divinity. Thus the University became a mere donkey-engine of the State Church, and of the Tory party, of which the State Church was the subservient ally.

In the Cambridge colleges, it is difficult to say from what cause, though the same clerical restrictions prevailed, the clerical character was less intense; the religious test at entrance was somewhat less stringent; the political connection of the University was somewhat more liberal; and Newton's philosophy, taking hold of the mind of the place, turned it partly to non-theological studies. Newton himself was saved to Cambridge and to science by the lucky occurrence of a vacancy in one of the very few lay fellowships of Trinity College, when he was on the point of having to resign as the penalty of not taking holy orders. But Oxford, during the last century, sank into a lethargy poorly relieved by the names of a few illustrious men who were rather boarders than alumni. No life but that of theological controversy was left. Balliol and Oriel, being free from local restrictions in the election of Fellows, led the way in a revival. Then came Parliamentary commissions, invoked by reformers in the University itself, and, by sweeping away the mediæval statutes of the colleges, together with the tests, they restored Oxford to intellectual life and to the nation. Laud's statute, requiring all members of the University to be members of a college, was repealed at the same time, and there is now a considerable body of independent students. Yet the number of these foundations is such, so richly are they endowed with both wealth and beauty, and such are the attractions of their social life as well as their educational advantages, that Oxford still is, and probably will always remain, practically a federation of colleges.

A Song of Life. By Margaret Warner Morley. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1891. 8vo, pp. 155. Illustrated.

As a popular book on nature this is a really successful effort. The publishers have treated it well, and, as is not always the case with ornamental books, the text is worthy of its handsome setting. The illustrations are delicate and suggestive touches in lines, artistically woven into the pages or around their margins, where they are effective and useful. In half-a-dozen short chapters the author puts the story of the origin and growth of the embryo, and the subsequent development, in plants, fishes, frogs, birds, and mammals. The plan of the work is novel, and the narrative is accurate and interesting to an unusual degree. Few writers on life's history give so much of it in a space so limited. If inclined to criticise, we might suggest that the quotations on pages 45 to 48 are not entirely apt, and are likely to give the impression that crustacea, radiates, etc., are all included as fishes; or we might call attention to the fact that authorities do not all agree that the song of the bird is inherited.

Jasmin: Barber, Poet, Philanthropist. By Samuel Smiles, LL.D. Harper & Bros. 1892.

Since Longfellow translated 'The Blind Girl of Castel-Cuillé,' Jasmin's name has been attractive to the poetically minded, and Miss Preston has done something to satisfy their curiosity by her later renderings. Mr. Samuel Smiles gives in small compass in this volume a sufficiently detailed biography, the few facts of which are interleaved with abstracts of the poet's longer works, and at the end is a version of "Franconette" and three other shorter pieces. The life is very easily told. Jasmin was born in poverty, and, when ten years old, saw his grandfather one day carried along the street in an armchair, and, running up to him, the boy threw himself into the old man's arms and asked, "Where are you going? Why do you weep? Why are you leaving our home?" "My child," said the old man, "I am going to the almshouse, where all the Jasmins die." He tells this anecdote in his autobiographical poem, "Mes Souvenirs," and adds others that disclose only a poor boy's childhood. He had some little charitable schooling, and became a barber. Then his natural gift broke into blossom; he wrote in his dialect, and one after another famous critic of Paris heard of him or saw him, Charles Nodier being the discoverer, and Sainte-Beuve praised him. He became the pride of his province, and in Paris he recited before the Academicians and royalty with the same vigor and enthusiasm as before the country audiences in Agen, or Toulouse, or elsewhere, for he went about doing what he could with his talent for charity's sake, to relieve the sufferers by famine or other misfortune, to repair churches, and for like objects. But, whether at the capital or with his own Gascons, he maintained his originality, his freshness and good sense, remained a barber, and composed new verses, and so, dying at the

age of sixty-five, he had used his gift of song to the full, and done much good in the world about him, besides having his self-esteem, innocent and unconcealed as it was, very well satisfied by the praise of his comrades, and of the great men at Paris who fancied they patronized him, as, no doubt, he thought too.

Altogether it was a true poet's life, happily unperplexed by taking thought of many things, and unspoiled by being crowned at Agen. The tale is told well enough by Dr. Smiles, without being tagged with morals, but the best part of it is where the text at intervals is illuminated by the descriptions and narrative drawn from the poet's self-revealing work. And his simple country nature shines through the heavy style of the biographer, just as in the poem of "Franconette" in the appendix the grace, the charm, the inimitable freshness of true feeling make way through the harsh, unmusical, and awkward English verses.

Writers and Readers. By George Birkbeck Hill, D.C.L. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1892.

Dr. Hill gathers in this volume six very desultory lectures upon books and their uses, and pleases the reader by the wealth of anecdote and quotation and out-of-the-way instances which abound in his pages, and also by the frankness of his own opinions. He has at the start a subject rich in malicious delight to the ordinary devourer of books—the disagreement of critics about the masterpieces of their own times, or, as he calls it, the fluctuation of opinion. He handles it well, with wide knowledge and temperate spirit. The story, so far as it relates to our own century, is well known, but the freshness of his work lies in his survey of eighteenth-century opinion, in the criticism of Fielding and Richardson and others, about whom his special knowledge of the period gives him an advantage over other students. Of instances illustrative of lack of prophetic vision among the learned in literature, none is more complete in opaqueness than the contemptuous sentence passed on the Scotch dialect. Dr. Dugald Stewart writes:

"The influence of Scottish associations, so far as it is favorable to antiquity, is confined to Scotchmen alone, and furnishes no resources to the writer who aspires to a place among English classics. Nay, such is the effect of that provincial situation to which Scotland is now reduced, that the transactions of former ages are apt to convey to ourselves exaggerated conceptions of barbarism from the uncouth and degraded dialect in which they are recorded."

This was only eighteen years before 'Waverley.' "To write in that tongue," says Beattie, "is now impossible; such is the effect of mean expressions applied to an important subject"; and again he says that it is "ludicrous" to the Scotch themselves. Ten years after this was written came the Kilmarnock edition of Burns. Hume joined in the chorus of disdain for the old songs in the speech of the people; and Dr. Hill reminds us how Garrick changed the title of Home's play for fear that a Highland name would damn it, and provided besides a supposititious author for it in the shape of an Oxford student, who attended at rehearsals to claim it. Yet it was out of this "uncouth and degraded dialect" and the life of the people who used it that the only literature by which Scotland takes rank with literary nations proceeded, and that, too, within a score of years after these gentlemen of elegant taste had decided the matter so rashly. The blindness of critics, however, is commonly shared by the people of their time, and it is unfair to single out the individual Jeffrey or Lockhart, as if he were a perverse and capital sinner; and it is one merit of Dr. Hill that he deals with the errors of the critic, not as sporadic cases of dulness or incompetence, but as expressions of the changeful taste of the public, generation after generation. The men of the eighteenth century were not more stupid in letters than in politics, and the burst of Burns and Byron was not more a portent than the earthquake under the thrones.

Dr. Hill takes up in succeeding essays several topics upon which he has strong opinions, and among his traits may be noted a violent antipathy to college sports, a Johnsonian abhorrence of æsthetic diction and cruder word-painting, and finally a hearty belief in the educational value of literature. With an apt quotation he dismisses the philologist using Virgil as a comment on some Latin grammar, as

> "——one whose hand,
> Like the base Indian, threw a pearl away
> Richer than all his tribe,"

and summons Dr. Johnson to remind us, in his criticism of Milton on education, of the relative utility in ordinary life of what science and what literature gives the mind. In these later pages one may go along with the author or not (for the most part we find no difficulty in keeping company with him); but in any event the reader will feel a tonic contact with a vigorous judgment, and may well benefit, though he be well-read, by the special information and extract that may be found in all parts of the volume. Nor is the obvious leaning of Dr. Hill to the side of the men of old one which need be quarrelled with.

Age of the Domestic Animals: Being a complete Treatise on the Dentition of the Horse, Ox, Sheep, Hog, and Dog, and on the various other means of determining the Age of these Animals. By Rush Shippen Huidekoper, M.D. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis. 1891. 8vo, pp. 217. Fully illustrated.

It is to breeders, dealers, traders, veterinary surgeons, and students in the agricultural colleges—in fact, to all those having to do with horses, cattle, and other domestic animals—that this work appeals. The teeth being the principal means of determining the ages, the volume is almost entirely taken up with them; less than half-a-dozen pages are given to the discussion of horns. Man, not mentioned in the title, is included among the domestic animals. The impossibility of giving a complete treatise on the dentition in a volume of this size is at once apparent; yet, for the author's purposes, the title is not so far out of the way. A sufficient amount of information on the structure and growth in the earliest stages is given. The illustrations are very numerous, and, being so nearly of natural size, they will serve well for comparing in practical examinations. In the later periods, when the changes are less rapid, they are figured at intervals of a year or more; in the earlier, they are represented from month to month or from week to week. The normal effects of wear are well presented. Wolf teeth, abnormalities, malformations, accidentals, supernumeraries, and the effects of cribbing, are satisfactorily set forth. The tricks of the trader, in making the young appear older and the old younger, or in hiding the effects of cribbing, or in "Bishoping" as practised by the "Gyps"—filing the table even and then gouging out an artificial cup—all receive due attention. While he has no new evidence to offer on the disputed conclusion, the author himself is inclined to believe that drawing the milk teeth hastens the appearance of the permanent series, thus giving an animal the appearance of greater age.

Eminently practical as the book is, it forms a manual in which the subject has been scientifically treated.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, William. The Leading Ideas of the Gospels. New and revised ed. Macmillan. $1.75.
Ballance, C. A. Ligation in Continuity. Macmillan. $10.
Bonvalot, Gabriel. Across Thibet. Cassell. $3.50.
Bowser, Prof. E. A. Academic Algebra. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.25.
Browne, E. G. A Traveller's Narrative Written to Illustrate the Episode of the Báb. Vol. II. English Translation and Notes. Cambridge, Eng.: The University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Burton, Mina E. Ruling the Planets. Harpers. 50 cents.
Church, R. W. Village Sermons. Macmillan. $1.75.
Church, R. W. The Oxford Movement. 3d ed. Macmillan. $1.50.
Couperus, Louis. Eline Vere. Appletons.
Crawford, F. M. Doctor Claudius. Macmillan. $1.
Darkness and Daylight; or, Lights and Shadows of New York Life. Hartford, Conn.: A. D. Worthington & Co.
Daudet, Alphonse. Rose and Ninette. Cassell. 50 cents.
Davidson, R. T., and Benham, W. Life of Archibald Campbell Tait. 3d ed. 2 vols. Macmillan. $4.
Desjardins, Paul. Le Devoir Présent. 2d ed. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Farnell, G. S. Tales from Herodotus. Macmillan. 40 cents.
Fitzgerald, Percy. The Art of Acting. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.: New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Fox, Norman. A Sketch of the Life of Thomas Rambault. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.
Gissing, G. Denzil Quarrier. Macmillan. $1.
Gregg, D. A. Architectural Rendering in Pen and Ink. Parts I. and II. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Harper's Bazar. Vol. 24. 1891. Harpers.
Harper's Magazine. Vols. 82 and 83. December, 1890—November, 1891. Harpers.
Harper's Weekly. Vol. 35. 1891. Harpers.
Hempel, Prof. Walther. Methods of Gas Analysis. Macmillan. $1.90.
Henry, W. W. Life, Correspondence and Speeches of Patrick Henry. Vol. III. Scribners. $4.
Huish, M. B. The Year's Art. 1892. London: J. S. Virtue & Co.
Jokai, Maurus. The Nameless Castle. St. Paul: The Price-McGill Co. 50 cents.
Knight, R. P. The Symbolical Language of Ancient Art and Mythology. New ed. J. W. Bouton. $5.
Lee, Margaret. One Touch of Nature. John A. Taylor & Co. 30 cents.
Le Sage, A. R. The Merry Bachelor. Worthington Co.
Loti, Pierre. The Book of Pity and of Death. Cassell. 50 cents.
Mackie, E. C. Luciani Menippus et Timon. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
McLennan, Malcolm. Muckle Jock, and Other Stories of Peasant Life in the North. Macmillan. $1.
Medini, F. R. Edalaine: A Metrical Romance. G. W. Dillingham.
Memoir and Sermons of Theodor Christlieb. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $2.
Mill, H. R. The Realm of Nature. [University Extension Manuals.] Scribners. $1.50.
Réal, Antony. The Story of the Stick in all Ages and Lands. J. W. Bouton.
Renan, E. Recollections and Letters. Cassell. $1.50.
Ritchie, Rev. A. Dancing before the Lord, and Other Sermons. Guild of St. Ignatius.
Russell, Prof. J. E. The Philosophy of Locke. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. The Youth of the Duchess of Angoulême. Scribners. $1.25.
Saltus, F. S. Flasks and Flagons. Buffalo: C. W. Moulton.
Robinson, R. E. Vermont. [American Commonwealths.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Sargent, C. S. The Silva of North America. Vol. III. Anacardiaceæ — Leguminosæ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Sayce, A. H. The Races of the Old Testament. F. H. Revell Co. $1.20.
Sellar, Prof. W. Y. The Roman Poets of the Augustan Age: Horace and the Elegiac Poets. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Serao, Mathilde. Farewell, Love! Minerva Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Sherman, B. M. L'Ombra. J. W. Lovell Co. $1.25.
Sihler, Chr. The Hydriatic Treatment of Typhoid Fever. Cleveland, O.: The Author.
Sloane, T. O'C. Electric Toy-Making. N. W. Henley & Co. $1.
Smetham, Sarah, and Davies, W. Letters of James Smetham. Macmillan. $2.50.
Smith, Charles. Arithmetic for Schools. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Smith, Saqui. Back from the Dead. Cassell. 50 cents.
Stanton, Edward. Dreams of the Dead. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
St. Aubyn, Alan. For the Old Sake's Sake. Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.

Stephenson, H. M. Livy, Book IX. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Stock, St. G. The Crito of Plato. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Sullivan, F., and I. E. What it Costs; or, Debtor and Creditor. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
The Modern Odyssey; or, Ulysses Up to Date. Cassell.
Tibbetts, G. P. College Requirements in Algebra. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55 cents.
Tredwell, D. M. A Monograph on Privately Illustrated Books. Privately Printed.
Waite, G. W., and White, G. H. A Straight Road to Cæsar. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
White, C. E. Number Lessons. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 45 cents.
Whitmore, W. H. The Original Mother Goose's Melody. Boston: Damrell & Upham.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 25, 1892.

The Week.

THERE is only one view to be taken of the action of the Hill Convention at Albany. Summed up in a sentence, the Convention has served notice upon the Democratic party of the country not to nominate Mr. Cleveland for the Presidency. When we say Convention, we mean, of course, David B. Hill. He was, from the beginning to the end, the Convention. Its delegates did nothing that he had not arranged in advance for them to do. For a month he has been, in complete neglect of his duties as Senator, sitting in headquarters at Albany, packing this Convention, running with his own hand the perfect political machine which he has, for the past seven years, with the aid of the public service of this State, been constructing for this very purpose. He selected the delegation which the Convention appointed to present his name to the Chicago Convention, he drafted the complimentary resolutions upon his candidacy which the Convention adopted, and, when this part of his programme had been executed, he had himself summoned before the Convention which he had packed, and delivered a speech which he had prepared for the occasion days in advance. In fact, had he appointed his solid Hill delegation in his headquarters, without a primary or a convention, and thanked himself for the honor in a speech to himself in his private room, there would have been just as much popular and spontaneous Democratic sentiment behind his candidacy as there is after the Convention farce has been completed.

No party in the history of the country has had a candidate more plainly destined for it, if it has any excuse for existence, than Mr. Cleveland is destined for the Democratic party this year. He has given it the first great issue it has had for a quarter of a century, and has kept it true to that issue till it has won one of the greatest victories ever achieved in American politics—a victory, in fact, which amounted to a political revolution. On that issue next November Mr. Cleveland would be an invincible candidate, if the elections of the past three years can be taken as a basis for prediction. As Congressman Harter says, in speaking of the confidence which the Ohio Democrats secured among the people of that State when they got the courage to declare in favor of free wool: "We might have said, 'We are Democrats' until eternity and we would not have converted a single political soul in that great political State." That is the situation in the whole country. If the Democratic party, under the guidance of a rascally political trickster who has consolidated the worst elements of American politics on his side, makes the blunder of abandoning the issues on which it has won the reluctant confidence of the American people—tariff reform, honest money, and honest administration of public affairs—by abandoning the candidate who personifies those issues as no other candidate can, the party will return to its old position of "We are Democrats," and will relapse into the condition of perpetual defeat and contempt from which Mr. Cleveland's leadership lifted it.

The Republican primaries in Indiana show that Harrison is to have a solid delegation from his own State to the Republican National Convention. The Federal office-holders in the South, who constitute practically the whole of the party in many States, will turn in for him nearly all of the delegates from that section. The Burlington *Hawk-Eye* has been studying the tone of the daily and weekly Republican newspapers of Iowa since Blaine's withdrawal was announced, and reports that "the nearly unanimous expression is in favor of the renomination of President Harrison." There is still some talk of complimentary votes for Alger from Michigan and for Cullom from Illinois, but neither of them stands the slightest chance of getting more than a small fraction of the delegates. There is nothing for the party to do except to renominate Harrison, and every one is coming to see it.

A municipal election was held in Philadelphia last week, the most striking result of which was that the worst candidates before the people received the largest majorities. Among the officers to be chosen were four magistrates. Two of the men on the Republican ticket were incumbents who had been exposed as having shared their fees with the notorious embezzler Bardsley. Two independent candidates were put in the field against them by decent Republicans, and an outsider might have supposed that at least their majority would have been cut down, if they had not been beaten outright. But the delinquent officials were not at all alarmed. They simply made an arrangement with the bosses of the Democratic party by which the latter refused to exercise their right to nominate four candidates for magistrates, and nominated but two. As all the active workers of the election, and both the Republican and Democratic machines, were controlled by the "combines" and "leaders," the result was that, although the two independent candidates received about 6,000 votes, the two against whom the movement was directed polled several thousand more votes than their two respectable associates on the Republican ticket.

A startling indication of the tone of the New York Legislature on questions of temperance and public morals was furnished in the action of the Senate last week in passing Senator Plunkitt's bill for the protection of dive-keepers. Nobody except a Tammany heeler of the worst type, as Plunkitt is, would have had the audacity to introduce a measure of this kind at the very time when public attention in this city is concentrated upon "dives," and the authorities are being forced by public sentiment into prosecuting the keepers of the worst of them and sending them to prison. The object of the bill is to make such prosecutions more difficult hereafter by requiring that no complaint against such places shall be entertained unless made in writing and verified, as pleadings are verified under the Code of Civil Procedure, by an affidavit that the matter alleged is true of the complainant's own knowledge or belief. The bill applies to the whole State, and opens the way to the practically unrestricted keeping of "dives" and "dance-houses" in every city and town of the State. People who are inclined to think that the Rev. Dr. Parkhurst has been using too strong language in his denunciation of Tammany men and methods, would do well to consider this measure and its companion and ally, the Liquor-Dealers' Excise Bill. If the two become laws, as they now seem destined to, it will not be long before every respectable person in the city will be convinced not only that Dr. Parkhurst's language was the simple truth, but that it was spoken not a moment too soon.

Brooklyn has just had a novel experience in the matter of liquor licenses. The Excise Board has held a meeting and adopted a resolution declaring that there ought not to be any increase during 1892 in the number of licenses; that saloons ought not to be allowed on more than two of the four corners formed by the intersections of streets; and that "the best interests of the city of Brooklyn, and the proper regulation of the excise matters therein intrusted to this Board, are served if this Board hereafter does not grant any license for the sale of intoxicating liquors in close proximity to any school or church in said city." There is no large city where licenses have been granted more freely than in Brooklyn of late years. There are over 4,000 saloons in the city, which means one to every 225 people, or one to every 62 adult males; and on some of the main avenues there are from two to four saloons at nearly all the intersections of cross streets. Licenses have been freely granted in the vicinity of schools and churches, and in quarters which were supposed to

be given up entirely to fine residences. There is consequently full justification for the position taken by the Excise Board, but it is, nevertheless, a great surprise. While there have been of late many earnest protests from influential sources against the policy of the Excise Board, there has not been any such outburst of popular indignation as sometimes forces such officials to call a halt.

The explanation of the change of policy appears to be that the liquor interest itself has concluded that the saloon business is overdone. The custom has been for the brewers to start bar-tenders in saloons and take a chattel mortgage, with the understanding that only the beer manufactured by these brewers should be sold there. Such saloons have been started by the hundreds, until nobody could walk the streets of Brooklyn without often saying to himself, "I don't see how they make a living." It seems that they have not, and the brewers have decided that they will not start any more saloons until the city grows up to what it already has. The President of the State Retail Liquor Dealers' Association is perfectly frank about the matter. Being asked whether that association favored the resolution passed by the Excise Commissioners, he replied, "Of course it does. It is a step in the right direction. It will regulate the sale of liquor to a great extent, and will be better for all hands engaged in the business. There are a great many who have stores now who are not making a living." The spectacle of the organized liquor traffic favoring a restriction in the number of saloons is certainly a novel one, and the temperance people who have been working to the same end will be surprised to receive assistance from so unexpected a source.

Congressman Bland has evidently got returns from Congressman Harter's circular to the Grand Army posts on the shrinkage of pensions involved in the free coinage of silver. It is easy for any pensioner to see that if he is now getting $12 per month in money worth 100 cents per dollar, he will get only $8.40 per month when the dollar is worth only 70 cents. The simplicity of this demonstration exasperated Bland to such an extent that on Thursday he interrupted the proceedings of the House, which was engaged on the Indian Appropriation Bill, to call attention to the circular, which he styled a "bulldozing document." Mr. Harter avowed himself the author of the circular, and defended it, saying among other things that he desired to prevent the Democratic party from taking a step which would result in reëlecting Benjamin Harrison as President of the United States. Mr. Harter has also drawn up a call for a Democratic caucus to consider the free-coinage question. This is a wise and necessary proceeding. The country wants to know whether the Democratic party is so bereft of its senses as to pass this ruinous, swindling bill. While a doubt exists on this subject, thousands of voters are saying to themselves: "This poor old Democratic party is just as bad as it was before the war. There is no use trying to do anything for it or with it."

Attention has been drawn to the new silver-mining-camp at Creede, Col., which bids fair to prove a second Leadville in point of richness. The cost of production at this place is said to be not more than 40 cents per ounce, and its capacity is as yet undetermined. The mines are on the line of the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad. Consequently, all the necessary machinery and building material can be brought in and the ore carried out at the lowest possible rate. Twenty-five car-loads of ore are going out every day. Now Mr. Harter very reasonably inquires whether pensioners ought to be asked to accept forty cents' worth of silver as the equivalent of a dollar in case the new mines at Creede and elsewhere should depress the price of silver to that extent. Also, whether wage-workers and savings-bank depositors should be paid off in the same way. These are very proper questions for a caucus.

One thing, at least, is reassuring in the statement which Secretary Foster put forth in Washington on February 17. He said it was "silly to suppose that he contemplated the use of the $100,000,000 gold reserve to meet the current obligations of the Government." This is something of a reflection upon Assistant-Secretary Spaulding, who on January 23 told the Committee on Ways and Means that he "understood" Secretary Foster considered the gold reserve available to meet current expenses. In fact, this is not the first time that Mr. Foster has had to rap the knuckles of an indiscreet subordinate. Ever since he took charge of the Treasury the management has suffered not only from his lack of financial experience, but from his habit of putting out "feelers" as to the policy of the Treasury, just as he was in the habit of doing in regard to merely partisan policy. The Treasury officials under him have not unnaturally taken his suggestions as meaning something, and have had to be repeatedly called to order by him when he found that public and expert opinion was against him. Where Secretary Foster gets his $5,500,000 in the national-bank redemption fund, which he said was at his disposal, is a good deal of a puzzle. In his annual report he showed how the $54,207,975 lying in the Treasury on that account and turned over as available cash by the law of July 14, 1890, together with the $9,363,715 deposited on the same account up to the end of the fiscal year, had all been spent. So far this year the deposits by banks have been but $1,760,648, while the outlay on the same score has been $10,428,663, leaving a net deficit on this item of over $8,000,000. We are unable to see how the Secretary converts this into an unexpended balance.

The shipment of half a million of gold by Saturday's steamers is said to have been for a special reason, the rate of exchange not warranting it as an ordinary trade movement. If there be such a special reason, it is probably to be found in the efforts of Austria-Hungary to put herself upon the gold standard. The suffering that that country has undergone by reason of the fluctuations of silver (the present monetary standard of the empire), has been extreme, and the fear of still further ups and downs, but principally downs, has determined her statesmen to make almost any sacrifice to secure the gold standard. The present is a very bad time for such a step in Europe, the wrenching and twisting which accompanied the Baring crisis of 1890 being still severely felt and being aggravated by bad harvests in 1891. Nevertheless there are indications that the Austro-Hungarian Government is persisting in its endeavor, and is seizing gold wherever it can find any that is not too tenaciously held. The United States can spare this article more readily than any other country now. Although our merchandise exports continue to be enormous and show a balance of trade in our favor for seven months of $182,500,000 (according to the *Financial Chronicle*), yet we have bought back from Europe a vast but unknown quantity of our own securities, and the stream is still flowing this way. This movement has been accelerated by fears on the other side that we are approaching a silver basis, through sheer inability of the Treasury to meet its current expenses and redeem its new silver notes in gold. Foreigners overlook the fact that the Secretary has the power and is charged with the duty of selling bonds if necessary to maintain gold payments. There is no reason to suppose that he would fail to apply this remedy in a crisis, or that the remedy would prove inadequate.

The Anti-Option Bill at Washington has had the effect already to depress the price of wheat. The reason is that it tends to restrict trading to a hand-and-mouth operation. It withdraws capital from the grain market, and gives to the buyer for immediate use (for example, the Minneapolis miller) a command over the market. It drives his competitor (the buyer for future delivery) out of the field. No doubt the Minneapolis millers who are so hot for the bill are working for the interests of the farmer as they understand these interests. No doubt the prosperity of the farmer depends on the prosperity of the miller, just as the general prosperity depends on the protected manufacturers. Still, we wish that the farmer might be enabled to see that two and two make four in the grain market as well as

in the schoolroom. He has been fooled by Alliance lecturers and others into believing that short sellers have the market all to themselves, and that when they want to put down the price of grain they begin by driving the buyers out of the Produce Exchange and then holding high carnival all by themselves. Senator Washburn is under no such delusion. He knows that there are buyers for every pound of wheat sold, whether for present or for future delivery, but he knows also that if the buyers for future delivery can, by any means, be driven out, the honest miller will be the only cash customer, and will, therefore, have the whip-hand of the market. It now looks as though the Constitution might intervene to save the farmer from his friends. Article I., section 7, of that instrument says that "all bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives." This bill lays a tax on a certain class of contracts, and is, therefore, a revenue measure. It would seem to be necessary for Mr. Washburn to wait till the House favors him with some bill which an honest miller can support.

Gen. Francis A. Walker has made a practical suggestion for the restriction of immigration. He would have the Government impose a tax of $100 a head upon every newcomer to this country. Undoubtedly such a system would put an effectual check upon immigration if it could be adopted. But the difficulty will be to get it adopted. Such a law would have to be passed by a Congress many of whose members could never have entered the United States if $100 a head had been exacted of everybody who wanted to come here. Of Wisconsin's nine Representatives, for example, one was born in Hesse-Darmstadt, Germany, and brought to this country as a boy of eight; another in Bavaria, and brought here at six; and a third in Norway, and brought to America in his youth. One of Minnesota's five Representatives was born in Norway and brought here as a baby, while another was born in Sweden and came here in his boyhood. It will be hard to persuade such men that other poor Germans or Scandinavians should be forbidden a chance to bring their families here and "give the children a chance"; and if Germans and Scandinavians are to be admitted without paying the tax, where shall the line be drawn? It is not strange that Western newspapers should be expressing the opinion that there is no prospect of Gen. Walker's suggestion coming to anything.

The mortality reports published monthly by the Connecticut Board of Health are compiled with great care, and for December, 1891, and January, 1892, cover 167 out of the 168 towns in the State. For that period of two months they are of exceptional interest, because they show authoritatively the increase of deaths caused by the "grip" and the diseases which are apt to follow it. In each of those months the mortality list surpassed any month's record since the Board was established in 1878. There were 1,729 deaths in December and 1,953 in January, the nearest approach to these figures being those for the "grip" month of January, 1890, and for the hot July of 1887, when they reached respectively 1,648 and 1,649. The average monthly rate for the last six years in the State has been only 1,052, so that the average (1,841) for the two months exceeded by 75 per cent. the average rate for the six years. The unprecedented mortality of 1,953 for last January is 860 more than the average for the preceding five Januaries, notwithstanding the "grip" January of 1890 is numbered among them; and the total deaths for the two months from grip, pneumonia, and bronchitis are no less than 1,392 out of 3,682, or nearly 38 per cent. A curious feature of the report for last month is the fact that in 137 towns of less than 5,000 inhabitants the figures represent an annual death-rate of 34.9 per 1,000, while in 30 towns of more than 5,000 inhabitants the figures are 29.7 per 1,000. This seems to argue that during epidemic disease the healthful air of the country towns is more than offset by the superior home comforts and better medical attendance of the cities. Probably, also, the fatality of the disease among the old folks left behind on the Yankee farms is another factor, though one which cannot be computed in exact figures.

"An Interesting Question" was the appropriate subject of a suggestive editorial article which appeared in the St. Louis *Republic* a few days ago. The writer begins with a reference to what he calls the "town movement" in the agricultural States of the West and South which followed the war, and which, he thinks, resulted from war legislation. As a consequence of this movement, the county and railroad towns in these States "became more and more the centres of activity, with all their phenomena of 'doggeries' and such like, that are inevitable in every period of change." The bad effects are most clearly perceptible in those who are now boys from ten to seventeen years of age, and especially in the matter of education. They are subjected to the full influence of the habits of small towns, while their fathers in the agricultural communities are too poor to give them a thorough education. As a consequence, they have only the barest smattering picked up in the common schools, and it is hard to get them to take even this much. When they have learned to read and write, they think they have enough, and they want to "stop learning and 'go to merchandising'—which means clerking in the grocery-store or the general-supply store." But while this is true of the boys, the girls in the very same communities are getting a fair education. They are anxious to learn, and their parents make great sacrifices to educate them. Female seminaries of high grade are kept up in places where the teacher of a high-grade school for boys would be starved to death. Moreover, "the girls are taught enough to enable them to go on learning after their school days are over, until they get some idea of what the world means." The *Republic* writer is moved by all this to propound sundry questions:

> "What is to come of this? What will girls who have got the very best education their circumstances afford do with such husbands when they get them? What will be the effect twenty years from now? Is it true that 'as the husband is the wife is,' and that the clowns with whom these educated young women will be mated will have strength to drag them down? Or will they be able to make the clown ashamed of himself and his clownishness?"

This article has attracted the attention of the Buffalo *Courier* and elicited a not less interesting response. The Buffalo writer thinks that the *Republic* has got hold of only one phase of the matter; that the agricultural States are not the only ones in which a generation of women is growing up which is superior to the corresponding generation of men; and that all over the country the girls continue to go to school after the boys (in most cases by choice rather than by necessity) drop their studies. But this is not the most marked feature of the movement, in the *Courier's* opinion. It points out that the literary societies, not only in the country but in the cities, are chiefly societies of women. It says that there may be half-a-dozen literary organizations composed exclusively of men in Buffalo, though the names of only two are familiar to the writer of the article, but there must be nearly fifty whose members are confined to the other sex. Rochester is a university town, and the literary clubs composed of men there might naturally be expected to play an important part in the life of the city; but the *Courier* says that "none of them can compare in success with a club of women whose meetings regularly fill the church in which they are held." Every well-informed journalist knows that the same thing is true, or coming to be true, everywhere, and must agree with the *Courier* that under existing conditions "the time is fast coming when the generality of women will be more intelligent than the generality of men, at least as far as intelligence is acquired by the study of books." The Buffalo observer is not at all alarmed by the situation. He thinks it will be an advantage to the race to have the female sex more highly educated, both in the way of its own protection and in the training of children. "The girls of the present generation," it says, "will not allow their sons to grow up, as did their brothers, unappreciative of the value of schooling." This is undoubtedly the vital feature of the case, and it shows how the *Republic's* problem is to be solved.

THE ALBANY CONSPIRATORS.

JUDGE CULLEN'S decision in the Emans contempt case amounts to a charge of conspiracy, made from the bench of the Supreme Court of the State, against David B. Hill, Governor, Frank Rice, Secretary of State, and Isaac H. Maynard, Deputy Attorney-General. Summed up briefly, the Judge holds that the Clerk of Dutchess County, who was charged with contempt of court for not properly transmitting a legal return to the State Canvassing Board, was not guilty as charged, since he did transmit the return properly, and that the reason why the return was not before the Canvassing Board when it held its final session was because it had been abstracted from the official files by Messrs. Hill, Rice, and Maynard. That is to say, while the Clerk is not guilty of contempt, these three State officers are guilty of conspiracy.

Judge Cullen goes over the points in the case very carefully, and makes each point in the conspiracy so plain that no concealment or denial of it will be possible hereafter. He holds that the duty imposed upon the County Clerk, by both the statute and the order of the court, was to transmit the returns, and that when he had put the returns in the Post-office and they had been delivered at the offices of the State officials to which they had been mailed, his duty ceased. After that, whatever action the clerk might take to recover the returns would not constitute official misconduct or contempt of court, but personal crime. The Judge goes on to show that all the steps which the clerk took to recover two of the three copies of the returns which he had sent, from the offices of the Governor and Secretary of State, were taken under authority from Gov. Hill and Mr. Maynard, and with the consent and approval of the Governor and Secretary of State, and that these three officials, and not Emans, are responsible for the offence committed. As for the taking of the third copy of the returns, which Mr. Maynard took from the Comptroller's office, Judge Cullen holds Mr. Maynard solely responsible for that offence. After this careful summing up of the case, the Judge makes decision as follows:

> "Though the enclosures containing the returns had not been open, no imposition was practised upon any of the officers as to their contents, but the officers were entirely aware of the character of the papers delivered up. There was, therefore, in law and in fact, a complete transmission of the returns to the officers prescribed by statute. The returns were not before the Board of State Canvassers, not because of any defect in the transmission, nor of a disobedience of the order of the Court, but because, by the action of the Secretary of State, the Governor, and the counsel of the Comptroller, the returns were taken from the several public offices where they had been properly received and were given to Mr. Emans."

Every word of that decision goes straight to the point, and puts the brand of conspiracy upon Messrs. Hill, Rice, and Maynard so thoroughly that they will never be able to remove it. The returns which they as public officials removed from the files of the State, which they were sworn to guard, were those of the Fifteenth Senatorial District declaring the election of Deane, the Republican candidate. It is worth while to recapitulate briefly the history of those returns. Under the inspiration of Messrs. Hill and Maynard, the Democratic Board of Supervisors had so juggled with the election figures as to make out a majority for the Democratic candidate. Judge Barnard of the Supreme Court, who, like Judge Cullen, is a Democrat, was applied to for a mandamus compelling the Board to recanvass the vote and correct their frauds and errors. He granted it, and issued a stay upon the State Canvassing Board restraining it from acting upon the certificate of election issued on the erroneous canvass, saying: "The State Board has a return which does not indicate the true result. It is proper that the Board should hold its hand until the true record reaches it." What the true record was, Judge Barnard made plain a few days later, when, at the conclusion of another hearing, he ordered the County Canvassers to issue a certificate of election to Mr. Deane, and ordered the clerk to forward the same to Albany.

There were many subsequent efforts made by Messrs. Hill and Maynard to prevent this order of transmission of the returns from being executed, but they were all thwarted after many legal battles in the courts, and the clerk mailed the returns. Then it was that the conspiracy was organized for abstracting them from the mails after they had reached the State officers who were sworn to receive and guard them in the name of the State. There had been, up to this point, decisions by two Democratic Judges of the Supreme Court, Barnard and Edwards, that these returns were legal and proper, and that the other returns, based on the fraudulent count, did not indicate the true result of the election. The false returns were in the hands of the Secretary of State, Mr. Rice, and were carefully guarded by him. If the legal returns were to reach him, they would have to go before the State Canvassing Board, and there would be no excuse for not declaring Deane elected, unless the Court of Appeals were to reverse the decisions of Judges Barnard and Edwards. The legal returns reached Albany on December 22. The decisions of the Court of Appeals on all the disputed cases, were expected daily. The conspirators clearly had no faith that the Court would help them, for they rifled the mails of these legal returns on the morning of their arrival, before they could be put upon record. A few days later the decisions of the Court of Appeals were published, and the following passage in reference to the Dutchess County case, and the decisions of Judges Barnard and Edwards, showed that the conspirators had hit upon the only method by which the legal returns could be prevented from coming before the State Canvassing Board:

> "Upon these facts, standing uncontradicted, we think the court below, in its proper branch, would have the power to command the State Canvassers to canvass without regard to such a return [the first and illegal one]. As it contained the result of an illegal and erroneous canvass by the Board of Canvassers in excess of its jurisdiction, and which thereby would alter the result of an election, the court should not permit it to be canvassed. As to the allegations of the manner of the making of the return by the County Board, the State Board could not itself inquire into them. *If another return should be sent to the Board, properly authenticated and containing the result of the legal action of the Board of County Canvassers, the State Board could canvass it.*"

It was this return, taken from the mails and from the official records, by Messrs. Hill, Maynard, and Rice, which decided the control of the Senate. When the State Canvassing Board met, the illegal and erroneous return, so declared by the Supreme Court and the Court of Appeals, was the only one before it. Mr. Rice, acting as Chairman, refused to make any answer when he was asked if he knew of another return, and the illegal return was canvassed and a seat stolen. It was this theft which gave the Democrats a majority of one in the Senate, and Judge Cullen's decision now declares that theft to have been the result of a conspiracy by Hill, Maynard, and Rice. All three of them should be prosecuted for their official misconduct. One of them is running for the Presidency, another is on the bench of the Court of Appeals, and the third is hailed as a recruit to the Presidential cause of the first. They appear to believe that the moral sense of the American people is as dull as their own. Surely, so far as Judge Maynard is concerned, the Bar Association must now perceive that it has a duty to perform which cannot be shirked. As for Hill and his miserable tool Rice, we have no doubt whatever that the American people will attend to them in due season.

THE IOWA SITUATION.

IOWA has always cast her electoral votes in a Presidential contest for the Republican candidate, and Republican newspapers outside the State always put her down among the "sure Republican States" in 1892. But Republican newspapers published in the State by no means share this confidence. The Council Bluffs *Nonpareil*, for example, contained an editorial article in its issue of February 14 entitled "Iowa's Supreme Danger," which opens with this emphatic paragraph:

> "Do the Republican members of the Legislature realize the danger of Iowa becoming irretrievably and permanently Democratic? They have only to maintain their present do-nothing policy on the prohibition question to accomplish this."

Two agencies have been at work to make a State which in 1880 gave Garfield 78,082 over Hancock, and 45,381 over the combined vote of the Democrats and Greenbackers, in danger twelve years later of becoming "permanently Democratic." One element has been the growth of the high-protection craze in the national Republican party. Garfield's great majority in Iowa came after ten years' advocacy and promise of lower tariff rates by the Republican party of Iowa—the very next

year after John H. Gear had been reëlected Governor by a great majority, as he had been first elected in 1877, upon a platform declaring that "we favor a wisely adjusted tariff for revenue." As the high protection wing gained control of the party, the Republicans of Iowa, who had been educated by their trusted leaders to favor and expect a revenue tariff, became at first dissatisfied, and finally indignant, until at last thousands of them in 1890 voted for Democratic candidates for Congress who stood on practically the same tariff platform the Iowa Republicans occupied between 1870 and 1880; and again in 1891 these same Republicans voted for a Democratic candidate for Governor who was an outspoken advocate of a revenue tariff. This was shown by the large vote polled for Gov. Boies last fall in rural counties chiefly inhabited by farmers.

The other agency which has been at work of late years against the Republicans is the prohibitory law. Prohibition was originally carried at what was called a "non-partisan election," where the question of such an amendment to the Constitution was the only issue submitted, and it was largely carried by the action of men who did not really believe in it, but who either voted yea or refrained from voting nay because the tide set strongly in its favor just then. The amendment was annulled upon technical grounds by the Supreme Court, but a prohibitory law was enacted by the Legislature soon after. The experiment has proved a failure, and the majority of the people are disgusted with it. Gov. Boies made his campaign in 1889, and again in 1891, upon a platform which demanded the repeal of the prohibitory law and the substitution of a local-option and high-license system. Thousands of men who had always been Republicans, and who declared themselves still Republicans in national politics, voted for him upon this issue. These men are now more than ever convinced of the wisdom of their course, and they demand that the Legislature chosen last fall shall heed the voice of the people.

The embarrassment of the Republicans arises from the fact that they control the lower branch of the Legislature. An apportionment made years ago operates in their favor, so that, although Boies received almost 8,000 more votes than the Republican candidate for Governor, and the Democrats also secured control of the Senate, the Republicans carried fifty-three of the one hundred Representative districts. These fifty-three Republicans were elected after a campaign in which the party had declared for the principle of prohibition, and promised to sustain the law if they should carry the election. "We submit to the people of Iowa the determination of the issue," the platform read, "recognizing that the control of the next Legislature by the Democratic party means State-wide license, and that the control of the next Legislature by the Republicans means continued opposition to the behests of the saloon power through the maintenance and enforcement of the law."

The submission of the issue showed that a majority of the people of Iowa are opposed to the prohibitory law, but the legislative apportionment resulted in a House of Representatives controlled by men who are pledged to "the maintenance and enforcement of the law." Ever since the election last November, Republican editors and politicians have been discussing what the party had better do in this emergency. One element takes the ground that the will of the people ought to control; that the people have willed the repeal of prohibition; and that Republican legislators ought to bow to this will, whether they think it right or not. Others declare that these fifty-three Republican Representatives are bound by their pledges to maintain the law, and would dishonor both themselves and the party if they should break these pledges. One set says that the party is sure to be beaten if it sticks to prohibition, as two successive State elections have shown that a majority of the voters are opposed to it. The other set says that the party can carry the State only by the help of those Republicans who believe conscientiously in prohibition, and that such Republicans will desert the party by tens of thousands if it abandons the cause.

The question is now pending before the Legislature, and must be decided at an early day. The indications are that the Republicans will all stand by prohibition. If they do, there are plenty of warnings from thorough-going Republicans, like the editor of the *Nonpareil*, that the State will go Democratic. Iowa has thirteen electoral votes, and it is a new sensation for the country to have a Presidential canvass in which they are to be accounted doubtful.

ZONAL RECIPROCITY.

THE intimate connection of cartography with the question of foreign commerce has long been known to those who have studied the most profound writers on international exchanges. Thus, it was at one time a well-established principle with them that "longitudinal trade" was a perfectly safe and highly desirable thing, but that "latitudinal commerce" was fully as bad in political economy as latitudinarian opinions are in theology. This axiom was brought out for the particular exposure and condemnation of those un-American reasoners who, in 1888, were arguing that if it was well to exchange commodities with San Domingo and the Sandwich Islands, it would be also in the case of Germany and France. A most touching picture was drawn at the time of the argosies of commerce moving in prosperity and triumph along the lines of longitude, but working havoc and disaster as soon as, by any fatal chance, they took a cross-country route. "Give us reciprocity with South America and Canada," was the *Tribune's* cry at that time, "but do not yield a single degree of latitude."

Times have changed since then, however, and it is no wonder that a recasting of definitions has become necessary. The old longitudinal idea is still good for South America, but can scarcely be considered so axiomatic as formerly in view of the repeated rebuffs which the Canadian Commissioners have met in their efforts to arrive at a reciprocity agreement with the present Administration. Moreover, the latter is understood to have deserved the vote of every farmer and manufacturer for its achievements in promoting reciprocity with Germany and France, to which countries approach is distinctly along lines of latitude. In fact, the situation might have been thought a particularly difficult one for our great protectionist thinkers to cover with a neat definition; but the *Tribune* rose to the occasion last week with the following contribution to economic thought:

> "Reciprocity with Canada is, however, a very different thing from commercial union with tropical America and Germany. It is reciprocity between portions of the same zone, and all the main advantages of the bargain lie with the less populous district which covets the commercial privileges of the greatest market in the world."

A mind not fitted by previous training to rise to the height of this great argument might be foolish enough to inquire why, in view of this great truth, the *Tribune* is as anxious as it is for reciprocity with Mexico. That republic is as truly in the same "zone" with New England as Canada is with Texas or California, and, moreover, it is "the less populous district," which would get "the main advantages of the bargain." But all this would be not only impertinent but an unjust reflection upon the *Tribune's* logical and geographical resources. Nothing would be easier for it, we are sure, than to show how the great isothermal lines, or the trend of the Gulf Stream, or the direction of the trade winds, make trade with Mexico a wholly different thing from trade with Canada. In fact, it would no doubt be capable, with Lord Jeffrey, of speaking disrespectfully of the Equator in order to find a reason for a course it had already determined upon.

In all seriousness, the cold reception which the Canadian Commissioners have again had to encounter is a striking commentary upon the sincerity of the pretension of the Republicans that they really desire to promote foreign commerce. Here is a country right at our doors with which, even under the present restrictive conditions, we do a business little short of $100,000,000 a year. In each country a strong public sentiment exists in favor of breaking down or greatly modifying those restrictive conditions. Influential Republicans like Senator Sherman and ex-Congressman Butterworth have strongly advocated reciprocity with Canada. The strong feeling of New England Republicanism in favor of it is well known. Only a fortnight ago the Boston *Evening Transcript* spoke of the direct

and special interest of that city "in the errand of the Canadian Commissioners at Washington," but added:

"It can be stated that neither the President nor the Secretary is very anxious to oblige the Canadian officials, as they have repeatedly interfered to prevent our Government from concluding a treaty with Newfoundland, and acted in an unfriendly manner with respect to the seal fisheries in Alaskan waters. Still, it is believed in Washington that there is a chance that something important will grow out of the present negotiations. The bungling diplomacy in South America, and especially the crowning blunder of intentionally bringing the country to the verge of war after Chili's apology had arrived in Washington, has been so unprofitable and unpopular that an attempt to retrieve the foreign-affairs record of the Administration by important negotiations making for peace and trade is altogether desirable and quite legitimate as politics."

It has been asserted that the coming of the Canadian envoys was a mere blind, designed for effect on home politics, just as our reciprocity schemes were taken up for political effect, and that they had no real authority to treat in a broad way. But in the same issue of the *Tribune* in which this assertion was made, appeared a telegram from Ottawa giving the following summary of Lord Stanley's letter of instructions to the delegates:

"The letter says that the joint commission to be appointed is authorized to deal without limitation, and to propose a treaty respecting the following subjects: (1) renewal of the reciprocity treaty of 1854, subject to such modification as the altered circumstances of both countries require, and to such extensions as the Commission may deem to be in the interests of the United States and Canada; (2) reconsideration of the treaty of 1888, respecting the Atlantic fisheries, with the view of effecting free admission of Canadian fishery products into the markets of the United States, in exchange for facilities for United States fishermen to purchase bait and supplies, and to transship cargoes in Canada, all such privileges to be mutual; (3) protection of mackerel and other fisheries in the Atlantic Ocean, and in inland waters; (4) relaxation of the coasting laws of both countries on the seaboard; (5) relaxation of the coasting laws of both countries in inland waters between the United States and Canada; (6) mutual salvage and saving of wrecked vessels; (7) arrangements for delimitation of boundary between Alaska and Canada, such treaty, of course, to be ad referendum."

Here was certainly a basis of sufficient breadth for serious negotiation, and the fact that the Commissioners coming with such proposals were brusquely dismissed for the second time well shows the narrow views and motives now ruling at Washington. If a tenth part of the effort given to treating with San Domingo or Venezuela had been bestowed upon this vastly more important question of trade with Canada, some arrangement could surely have been arrived at which would have contributed to the prosperity and good feeling of the two countries.

THE SECURITY OF RAILWAY BONDS.

JUDGING from recent events, it seems correct to say that views once held about the sacredness of corporate mortgages have been much weakened. Not many years ago a railway company was considered bound, not only by mortgage, but upon honor, to pay the interest and the principal of its funded debt in full. But latterly exchanges of underlying bonds into a "blanket mortgage," or the scaling down of principal and interest charges, are proposed without exciting general remark; the sole question being whether the suggested plan has backing enough to be carried through. In such a case the holders of a minority of the bonds are usually helpless, and find themselves obliged to accept whatever terms may be offered.

We often hear it said that minority stockholders have very few rights in a corporation. After all possible safeguards have been thrown by law around minority ownership, it still remains true that a majority must rule, and that those opposed must submit to the management of the greater number. But this reasoning does not apply to bondholders. Stockholders are partners in the enterprise, participating in its profits and properly controlling its policy. On the contrary, bondholders are creditors, from whom the money used by the share-owners has been borrowed on certain specific conditions. Every holder of a single bond, though in a hopeless minority, is yet an investor who, by all the rules of law and justice, should be treated with scrupulous fairness, and in strict and honorable compliance with the terms of his contract, by the corporation which has his money. That corporation can excuse non-payment only through absolute inability.

It is indeed possible that a railway may be unable to pay its debts or fixed charges, and that its capitalization must in consequence be readjusted to its earnings. In such a case its bonds, no matter how stringent in terms, are worth only what the property is worth. Foreclosure could not disclose a method of drawing from the railway any new profit; and so it is often wiser to accept the final values through the shorter course of a reorganization. But from this fact and procedure the idea has slowly grown that if the junior securities require readjustment, the occasion should be seized to cut down the underlying liens as well. Instances will be recalled by every one of reorganizations of railways having complicated capitalizations, where the first mortgages on indispensable parts of the system have suffered with the less valuable mortgages. So far as now known, the proposed Richmond Terminal plan is open to this objection as to the good mortgages on the proprietary roads. Another instance is where a struggling road is purchased by a stronger system. Its bonds have been of uncertain value, and, though paying a rate of interest higher than that of good roads, are quoted below par. Upon the change of ownership, what is the duty of the purchasing company? In a case now under discussion it is claimed that the purchased line has not earned its interest; yet its reports for past years did not disclose the fact. Naturally enough, the controlling system wishes to adjust the fixed charges of the little road to its past earnings, so that any increase arising from the combination shall accrue to the system. Suppose, however, that a minority of the bondholders do not like the terms proposed to them, and ask for the carrying out of the contract of mortgage, or for the repayment to them of the face of their loan. Being in a minority, according to some present theories, their wishes can be disregarded and they can be forced to accept whatever terms they can obtain. Yet, looked at in the light of a bona-fide contract entered into by the corporation on the one side and the capitalist on the other, these bondholders should be given the benefit of the doubt which now hangs over the question of the actual earning capacity of the road when independent, and should be treated liberally in view of the better prospects now opening before the company. Another instance, the same in spirit though not in letter, is that of the South Carolina Railway. Though subject to a year of misfortunes following the earthquake, that company seems abundantly able to pay more than the interest on its first and second mortgages. Yet it is sought to foreclose these mortgages on technical grounds, though no commercial reasons exist to excuse that action.

In all these cases and in many more which will occur to our readers, one fundamental idea may be found—that a railway bond is not a "security" whose sacredness the stockholders are bound in honor to uphold, but rather that the bondholder is fair game, provided only that some chance occurs through which he may be worried out of his money. It is a fact that many European capitalists are coming to have something like a distrust of American investments on this very account. An English or German investor hesitates at times about buying our bonds. A particular mortgage looks safe enough, but, he says, we cannot tell what may soon happen, and we know that Americans will cut down our principal or interest on the first opportunity. It does not need extended argument to show that such distrust of American bonds at home and abroad is hurtful to our best interests, nor to prove that credit is worth all it costs, nor that the corporate honesty which leans towards the creditors is the best policy. We are indignant at the proposed Bland Bill, which would compel the ordinary creditor to take silver in payment of his debt at one-third less than its face value in gold, but we ought also to be sure that in other ways we are not violating the same rule of justice. All must acknowledge that it is not easy at times to draw a line distinguishing between real inability to pay corporate debts and a desire to escape payment through a combination of circumstances. Yet it is a line which should always be drawn so as to guard the interests of the creditor in every way possible.

RUSSIAN RAILWAYS AND EXPORTS.

PARIS, February 4, 1892.

M. PONTZEN is a distinguished civil engineer

who has written a voluminous book on American railroads. He has lately been sent by the French Government on a mission to Russia, in order to study the Russian railroads, especially in their relation to the exportation of cereals. Western Europe becomes unable to feed its people, and we have yearly to import cereals from the east of Europe and from the United States. I have twice visited Sicily, even in its interior; it used to be called the granary of Rome. It is a very poor granary now, and bears very thin crops. It is the same with many of the old corn-growing districts; their fertility can be kept up only by expensive additions of manure, of phosphates and nitrates. The enormous extent of Russia and the nature of its still unexhausted soil give a great interest to that country, in an agricultural point of view. This year it is in some parts desolated by a famine, and the Government has been obliged to forbid the exportation of wheat on its eastern frontier; but this only proves that Russia is still in the undeveloped state in which were most of the Occidental countries before the great development of their roads and railways. The report made by M. Pontzen on the means of communication in Russia is extremely interesting; it shows clearly that everything in this great empire is, directly or indirectly, the work of the Government. There is an official department of railways, which is more active than the ordinary bureaus of public administration, and which exercises a commanding influence over the building and the working of the Russian railways.

The production and exportation of cereals constitute the chief source of wealth in Russia; from 1867 to 1889 the exportation has steadily grown. From 1867 to 1871 it was 2,448,400 tons; from 1872 to 1876, 3,275,500 tons; from 1877 to 1881, 4,628,400 tons; from 1882 to 1886, 5,116,300 tons; from 1887 to 1889, 7,325,000 tons. In Russia itself the consumption is not very variable: it is about 220 kilogrammes per year for each inhabitant. The exportation of cereals, which, between 1870 and 1879, represented only 14.7 per cent. of the total production, rose to 20.5 per cent. during the period 1883–1889. It takes place chiefly by way of the eastern and southern frontiers. It is reckoned that from 1885 to 1888, 37 per cent. of the total exportation took the eastern road and 54 per cent. the southern. The ports of the Black Sea, of the Sea of Azov, of the Baltic, are the chief centres of this exportation. Odessa, St. Petersburg, Rostov, Libau, Nikolaiev, Königsberg, Dantzic, Sebastopol, Riga, Taganrog, Reval, Mariupol, are the most important, and I have placed them in the order of their importance.

Nobody can rival Russia in the markets which she furnishes with cereals except the United States. Where Russia sends 35 tons of cereals, you may say that the United States send 33; such is the present proportion, according to official statistics. Together, Russia and the United States provide 68 tons out of every 100 tons bought in the European markets; after them, at a great distance, come Rumania (8 tons), India (7.5 tons), Austria-Hungary (4.3), the Argentine Republic (3.6), Canada (2.8), Australia (2.3), Sweden (1.6), Chili (0.8), Servia (0.7). These figures are very eloquent; if it were not for Russia and the United States, Europe would starve. I have been surprised at the importance of Rumania; its exportation augurs well for the future of this kingdom, made out of the ancient principalities of the valley of the Danube. France receives a great quantity of Russian cereals at Marseilles, and hence a curious phenomenon: while we import in the south, chiefly from Russia, we export in the north, chiefly to England. A sort of current or stream of cereals constantly runs through the country, much to the benefit of the railways.

It is not for me to write of your American elevators. I have wondered at the gigantic buildings which play the part of reservoirs for the great streams of cereals which run from the West to the East of the United States. I need not explain their utility or working. These great receptacles are called in Europe *silos*. The original silo was a mere hole dug in the ground and covered, after it was filled, with earth. When the Russians began to export cereals on a large scale, they thought it necessary merely to make *silos* at the ports of exportation. At Rostov, as well as at Taganrog, the docks are not very well placed, and wheat often receives but an imperfect covering in wooden sheds. At Odessa, silos having a capacity of 27,000 tons have just been finished; they are placed at several kilometres from the port, but are united to it by a railway.

The silos are useful, but they cannot serve as regulators between the ports and the centres of production. The Russian Government is much preoccupied now with the necessity of having elevators in these centres of production. The Government banks make advances on the cereals which are deposited in the storehouses; the advances being for as much as two-thirds of the value, and bearing an interest of 7 per cent., which seems rather high. But the private banks have followed the example of the Russian Bank, and make better terms for the producers. The ports of the Sea of Azov (Rostov on the Don, Taganrog, and Mariupol) and those of the Black Sea (Sebastopol, Odessa, and Novorossisk) have been much improved, but are not yet in the best condition. Novorossisk is quite a new port, having been in use only three years, that is to say, since the railway to Vladikavkaz was finished. The exportations are rapidly increasing, and it has a great future. It has the advantage over Odessa of never being blocked by ice.

I need not describe here the arrangements which have been made for the rapid shipping of grain. M. Pontzen has been chiefly concerned, in his report, with the movement of cereals on the railroads and with the tariffs established by the Russian Government. In a purely autocratic country, it is not surprising that these tariffs have been determined by the Government, or under its dictation. The principle which has been adopted is a gradual diminution of the kilometric tariff as the distance increases. The kilometric ton pays 7.15 centimes from 1 to 213 kilometres, 6.44 centimes from 213 to 384 kilometres, 2.15 centimes from 384 to 1,707 kilometres, 0.86 centimes from 1,707 to 3,200 kilometres. This tariff, though made for the transport of cereals to the ports of exportation, applies equally to interior transportation.

At the end of 1888 the network of Russian railroads comprised 26,884 kilometres; 4,965 were directly administered by the State, the other 21,919 kilometres were in the hands of forty-nine companies. The issues of securities necessary for the construction of all these lines amounted to 9,200,000,000 francs; the shares amounted to 1,803,875,329 francs, the bonds to 7,404,990,135. The Government guarantees the interest on all these bonds. It may be said that on an average each kilometre earns 31,516 francs, though the net earning is no more than 13,618. This does not amount to 4 per cent. on the capital invested, and the guaranteed interest is 5 or sometimes 6. The railways thus become every year a source of expense for the State, especially as the interest on a majority of the bonds is payable abroad in gold, and there is a wide margin between the paper ruble and gold. In fact, the Government spent in 1888, 124,535,380 francs for the payment of interest on the bonds emitted for the establishment of the railroads. But the State recoups itself, partly at least, by the higher rates levied on fast freights.

Great efforts have still to be made in order to complete the organization of the vast system of transportation for cereals in Russia. M. Pontzen believes that ten years at least are necessary to make it as perfect as it can be. Russia has not alone commercial interests in view; in her present state she could not mobilize her immense army with the same rapidity as Germany or France. Between these last two countries there has been for several years, and there is still, a sort of race on this question of mobilization. Our generals are obliged to count the days and almost the hours which a general mobilization would require; our railway officers have had to make every preparation for such an emergency. Russia is far behind in this respect; she is incapable of mobilizing her army with great rapidity. We must, therefore, much as we may admire her defensive powers, consider that she cannot conduct an offensive war against Germany with great advantage. Germany and Austria are thoroughly prepared for such an aggression; they could bring immediately enormous forces against an invading Russian army. These possibilities of war are, alas! always in our minds, though we always speak of peace. For the present there is a sort of lull in our European politics; but at any moment questions may arise which would be difficult to solve. "Si vis pacem, para bellum." Russia, if she wishes to follow this dictum, has two difficult tasks: she must reorganize her administration, which is too corrupt; she must complete her network of railways.

OLD MASTERS AT THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, January, 1892.

SHORTLY before the opening of the winter exhibition in Burlington House, I was talking to a Royal Academician, and I asked him what would be done when the supply of old masters in the country gives out. For the Royal Academy's "winter atonement," as it is jocularly called, is always as delightful as the summer show is deplorable, and, this year's being the twenty-third, it does not seem possible that private picture collections can stand the annual drain much longer. But they would just begin exhibiting them all over again, was the R.A.'s answer, since nobody really remembered them from one year to another.

However, the supply is not yet quite exhausted. It is true that some of the canvases included in the present collection have been seen in comparatively recent years. The R.A. notwithstanding, there has not been time for everybody to forget Raphael's large "Crucifixion," with its Perugino-like skipping angels and Tuscan background, originally painted for the Gavari Chapel at San Domenico, Città di Castello, and now hung again, apparently for the convenience of its latest owner, the Earl of Dudley, who prefers horses to art, and who seems to be using the Royal Academy as a show-room for the Italian work he is anxious to sell. Then there is the little "Listener," by Nicholas Maes, from Buckingham Palace, which reappears periodically; and

there are several others pleasantly recognized as old friends.

Still, on the whole, the exhibition is far from being a mere repetition. In general interest it holds its own with those that have preceded it. The canvases to be passed unnoticed are in as marked a minority as will be those worth stopping for among the mediocrities destined to cover the same walls in a few months to come. On the other hand, there is nothing of supreme importance, like the Velasquez and Rembrandt series which have made previous winter shows so memorable. No great treasures have been suddenly unearthed for the benefit of the nation; no one man is specially represented, as Frank Holl and Alfred Stevens have been on two different occasions; no one school takes preëminence, unless, indeed, it be the British. In the Italian, German, Dutch, and Flemish sections—the Spaniards are omitted entirely—there is as high an average of excellence as in many a permanent exhibition of fame, but not an individual master who cannot be studied to better advantage in the National Gallery. In the British, however, are some of the most distinguished examples of the most distinguished painters.

The oftener one sees the work of the primitives, the more one is convinced that a picture gallery is the last place to see it in. The Earl of Dudley, whose collection is rich in the early Italians, has sent, for the inspection of possible purchasers, his Giottos and Fra Angelicos, his Crivellis and Botticellis, his Peruginos and Francias, which are to bring him so many horses in exchange. All are curious and interesting and good of their kind; but as they are but mere parts of a large decorative whole, we must confess, were we only honest, that, away from the altar screen or cloister wall for which they were designed, half their artistic charm and all their beauty of appropriateness are lost. Shown in fragments, their conventionality is over-aggressive, so that where there is great strength of character in types or loveliness of color in any one canvas, it at once asserts itself and stands out in striking relief among the others, as does a wonderful "Virgin and Child and Angels" by Piero della Francesca. The faces of the angels are those you still see among many of the youths in Italian monastery or seminary, the color of the crimson draperies against a neutral gray background is a pleasure in itself. The later Italians are represented either but indifferently well or else not at all, except Titian and Tintoretto, who lend to one side of a large room something of the glory of the Doge's Palace in Venice, though the naked female figure in the former's "Omnia Vanitas" forces upon one a not altogether favorable comparison with that perfect Venus by Velasquez which hung in almost exactly the same place two years ago, and though Tintoretto has adorned church and palace with many a nobler composition than his "Apollo and Marsyas." It is really his two Senators, quiet and dignified, and full of character, in their gorgeous crimson robes of office, which duly uphold the greatness of the great Venetians, and serve as reminder, were one necessary, that, as colorists and portrait-painters, Reynolds and Romney, who make such a strong showing on the opposite wall, are not supreme.

To those who have been to many winter exhibitions at the Royal Academy, the Germans and Flemings and Dutchmen must be a disappointment. Their art has been so consummately illustrated in previous years that the absence of masterpieces by them seems but the more conspicuous. The few primitives are successful enough. The Earl of Dudley has come to the fore again with a little "Celebration of High Mass," by Van Eyck, full of his careful study of faces and detail; and the Queen has contributed a large "Adoration of the Magi," by Lucas van Leyden. But it is not among the primitives one looks for the highest expression of Dutch and Flemish and German art; and of the masters of a later age there is no epoch-making work, no picture or portrait of more than usual note. The painters of small cabinet pictures suffer as much from being seen in a large gallery as the earlier decorators of church and monastery. When their canvases are hung together, one can but kill the other; and even if they are not so overcrowded here as in those endless cabinets of Dresden or Vienna, many are overlooked which, seen alone, might make quite a different and striking impression. As it is, but two, a little interior by Peter de Hooghe, and another version of his well-known model by Vermeer of Delft, maintain their proper distinction. It is no wonder that the occasional painter to-day who can afford to keep his work out of the public market, objects to sending it to the average picture show, and prefers electric light and red hangings to the test of contrast with other and perhaps better things. One fine but very small head of a man, by Rembrandt, the hanging committee, with their usual discrimination, have skied, so that it virtually cannot be seen; while the other Rembrandt, which must always have been somewhat commonplace, looks as if the restorer had been tampering with it of late. There is a fairly good Franz Hals, the portrait of a blonde man, with slightly insipid face, in black and holding his yellow gloves carelessly in one hand, but it is not quite up to the standard of the National Gallery portrait. And when I say that Van Dyck and Rubens are seen in their most pot-boiling and least artistic moods—Rubens on one canvas of the painted-photograph species, collaborating with Snyders to show how marvellously well both could do what no artist ought ever to attempt—I have said enough to make it clear that this division is the least satisfactory of all.

It seems as if special care must have been devoted to the selection of British work. Certainly, the assortment of those later "deceased British masters," as the catalogue calls them, who ought to be allowed to die a speedy and natural death, is not so lavish as of yore, while the examples of the true masters are of more than ordinary merit. Gainsborough, for instance, almost overshadows his greater contemporaries. The wide range of his powers is shown in the equal excellence, though not charm, of his Mrs. Portman, a large, elderly lady, in rather shapeless skirts, whose face, however, with none of its plainness or the signs of age toned down, is one of the strongest he ever painted, and of his beautiful Mrs. Billington, young and fair, her head, with its mass of golden hair, set against one of his most effective tapestry-like backgrounds. Actresses, from Nell Gwynn to Ivette Guilbert, have always inspired portrait-painters, and if the "Mrs. Billington" is the most charming Gainsborough here, there is no more beautiful Romney than the "Mrs. Jordan," as *Peggy* in "The Country Girl," which has been engraved so often that it is one of the best-known of his pictures. There are other Gainsboroughs, distinguished men and women of his time; and other Romneys, prettily affected beauties posing in front of wide landscapes or rich masses of foliage; and there are strong Sir Joshuas—the little girls from whom painters of our generation have borrowed all the sentiment and none of the technique; the portrait of Mrs. Seaforth and her child, glowing with a golden light which would not be unworthy of Titian.

But when all is said, the interest centres about the comparatively few landscapes. I do not mean the Turners, which vary from his strange messes of color, perhaps good once, before they faded, now but grotesque parodies, to his stately classical compositions and his large, genuinely powerful seas. Nor do I mean the landscapes of Richard Wilson, an R.A. in his day, who to the classicism of Poussin and Claude added a decided individuality—that is to say, a style of his own which makes his work always worth looking at. Both belonged to the old conventional school, of which they were among the most distinguished exponents. But they can have no more lasting influence on the landscape-painters of future generations than Giotto and Cimabue have on the portrait-painters of to-day. The men who broke away from the old traditions and infused new life into landscape-painting, who endeavored to paint Nature as they saw her, and not according to certain accepted formulas, were Constable and Bonington, and, after them, Crome and Cotman and the Norwich group, never adequately recognized until after their death. There is but little of their work, but that little, to the artist, is of as much value as, if not more than, anything in the collection. The one fine Constable has for subject the opening of Waterloo Bridge in June, 1817, with Whitehall Stairs in the foreground; and the large distance which Constable always loved, and always treated with such masterly effect, shows the great sweep of the Thames from Charing Cross to the Temple, with the dome of St. Paul's rising still further beyond. The foreground suffers somewhat from that curious way he had of flecking his canvas with white, which, carried to excess, threatened to degenerate into spottiness, as indeed it did with his too careful imitators—a fact well illustrated by the large and vigorous outdoor sketch of Müller's, hanging in another room, which at a glance might pass for a poor Constable. How little the movement, of which Müller's work was the result, was appreciated at first, receives new proof in the indignant inscription which, the catalogue explains, is written on the back of this sketch and signed with Müller's initials: "Left as a sketch for some fool to *finish* and ruin."

I have seen much better examples of Bonington and Crome at other times and elsewhere, but nothing to excel the one large canvas by Cotman, a stretch of hilly country, with here and there a windmill rising against a brilliant sunset, put in with the utmost simplicity, but with the unerring truth of the master who knows how to see for himself and to record his impressions in his own way. It was but in the natural order of things that, in a country like England, painters who have had the widest influence, not on mere provincial academies, but on the art of the whole world, who were the admitted forerunners of the Barbizon school, and the creators of modern landscape-painting, should have received none of the honors that it was in the power of their fellow-artists or the nation to bestow upon them. I know that Constable was made an Academician, but he was not allowed to enjoy his official rank in peace, while the most popular and prejudiced so-called art critic that England has yet produced, has wasted pages and chapters of his rhetoric in the effort to damn him to all eternity—an effort as unsuc-

cessful, however, as all of Mr. Ruskin's technical criticism. Bonington (it may be said because he was still too young when he died, though youth did not stand in the way of a characterless sentimentalist like Mr. Frank Dicksee), Müller, Crome, Cotman (and in their case there is no possible excuse) never shared the privileges of the Royal Academy, though, at the time they lived and worked, obscure painters, now forgotten, were thought qualified to write the magical (that is, magical with the public) initials R. A. after their names. But mediocrity and respectability have always, with some very notable exceptions, been the rule in the Academy. And if, as this exhibition reminds one, an unquestionably mediocre artist like Morland was sometimes left in the same distinguished outer darkness as Crome and Cotman, it was simply because socially he was found wanting. He was usually sottishly drunk.

A series of the real British water colors is again included, but it is not so complete as last year's collection. Cotman, in this department also, maintains his supremacy: he understood the art, and his sketches of landscape and architecture are crisp, and strong, and simple. De Wint, too, when he was content not to elaborate all art out of his work, was vigorous in his out-door impressions. And often Turner's sketches are delightful as notes of strong pure color. Of such work at its very best, too many examples cannot be shown. But nothing can redeem from utter dreariness the lifeless studies of Prout and the labored sentimentalities of William Hunt. It were charity to consign them to the bonfire or to Mr. Orrock, their prophet. N. N.

Correspondence.

KIRK'S ALLIBONE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I must ask permission to occupy a little of your space with some comments on your recent criticism of my 'Supplement to Allibone's Dictionary.' You decline to express an opinion in regard to the general accuracy of the work, and your notice deals chiefly with its defects. The former point I leave to the test of use and time, and to the candid judgment of those who can appreciate the difficulties of the task. But I venture to call in question the correctness of some of your strictures, and the importance of them all as affecting the ultimate verdict.

You say that I have made no mention of "E. Walford, the author of a Life of Bayard." This statement, short as it is, involves three errors: (1.) Walford was not the author, but the translator, or more probably the editor of the translation—for his preface leaves the matter in doubt—of the little book referred to. (2.) This "E. Walford" is Edward Walford, a well-known miscellaneous writer, and, far from having made no mention of him, I have given him half a column, in continuation of a column given to him by Allibone. (3.) The book was published in 1867, and as Allibone brought down his entries under the later letters of the alphabet to 1870, the omission, such as it is, was not mine, but his.

Another writer whom you say I have not mentioned is "E. W. Davies, a novelist." This is a mistake. I have mentioned him by his full name, Edgar William Davies. You further say that I have made no mention of "William Barnett Phillips, who was an author so early as 1867." This is correct; but his authorship seems to have ended as well as begun in that year, which, under the letter P, does not fall within the period covered by the 'Supplement,' and I had the less occasion to mention it that it was duly recorded by Allibone.

You say also that I have made no mention of "A. A. Graham, who wrote not only a history of Indiana (1876, 750 pp.), but also ten large histories of counties in Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois." This is not quite correct, as I have mentioned him under the name of a writer with whom he collaborated in the production of some county histories. For the rest, I can only plead that I have been the victim of a conspiracy of silence in regard to this eminent and voluminous author. There is no record of his achievements in any catalogue or other bibliographical work known to me, nor are they to be found in any collection to which I have had access, or about which I have been able to obtain information. They are not in the Public Library of Cincinnati, of Cleveland, or of Indianapolis, where one might especially expect to find them; nor in the library of the British Museum, for which particular pains are taken to collect books of this description; nor, as I am informed, in the Library of Congress, to which, if copyrighted, the law would have required them to be sent. I do not for a moment question their existence, but the knowledge of them, if not strictly a private possession, is at least one from which I have been debarred.

Of actual blunders or *mis*statements in my book you have detected some half-a-dozen. Three of these are wrong dates—slips of the pen or of the types, such as occasionally occur even in the catalogue of the library of the British Museum. The others—like some of a more serious nature than any which you have pointed out—originated with the authorities, generally trustworthy, on which I relied. I will cite, in exemplification, one of the instances you give: "In the case of Elizabeth and 'Emily' Bellamy, one author is made into two." 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography' ascribes to "Emily" the two books, published under a pseudonym which I accordingly entered under that name. The title-page of the other book is entered in the 'American Catalogue' and in other catalogues under the name of "Elizabeth," with no indication that she was the author of the former works, published many years earlier. There were too many pitfalls of this kind to allow of the hope that I had avoided them all.

But your indictment is founded mainly on my sins of omission—failure to give biographical data respecting some not very conspicuous or prolific writers (you might have enlarged the list indefinitely)—failure to detect as pseudonyms several names which you say are obviously such, but all of which, with one exception, are well-known family names; failure to mention the change of name by marriage in the case of certain ladies whose names I have given as they appear on the title-pages of their books. I regret all the faults of my work, but these, I fancy, will be thought by most persons to merit but light penance. The maxim *de minimis* has evidently, however, no place in your rulings, for it is on such evidence that you charge me with having shown "want of care" and with having been "decidedly remiss" in the execution of a task on which I expended several years of strenuous and conscientious labor. The mistakes and oversights, real and imaginary, all of them comparatively trivial, which you have enumerated do not amount to one-fiftieth of one per cent. in the whole number of my statements—biographical and bibliographical. On the other hand, I have pointed out errors amounting to several per cent. in your statements—errors, not of omission, but of commission; errors occurring, not incidentally in a work filled with innumerable details, and designed simply to communicate information, but in a couple of paragraphs, directed solely to the exposure of my ignorance and incompetence.

It is natural, perhaps, that there should be more joy in the critical soul over the one statement that can be corrected than over the ninety-and-nine just statements that need no correction; but, in order that this sentiment should be one of full serenity, the critic, one would think, should himself be impeccable. —Very respectfully yours,

John Foster Kirk.

Philadelphia, February 13, 1892.

[We will not enforce against Mr. Kirk our general rule not to print rejoinders to our reviews. As we made no pretence to an *exhaustive* examination of his two volumes, he should not plume himself on the fact that the errors we pointed out "do not amount to one-fiftieth of one per cent. in the whole number" of his statements. Each critic will be likely to test such a work on one or two lines with which he is most familiar. We took care to say that while we had noticed "several" errors, "we should hesitate to say that they were numerous in proportion to the total number of statements." We regret that Mr. Kirk should attribute to our remarks a severity which was not intended: examination of the context of the phrases quoted will relieve us of the imputation. We did not say that the editor was guilty of "want of care" or of having been "decidedly remiss" with reference to the work as a whole, but in two particulars only. We maintain that our criticism here was justified.

We cannot allow that our review indicated inability to "appreciate the difficulties of the task," or that it "dealt chiefly with the defects" of the work. We will say now, however, that a more thorough, though limited, examination of the 'Supplement' makes us quite ready to believe that, as Mr. Kirk says, he has discovered errors "of a more serious nature than any which we have pointed out." He lays the blame of these errors on his "authorities"—that is, previous compilers—which leads us to say that, while using all works of the sort for what they are worth, he ought not to have relied upon them. The alternative to doing this was to base his statements on contemporary reviews and advertisements. We have now tested the work by comparing its entries with the record of the American books published during the year 1859 and the early part of 1860, in so far as these were mentioned in some of the magazines of the day. Of books so mentioned (but a small proportion, of course, of all published) the following escaped the attention of Messrs. Allibone and Kirk: J. S. C. Abbott, 'South and North' (New York, 1860); Histories of Austria, Russia, and Italy, three vols., large 8vo (New York, 1859-'60); J. W. Alexander, 'Letters' (New

York, 1860, two vols.); Samuel Batchelder, jr., 'Poetry of Bells' (Boston, 1859); Joseph Belcher, 'Historical Sketches of Hymns' (Philadelphia, 1859); George Bishop, 'Every Woman Her Own Lawyer' (New York, 1859); R. B. Carroll, 'History of the United States' (Charleston, 1859, 309 pp.), interesting as an attempt to provide a narrative for Southern readers free from the perversions, respecting slavery, universal in Northern publications; G. W. P. Custis, 'Recollections of Washington' (New York, 1860, 644 pp.); S. S. Cutting, 'Historical Vindications' (Boston, 1859); F. M. Dimmick, 'Anna Clayton,' a religious novel (Philadelphia, 1859); D. S. Durrie, 'Steele Genealogy' (Albany, 1859); J. M. Field, 'Major Thorpe' (New York, 1859); C. F. Fairfield, 'Aguecheek,' a book of foreign travel (Boston, 1859); Eliza Lee Follen, 'Home Dramas' (Boston, 1859, 441 pp.); H. C. Goodwin, 'Pioneer History' (New York, 1859, 456 pp.); H. Harbaugh, 'Poems' (Philadelphia, 1859); A. M. Hillside, 'Geology' (Philadelphia, 1859); J. H. Ingraham, 'The Pillar of Fire' (New York, 1859), as well as 'The Throne of David' (Philadelphia, 1860)—Bible novels which enjoyed enormous popularity and are still sold—and 'The Sunny South,' edited by the same hand (Philadelphia, 1859); Meredith Jones, 'Boys' Book of Modern Travel' (New York, 1859); P. R. Leatherman, 'Moral Science,' a volume of pro-slavery ethics (Philadelphia, 1859); J. McLennan, 'Fisher's River' (1859); Elizabeth Sara Sheppard, 'Almost a Heroine' (Boston, 1859); George H. Derby, the well-known humorist, entered under pseudonym only, while "Doesticks," another representative of American humor ('Witches of New York,' N. Y., 1859, and 'Elephant Club') is entirely ignored; H. N. Day, 'Art of Elocution,' 384 pp.; George S. Fisher, 'Law of the Territories,' reviewed at length in the *Atlantic* (Philadelphia, 1860); J. C. Mangan, 'Poems,' recently the subject of a long magazine article (New York, 1859); S. B. Beckett, 'Hester,' a poem, also reviewed in *Atlantic* (1860). "Walter Aimwell" is not recognized as a pseudonym of Walter Simonds, and only one out of a series of six books published by him in 1859 and earlier is given.

Here are books in almost all branches of literature; but if we test the 'Dictionary' by a shelf of books of one kind only, we shall notice an equal number of omissions. Thus, of Massachusetts local histories no mention is made of 'Abington,' by D. Hobart, 1866; 'Boxford,' by S. Perley, 1880; 'Bradford,' by J. D. Kingsbury, 1883; 'Brookline,' by H. F. Woods, 1874; 'Gardner,' by W. D. Herrick, 1878; 'Great Barrington,' by C. J. Taylor, 1882; 'Lee,' by C. M. Hyde, 1878; 'Lexington,' by C. Hudson, 1868. The reader will observe that this list includes less than half the alphabet of one State only.

Mr. Kirk says that our statement concerning E. Walford "involves three errors," and alleges that "This E. Walford is Edward Walford, a well-known miscellaneous writer." In criticising the book referred to, the *Athenæum's* critic made the same assumption as Mr. Kirk, whereon the "well-known miscellaneous writer" pointed out that this E. Walford was *not* he. As to A. A. Graham, Mr. Kirk will find full bibliographic details in the annual report of the American Historical Association for 1889. The report was not published in season for Mr. Kirk to use it, but the character and size of the works named would justify a librarian in expecting to find mention of them in Mr. Kirk's 'Dictionary,' for, notwithstanding the maxim *de minimis*, it is for information concerning obscure authors that we largely prize a dictionary of this class.—Ed. Nation.]

SCIENCE IN AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to make a few additions to your remarks relating to Mr. Stille's letter in your issue of February 11 on "Science in America." In addition to the courses mentioned in Prof. Cajori's report, Clark University offers several courses in modern geometry, in which, in connection with lectures, the treatises of Von Staudt, Reye, Cremona, and Klein (lecture notes) are used. Courses are also given in the less generally treated subjects of non-Euclidian and enumerative geometry. Ten years ago the writer obtained his first introduction to the fascinating subject of projective geometry in a sophomore course at Harvard, given by Prof. Byerly, which now, unfortunately, seems to have disappeared. At Harvard, also, a very rich course in the theory of functions, according to Cauchy, Riemann, and Weierstrass, was introduced some six years ago, and came to stay. I hardly need state that the same subject, now recognized as the backbone of all that part of mathematics having to do with the infinitesimal analysis, finds ample representation (and is, as you say, *really* studied) at Clark University, as well as are its natural successors, the theories of elliptic and Abelian functions. In fact, as far as concerns the theory of functions, it seems to me that things are not so bad in this country as your correspondent would have us infer, as most of the colleges making any pretensions to advanced work now offer courses in the subject.

On the other hand, it seems to call for remark that a subject which has for the last twenty-five years occupied the attention of some of the keenest mathematical minds of the Continent—the theory of the functions defined by linear differential equations—has hardly received notice in our universities; and the number of the latter at which courses are given on the subject may be easily counted on the fingers of one hand, the thumb being barred. The fact that no book has appeared in this country treating of a subject (as alleged by your correspondent for projective geometry), is not always a fair criterion of the attention given a subject, since in the case of the subject just mentioned a thick volume has been published by Prof. Craig of Johns Hopkins, with a second volume promised.

Your correspondent asks how many readers of the *Nation* know anything of the work of Steiner. I should like to add: "Nay, more, how many know anything of Gauss?" But I submit that this is too much. We cannot ask the American public to bother itself about Steiner and Gauss, or even Newton, when it has all it can do to keep itself informed about the wonderful discoveries that Edison is probably going to make. Helmholtz is still alive, but his name is seldom in the papers. If I should speak of Thomson, I should feel safer in stating that I meant Sir William, and not "Thomson-Houston." After all, if Thomson's name is not quite unfamiliar, it is probably because of his inventions in regard to cable telegraphy and his electrical measuring instruments rather than because of his being a great physicist.

In this connection and in conclusion, let me quote the following as characteristically American. A few weeks ago one of the electrical journals cited, as showing the "tremendous advance of electrical science in the last few years," the statement of a "prominent inventor" that twenty years ago he prided himself on possessing the largest electrical library in the country, and that it consisted of five volumes. He now finds in the list of works sold by the journal in question two hundred and fifty odd. Shade of Faraday! Twenty years ago Maxwell's greatest paper had been published seven years, and Faraday, Ampère, Gauss, Poisson, and Green had lived, worked, and died. And yet a "prominent inventor" could raise only five books on electricity, and we are led to infer that the greater part of our knowledge of electricity has come since then! How long shall this country confuse "prominent inventors" with men of science?—Very truly yours,

Arthur G. Webster.

Worcester, Mass., February 13, 1892.

CHRISTIANITY, PRIMITIVE AND MODERN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is much truth in your article on "Modern Church Membership" in the *Nation*, February 4, which may well be heeded by modern Christians; but you miss, as you naturally would from your philosophical point of view, the chief characteristic of the Christian Church, which, if understood, would explain the matter of which you write.

The Church, in the esteem of the primitive Christians, was not an association of godly men uniting for good works. It was the mystical body of the Lord Jesus Christ, possessing, through the gift of the Holy Spirit, divine powers for the regeneration of human nature, the redemption of souls from sin, the uplifting of the human race by imparting the life of Christ to those who were made members of the body. Thus the special work of the Church was to seek for sinners to bring them to repentance, to rescue those who were lost, to inject into the corrupted shell of paganism the life of the Son of God, and raise to a new existence that which was "dead in trespasses and sins."

As you well say, the receiving of such a repentant sinner as you describe was the usual work of the Church, and it is now frequently. There would be no question regarding it, were it not for the fact that the philosophical view of religion which you take has prevailed among many who are called Christians, depriving them of ability to discern that Christ Jesus is the power of the Church through the working of the Holy Spirit. It is safe to say that this philosophic view will never have any large influence in improving the world, for it never has had hitherto, and never possessed life enough to continue its existence except as it assumed the appearance and ideas of the

Christian Church without having its inner power.

The contrast between the futility of Seneca's philosophy and the divine life of the Christian Church, redeeming the world, is shown strongly in Archdeacon Farrar's 'Darkness and Dawn.' One can scarcely read that story without recognizing the source of the power by which Christ's Church prevailed over the degraded humanity of the Roman Empire and lifted it up to light and health. In the present age, when the forces of the world and the evil elements accompanying our boasted civilization and the philosophical indifference which sets itself above the idea of sharing the warmth of souls fired by the spirit of God, are bringing back many of the conditions which were in pagan Rome in the first century of our era, we can certainly answer your query by declaring that the restoration of primitive Christianity is desirable, and it is possible if we maintain the Apostolic conception of the Church of Christ.—Yours, J. H. WATSON.

[Our correspondent should have noticed that we wrote as commentators, not advocates; and hence that any "view" he is pleased to attribute to us is quite gratuitous.—ED. NATION.]

AUGHT AND NAUGHT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I believe that most Americans who will take the pains to bring back to mind the days of their childhood, will remember that they and their companions called the arithmetical *0* "aught," and that their teacher did the same when she "wasn't thinking," or did not guard herself against the danger by using "cipher" or "zero" instead of the troublesome English word. A visit to almost any schoolroom, East or West, will reveal the fact that it is now as it used to be. How it is in England I do not know, and should be glad to learn.

The explanation of this interesting phenomenon occurred to me some time ago. It is a case of improper analysis of sentence amalgamation. When a teacher first tells her little ones, "This is a naught, this is a two," etc., or when she says, "Now place a naught after the seven," she, of course, says *ənɔt*, just as she pronounces "an eight" *ənеit;* and as the child analyzes the latter he analyzes the former, and reads 8–5–0 as "eight, five, aught." The same thing has happened, as is well known, in other words, notably in *an adder* from *a nadder;* cf. also *apron*, *auger*, *umpire*, etc.

In consideration of the fact that *0* is called "aught" about ninety-nine times to once "naught," is it not about time to "recognize" usage in this case too? GEORGE HEMPL.

ANN ARBOR, MICH., February 9, 1892.

[We can supply at least one classical use of *aught* which would have entitled the word to a place in Dr. Murray's Dictionary. In the first series of the 'Biglow Papers' Lowell wrote:

"Wy, into Bellers's we notched the votes down on three sticks,—
'Twuz Birdofredum *one*, Cass *aught*, an' Taylor *twenty six*."

—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. have nearly ready 'Selections from Lucian,' translated by Emily James Smith; 'Roweny in Boston,' by Maria Louise Pool; 'That Angelic Woman,' by James M. Ludlow; 'In the Vestibule Limited,' by Brander Matthews; 'Lord Palmerston,' by the Marquis of Lorne; and 'Concerning All of Us,' selections from Mr. T. W. Higginson's periodic contributions to the *Bazar*, uniform with the little volumes made up from Curtis, Warner, and Howells.

Mr. John Fiske's 'Discovery of America'; 'Personality,' by the Rev. S. R. Fuller; and 'The Rescue of the Old Place,' by Mrs. Mary Caroline Robbins, are in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Little, Brown & Co. will publish during the spring 'A Half Century of Conflict,' the final volume in Francis Parkman's "French and English in North America."

J. B. Lippincott Co. will soon issue "The Tempest," the ninth volume in Mr. Horace Howard Furness's Variorum Edition of Shakspere; 'The Idealist,' by Henry T. King; and 'Typewriting and Business Correspondence,' by O. R. Palmer.

A Life of Mr. Spurgeon, by the Rev. George C. Lorimer, is in preparation. It will be published in Boston by James H. Earle.

Charles L. Webster & Co. announce 'The American Claimant,' a new novel by Mark Twain; 'Selected Poems by Walt Whitman,' edited by Arthur Stedman; and 'Life is Worth Living,' by Count Tolstoi.

P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia, are about to bring out a monograph on 'Physical Education,' by Frederick Treves.

A work on the 'Hygienic Treatment of Consumption,' by Dr. M. L. Holbrook, will bear the imprint of the firm of which he is the senior partner.

The most elaborate of Browning publications yet recorded is 'The Browning Cyclopædia. A Guide to the Study of the Works of Robert Browning, with Copious Explanatory Notes and References on all Difficult Passages,' by Edward Berdoe (Macmillan). The author had previously signalized his devotion to the poet by a volume of exposition and comment, and prepared us to find very thorough work in this more comprehensive labor, for which he thinks only his scientific training would have sufficed. He aims to give "an exposition of the leading ideas of every poem, its keynote, the sources—historical, legendary, or fanciful—to which the poem was due, and a glossary of every difficult word or allusion which might obscure the sense to such readers as had short memories or scanty reading." This was truly an herculean task, and Dr. Berdoe fitted himself for it by attending "nearly every meeting of the Browning Society," reading all papers and books on Browning, and obtaining aid from obliging students of the subject. The result is nearly 600 pages of closely printed matter, practically the annotator's work, though he has incorporated, by permission, the special notes of Prof. Sonnenschein on "Sordello," and acknowledges similar obligation to a few other co-laborers. Here is hived the honey that the Browning societies seek for; and now that every one who will can find at once both the ideas of the poet and all his allusions explained, is there anything more to be desired? A scant dozen "unsolved difficulties," duly advertised, alone are left, if we may trust the author. The use of this cyclopædia to the twentieth century is undeniable; and yet the very bigness of it shows the size of the obstacle that Browning's fame must then overcome.

To most English readers 'Italian Explorers in Africa' (F. H. Revell Co.), by Sofia Bompiani, will open a new chapter in recent African travel, in which are to be found numerous examples of devotion to science and the welfare of mankind, as well as romantic adventures. The Italians have not been so successful in their discoveries or in the extent of their journeys as the English, but this is owing rather to the extraordinary difficulty of the task tacitly assigned them by Europe than to any lack of courage or enterprise. Their work has been to explore and open up to commerce Abyssinia and the country of the Galla and Somali, peoples who resist the progress of the traveller with far greater determination and success than the weaker negroid races. The most widely known explorers, however, are not those who have been engaged in this region, but Romolo Gessi and Count Pietro di Brazza. The former, the ablest of Gordon's lieutenants, besides being the first European to circumnavigate Lake Albert, showed great ability as governor of one of the provinces of the Sudan, whose infesting horde of slave-traders he utterly destroyed in a series of brilliant campaigns. Di Brazza, beginning his explorations on the west coast as a French naval officer in 1874, has acquired for his adopted country a large territory to the north of the lower Congo. It is rather surprising to find that but two or three Italians have travelled in Tripoli and the Libyan Desert, a region whose proximity to Italy would seem to have especially induced exploration by them. Madame Bompiani writes easily and entertainingly, but naturally treats her subject in a very superficial manner, being obliged to compress the accounts of more than twenty travellers into a compass of two hundred pages. A series of interesting portraits accompany the sketches, but the book contains neither map nor index.

'Missionaries in China,' by Alexander Michie (London: E. Stanford), is a valuable and suggestive discussion of one of the most perplexing problems confronting the Christian world. The writer, who has lived for many years in various parts of the country, endeavors to explain the causes of the universal detestation of missionaries by a people who are completely tolerant of two great foreign religions, Mohammedanism and Buddhism. These causes he divides into the political and the religious, and closes with an attempt to suggest a *modus vivendi*. Chief among the former are the fact that the recognition of the missionaries was forced upon China, for which reason they are inseparably associated with the humiliation of the empire; an explicable race hatred; and the superstitious belief among all classes that the missionaries bewitch the people, their houses and grounds, and are kidnappers of children. The religious causes are the moral condition of the Chinese, which differs radically from that of any other non-Christian race, and the aggressive manner with which Christianity has been presented. Mr. Michie accuses the missionaries (with, of course, many noble exceptions) of being either ignorant or indifferent to what is good in Chinese ethics. The unrestricted circulation of the Bible he believes also to be a real hindrance, since in its entirety it "is not a proper book to be indiscriminately read by people quite unprepared for its teachings and out of sympathy with its spirit." He adds that "the foulest attacks made against Christianity by the Chinese *literati* are loaded to the muzzle with missiles from the Bible." In his opinion, there is apparently little hope of any change of feeling for a generation at least. The task would be less difficult, however, if the missionaries would give up their foreign protection and permit the official supervision of their missionary establishments. If this were done, the Government would, undoubtedly,

vigorously suppress all such inflammatory placards and calumnious brochures as preceded and fomented the recent riots.

'Log of a Japanese Journey, from the Province of Tosa to the Capital,' is the title in English of a charming unpaged booklet by Flora Best Harris. Stitched, bound, and illustrated in Japanese style, its outward dress comports with its contents. The Tosa Niki, or diary of Tsurayaki, one of the imperial governors sent out from Kioto by the Mikado to take charge of the province of Tosa, was written in the tenth century, and is a classic. It is simply a pretty word-picture of coast, land and sea. Daintily and carefully the translator has rendered into English this white "plum flower" of Oriental literature, and well deserves thanks for her task. Both prose and poetry are happily presented, and the appropriate illustrations are by a native artist, Toshio Aoki. The charming little nothing, which has held its place in Japanese literature by virtue of its style alone, is a fresh illustration and lesson to young writers of the worth of form. Flood & Vincent, Meadville, Pa., are the publishers.

'Shepp's Photographs of the World' (New York: Frank Hegger) is a handsome volume designed to illustrate a tour of the globe, going eastward from Ireland and ending at the Capitol at Washington. The series is well selected, with a fair degree of freshness, is printed pretty evenly in heliotype from plates of uniform size, and has a few lines of guide-book explanation at the foot of each view. This text must not be scrutinized too closely in detail, either for what it says or what it omits to say—*e. g.*, the overthrow of the Vendôme Column is not mentioned, and the so-called Aztec calendar-stone, here rightly shown in the *patio* of the National Museum in the City of Mexico, is said to stand "at the foot of the left tower of the Cathedral." The views, too, are occasionally not the most recent in cases where this is of some consequence, as in that of Athens, and one cannot praise the choice or execution of the few representations of painting and statuary. But, all deductions made, this is an attractive book for the centre-table, and contains some souvenir for almost every tourist.

Mr. Huish's 'Year's Art' (London: J. S. Virtue & Co.) makes its regular and welcome appearance for 1892. Besides its varied information concerning British and, indeed, Anglo-Saxon art bodies and exhibitions, and its pictorial memoranda of the latter, it continues its invaluable series of portraits of artists with those of the members of the Royal Institute of Painters in Water Colors. Mr. E. A. Abbey is one of the number, and amid the new matter is to be remarked the instructions to artists respecting our new Copyright Law, together with information in regard to the art exhibition at the coming World's Fair. Such captions as the Art Sales of 1891, Engravings Published in 1891, List of Fine Art Dealers, and Directory of Artists, speak for themselves.

'Hazell's Annual for 1892' is a seventh appearance of this useful book of reference, which has a character quite its own, taking its color from the year as the chameleon from the surface to which it adheres. The complexion of 1891 was social even more than political, and hence one finds the labor agitator and reformer prominent among the biographies of new men —for example, John Burns, who, it appears, was born in 1858. The story of the dock strikers is told under the head of Labor, which fills nearly ten closely printed pages. Trade and Trade Unions take up but little less space. Continuity between one edition and the next of this Annual is maintained by back references, and the lack of a table of contents (or of classes) as a guide even to the alphabetic arrangement is partly supplied by cross references. The volume must be examined and studied to be appreciated.

The appearance of so many manuals of heraldry as we have noticed in the past three years proves the existence of many students of the art. To them we can recommend Mr. F. Edward Hulme's 'History, Principles, and Practice of Heraldry' (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan), as containing one pleasant variation from its recent predecessors. Mr. Hulme has incorporated herein many quaint extracts from the early writers, and has thus enlivened what is usually a very dry topic. It is hardly necessary to say that there are no possible novelties in the matter itself, unless some recognized government shall sanction a new color or a new class of devices. Every good manual must repeat the old rules and definitions, and each publisher must seek for customers only by offering new and pertinent illustrations.

Mr. George Ashton Black contributes to the Political Science Series of Columbia College an essay entitled "The History of Municipal Ownership of Land on Manhattan Island, to the Beginning of Sales by the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund in 1844." The subject is of rather limited interest, but this essay will no doubt be of assistance to students of our local antiquities. It might have been made of very great value to conveyancers, but, owing to the omission of particulars which they require, it seems likely to be of little service to them. Incidentally, some of the financial history of the city is given, and copies of certain rare maps are furnished in the appendix.

A new Boston venture in the shape of a periodical is set down for appearance on March 5, and on every succeeding Saturday thereafter: *Two Tales* is the self-revealing name of it, and No. 1 promises a short story, "Juliza," by Mary E. Wilkins, and "Halifax Borough," by A. C. Gordon. It will be seen that for ten cents the Sunday reading is assured, and it will probably be of good quality, to judge from the list of well-known writers interested in the project. Considering the amount of fiction which the better class of monthly magazines cannot accommodate, *Two Tales* does not seem likely to perish of inanition.

The library of Cornell University contemplates a catalogue of the May Anti-Slavery Collection, now embracing nearly 4,000 titles of books and pamphlets. In the December *Bulletin* of the library a list is given of documents, chiefly society reports, which it is desired to procure by gift or purchase before beginning the catalogue.

We have received from Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, the third instalment of Dr. H. Kiepert's special map of Asia Minor on the large scale of 1:250,000, which is now completed. A sheet showing the political administrative divisions of the part of the country comprised in the map accompanies the last of the plates. The authority and utility of this great labor need no words from us.

—The latest issue of Peacock's novels is 'Nightmare Abbey' (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan). It is provided with an excellent portrait of Peacock at the age of seventy-two. This is the novel which is supposed to have a special interest as containing a sketch of Shelley in the character of "Scythrop," and it appears that Shelley himself supposed that this character was studied from him; but, as the editor remarks, it is only so far as "Scythrop" embodies the traits of the sanguine enthusiast, and exhibits sensitiveness to real or imaginary unkindness, that the character seems indebted to Peacock's personal observations of the poet. Other eminent men have a place in the volume, notably Coleridge, who had already appeared in 'Melincourt,' but is here more justly delineated—a change which the editor attributes to Shelley's influence. In the literary movement of the time the novel is placed by the editor as subsequent to the misanthropy of Byron, itself following on the crude romance of Monk Lewis. "'The ghosts,' says Mr. Flosky, in this novel, 'have been laid, and the devil has been cast into outer darkness, and now the delight of our spirit is to dwell on all the vices and blackest passions of our nature, tricked out in a masquerade dress of heroism and disappointed benevolence.' At this juncture Peacock came forward to defend 'the cheerful and solid wisdom of antiquity' against Childe Haroldism as impersonated in Mr. Cypress and the Coleridgean transcendentalism of Mr. Flosky and the political methods of 'Spartacus Weishaupt, the immortal founder of the sect of the Illuminati'; to say nothing of the blue-devils chargeable partly upon climate and domestic worries, partly upon 'tea, late dinners, and the French Revolution.'" We make room for the quotation because it brings out the fantastic traits of the Peacockian novel, and also illustrates its interest as a highly intellectual criticism of the time.

—Believing that the time has come when "the people want to know intimately and without glamour or false coloring the father of his country as he actually lived and labored," Dr. J. M. Toner has begun his long-promised issue of a "complete collection of all the writings of George Washington, from his youth to the close of his eventful life" with an exactness so literal as to approach the methods of the Chinese. Such a task might well dismay a young man; but Dr. Toner has the enthusiasm and energy to carry on the work, and if we may judge by the 'Journal of 1747-'8' (Albany: J. Munsell's Sons), the most critical can find little fault. The admirer of Washington will approve of the method; the historical writer and biographer will use this text as final; and the book-collector will welcome the large print, wide margins, and handy form. There can be no doubt to what school of writers the genial editor belongs—the critically sympathetic. There is a preface, an introduction, the Journal, with many notes, Washington's crude memoranda, poetry, early letters, and finally the rough memoranda of surveys—in fact, all that is to be found in a small pigskin note-book in the Washington Collection. There are tracings of surveys, and a reproduction of Sparks's engraved plan of Mount Vernon. Thoroughness is the leading idea, and textual accuracy the end. The mention of a knife leads to a note nearly two pages in length on the use of knife and fork at table. Another note of a page tells much about the wild turkey. The editor believes Washington to have had humor, and never to have been indiscreet in the use of wine; and throws doubt upon the alleged affairs of the heart that rumor has attributed to the youthful surveyor. Our space forbids further notice of the varied contents of this entertaining volume, but it may be recommended to all collectors of Washingtoniana. It might be suggested that, instead of tracings (a clumsy contrivance), a photographic reproduction be employed. The lithograph of Mount Vernon is on too small a scale to be legible; the

engraving in Arthur Young's volume would have been better. Then, too, we wish the editor had given a page of the Journal in facsimile. As one of the earliest of the Washington MSS., such a page would prevent such stupid impositions as the so-called "Washington's Prayers."

—A recent address to the Mississippi Bar Association by its President, Mr. R. H. Thompson, upon the changes in the organic law of that State made by the new Constitution of 1890, concerning which there was so much said during the last session of Congress, is printed in the current number of the *American Law Review*. We learn from it that Mississippi was the first State to give married women property rights. The act of the Mississippi Legislature passed as long ago as the year 1839 has been followed by nearly every State in the Union and also by England. As Mississippi was the first to remove woman's property disabilities by statute, so she is the first to guard her entire emancipation in this particular by constitutional provision. Section 94 of the new Constitution deprives the Legislature of all power to create by law any distinction between the rights of men and of women to acquire, own, enjoy and dispose of all kinds of property, or their right to contract in reference to it. Mr. Thompson adds the surprising information that the sources of Mississippi's first married woman's law were the tribal customs of the Chickasaw Indians then residing in the State, and that its author was a member of the Legislature who was about to marry a rich widow and who was himself harassed by creditors.

—At the session of the Académie des Inscriptions of January 15, M. Salomon Reinach read an interesting memoir on plastic art in Gaul in connection with Druidism. He said that after the efflorescence of art in Gaul, at the reindeer epoch, we find a long period, from the era of the megalithic monuments to the time of the Roman conquest, in which sculpture is almost wholly lacking. The passages in Cæsar and Lucan which have been cited to prove the existence of carved images of the gods have been misinterpreted. They refer only to rough stone pillars, or squared tree-trunks—works quite unworthy of the advanced industry of the epoch. One is obliged, therefore, to attribute the absence of statues in Gaul to a religious interdiction. As among the Romans and the Persians, this prohibition was the work of a religious aristocracy. In Gaul this aristocracy was the College of the Druids, to the influence of which M. Reinach attributes the dolmens and menhirs. These last are not Celtic, for Druidism was anterior to the Celts, who accepted in part the Druidic religion just as the Greeks did the Pelasgic. The aversion of Druidism to representations of the gods is not attested by any formal text, but Plutarch says that it was Numa, the pupil of Pythagoras, who forbade images to the Romans, and other writers relate that Pythagoras was a pupil of the Druids. These legends have no great authority in themselves, but they bear witness to an affinity of doctrines. Druidism, like Mosaism, was hostile to anthropomorphism, and this explains the absence of images in Gaul down to the time of the Roman domination.

—The Academy of Vienna has just received an important communication from Prof. Kraal upon the Etruscan text discovered at the Museum of Agram. This text was written upon a band of papyrus that covered the mummy of a woman, brought from Egypt in 1849. It was first examined by the learned Egyptologist H. Brugsch, who could make nothing out of it, and declared it untranslatable. Then Prof. Kraal set himself at work, and his studies soon convinced him that what he had in hand was an Etruscan text very much longer than any hitherto known. It contains 1,200 words, divided into 200 lines. The ink and the papyrus are incontestably of Egyptian make. The authenticity of the text is affirmed by Drs. Bücheler, Deecke, and Pauli, and these scholars have no doubt that if this precious relic shall be deciphered, we shall have at last a key to the mysterious Etruscan tongue. Herr Kraal has attempted a first reading of the fragment together with some restorations, and Herr Deecke adds explanatory notes. Another addition to Etruscan linguistics was made in a paper sent in to the Académie des Inscriptions at its session of January 31 by M. Casati of the Court of Paris. This gave an account of an Etruscan burial-place recently discovered at Castiglione del Lago, on the borders of Lake Thrasymene. It consists of a certain number of tombs hollowed out in the tufa, and separated by passages about a metre in width. These tombs have already been dug into and in part despoiled, but, notwithstanding this, some fifty funeral urns bearing inscriptions have been brought to light. M. Casati gave a translation of the more interesting ones, in which appear some Etruscan family names already known. He called special attention to a termination *alisa*, which appears in an inscription. The precise sense of the termination *al* is already known from a bilingual inscription: it designates maternal descent in the first degree. M. Casati believes that *alisa* designates the same descent in the second degree. He added some interesting information as to the diggings that have been made this year at Todi, the Tutere of the Etruscans, where many noteworthy objects of art and archæology have been found—mirrors bearing figures of the male genii known as *lasas*, arms, armor, bone jewelry, etc.

THE MAN OF GENIUS.

The Man of Genius. By Cesare Lombroso, Professor of Legal Medicine in the University of Turin. [The Contemporary Science Series.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

Prof. Lombroso comes to us with a proposition not absolutely new, but which he makes claim now to prove for the first time. It is that genius is a mental disease, allied to epileptiform mania and in a lesser degree to the dementia of cranks, or mattoids, as he calls them; so that, far from being a mental perfection, it is a degenerate and diseased condition. The inevitable corollary must be, though Prof. Lombroso does not draw it, that the whole of civilization is due to insanity. If so, it is a disease like pearls, fat livers, and ambergris, which we had better try to propagate, in others. But our Napoleons, our Pythagorases, our Newtons, and our Dantes must no longer run at large, but be confined in Genius Asylums as fast as they betray themselves.

To prove his proposition, Prof. Lombroso proceeds inductively. In order, therefore, to judge of his work, we will examine the first induction he offers with some care. This first generalization is that geniuses are, on the average, of smaller stature than ordinary men. Here is his reasoning:

"Famous for short stature as well as for genius were: Horace (*lepidissimum homunculum dicebat Augustus* [Lombroso fails to note that this implies that Augustus was himself large]), Philopœmen, Narses, Alexander (*Magnus Alexander corpore parvus erat*), Aristotle, Plato, Epicurus, Chrysippus, Laertes, Archimedes, Diogenes, Attila, Epictetus (who was accustomed to say, 'Who am I? A little man'). Among moderns one may name Erasmus, Socinus, Linnæus, Lipsius, Gibbon, Spinoza, Haüy, Montaigne, Mézeray, Lalande, Gray, John Hunter (5 ft., 2 in.), Mozart, Beethoven, Goldsmith, Hogarth, Thomas Moore, Thomas Campbell, Wilberforce, Heine, Meissonier, Charles Lamb, Beccaria, Maria Edgeworth, Balzac, De Quincy, William Blake (who was scarcely five feet in height), Browning, Ibsen, George Eliot, Thiers, Mrs. Browning, Louis Blanc, Mendelssohn, Swinburne, Van Does (called the Drum, because he was not any taller than a drum), Peter van Laer (called the Puppet), Lulli, Pomponazzi, Baldini, were very short; so, also, were Nicholas Piccinino, the philosopher Dati, and Baldo, who replied to the sarcasm of Bartholo, 'Minuit præsentia fama,' with the words 'Augebit cetera virtus'; and again Marsilio Ficino, of whom it was said, 'Vix ad lumbos viri stabat.' Albertus Magnus was of such small size that the Pope, having allowed him to kiss his foot, commanded him to stand up, under the impression that he was still kneeling. When the coffin of St. Francis Xavier was opened at Goa in 1890, the body was found to be only four and a half feet in length.

"Among great men of tall stature I know only Volta, Goethe, Petrarch, Schiller, D'Azeglio, Helmholtz, Foscolo, Charlemagne, Bismarck, Moltke, Monti, Mirabeau, Dumas père, Schopenhauer, Lamartine, Voltaire, Peter the Great, Washington, Dr. Johnson, Stein, Arago, Flaubert, Carlyle, Turgeneff, Tennyson, Whitman."

Now we remark, at once, that the thirty names in the latter list are nearly all great names; while to collect the sixty in the former list, the anthor has been compelled to descend to Narses, Chrysippus, Laertes, Mézeray, Lalande, Thomas Campbell, De Quincey, William Blake, Does, Laer, Pomponazzi, Baldini, Piccinino, Dati, and Baldo! Nor are the statements always accurate. As for Epictetus, his expression of submission to God has nothing to do with his stature, concerning which there seems to be no information. Ancient references to his person merely allude to the story of his master breaking his leg. It is quite unlikely that Plato was diminutive, because his beauty was such that he was believed to be the son of Apollo. The statements about Epicurus and Diogenes are very doubtful; and that about Archimedes far from certain. Attila was short, like all Huns, but not shorter than the average. Balzac, instead of being small, was colossal; Spinoza and Hunter were about of medium height, notwithstanding the measurement given of the latter; George Eliot and Linnæus were somewhat above the average; and Erasmus, though not tall, was not noticeably short. Let us be glad that Signor Lombroso's credit for fairness is saved by one mistake on the other side, Schopenhauer being under the middle height.

Making these corrections and disregarding the insignificant names, the two lists are not far from equal. Taking, however, a list of great men* that was drawn up some years ago, without the slightest thought of their stature, and which therefore may be supposed to afford a fair sample, we have looked up the heights of as many of them as we readily could, with the following result:

Short Men.—Alexander, Archimedes (?), Aristotle, Francis Bacon, Beethoven (5 ft., 6 in.), A. Comte, Descartes, Epicurus (??), Erasmus, Faraday, Frederick the Great, Garrick, Jacob Grimm, Harvey, Warren Hastings, Horace, Howard, Kant, Thomas à Kempis, Kepler, Locke, Louis XIV., Mendelssohn, Montesquieu, Mozart, Napoleon, Schopenhauer, Wagner, St. Francis Xavier—29.

Middle-sized Men.—Attila, Burns (5 ft., 10

* That is to say, of those who make a certain impression upon us in advance of any critical examination.

in.), Calvin, Camoens, Cromwell (5 ft., 10 in.), Dante, Jeanne Darc, George Eliot, John Hunter, Lagrange, Linnæus, Machiavelli, Mahomet, Clerk Maxwell, James Mill, Milton, Rachel, Adam Smith, Spinoza—15.

Tall Men.—Alcibiades, Aquinas, Balzac, Bismarck, Boyle, Cæsar, Carlyle, Champollion, Charlemagne, Clive, Columbus, Constantine, Darwin, Dürer, Dumas père, Queen Elizabeth, Emerson, Fielding (over 6 ft.), Gilbert, Goethe, Hawthorne, Helmholtz, Alexander von Humboldt, Lavoisier, Leonardo da Vinci, Lessing, Abraham Lincoln, J. S. Mill, Mirabeau, Molière, Moltke, Peter the Great, Petrarch, Rumford, Schiller, Shelley (5 ft. 11 in.), Mrs. Siddons, Tennyson, Titian, Voltaire, Washington, Daniel Webster, Wellington, William the Silent—44.

This is an honest induction, from a list of instances drawn up without reference to the character for which the sample was to be examined, and seems to show that great men are a little above the average height.

It may perhaps be suspected that the above quotation does not do justice to the general run of Prof. Lombroso's reasonings; but, in point of fact, the induction examined is one of the best in the book, being quite exceptional as showing some effort, however feeble, to be fair. His ordinary method is to take up each symptom of insanity, and to search high and low for instances which may look as if some men of genius have had that symptom. Such reasoning would be rejected without hesitation were there not such a deluge of cases as must give us pause. In considering their value as premises, the first question to be asked is how many men there are in universal biography whom Prof. Lombroso would call geniuses. That his standard is pretty low, his first list in the above extract suffices to show. He never puts himself to the trouble of making the reader or himself understand what he means by "genius." He delights in repeating that by *genius* he does not mean *talent*, and finds fault with Galton for confusing these qualities. But the truth is, Galton is far too sound a reasoner to potter over the meaning of two popular words, mere accidents of language. Such categories can be of no use in reasoning until they have passed through the fire of a scientific revision such as Prof. Lombroso seems little to dream of. He covers his confusion of thought by the commonplace that "genius is original, talent not." Of course, maniacs are original enough, if the quality of the product is nothing. But to look at his instances, he does not seem to stickle for originality very much. Among his geniuses we find Mrs. Southey, whose nearest approach to brilliancy was going crazy; Nathaniel Lee, absurdest of dramatists; Bishop Dupanloup; the poet Thomson; Buhl, whoever he may be; Sir Everard Home; Ann Lee, the Shakeress; Lord Palmerston; Florence Nightingale; George Washington, a truly great man, but hardly, one would suppose, within Lombroso's category of genius; Prof. Asaph Hall, a remarkably sane mind; Talleyrand; Mrs. Stowe; William Pitt; Richard Steele. Addison and Pope are mentioned as men of genius, and in one place even as "normal" men of genius; yet when their traits do not seem to fit the theory, they are set down as men of talent, merely. In short, the author ranks almost anybody as a genius whom it happens to be for the moment convenient to reckon as such.

There is a well-known book called Phillips's 'Index of Biographical Reference,' said to contain over 100,000 names. We have set down in a list the first name on every twenty-fifth page; and we find among these names, thirty-nine in number, no less than seven that impress us as fully as distinguished as some of Lombroso's instances of genius. Namely, these seven are: Biela, for whom a comet is named; Sir James R. G. Graham, a well-known statesman; Naumann Köprili Pasha, the last of his celebrated family; Gen. Longstreet; Alexis Piron, the French satirist; Robert Semple, the early Scottish poet; and Evelina Stading, the contemporary Swedish painter. In that proportion there should be no less than $100{,}000 \times 7 + 39$, or 18,000 "persons of genius," in Lombroso's sense of the term, named in Phillips's Index. But, notwithstanding the diligent researches of the learned Italian, it may well be supposed that five-sixths of these (or whatever Italian names might replace some of them) could have symptoms of insanity without his being likely to know of it; so that we will suppose he is drawing his cases from only 3,000 geniuses.

The question next arises how much insanity he finds. There are, perhaps, a thousand cases of symptoms of insanity in the book; but they are, for the most part, of the slightest nature—to show how slight, we here give the first case on every tenth page for the first hundred pages:

(1.) Volta had the largest brain known (p. 10). The next largest was that of an idiot.

(2.) Dante wrote:

> "Son un che, quando
> Amor mi spira, noto, ed a quel modo
> Che detta dentro vo significando."
> —(p. 20.)

"I am one that, when love inspires, note, and in what manner he dictates within, proceed to express." This is supposed to indicate something like epilepsy.

(3.) Boileau could not hear any one praised, not even his shoemaker, without annoyance (p. 30).

(4.) Ann Lee saw Christ coming to her (p. 40). This is supposed to be a hallucination of *genius*.

(5.) Tolstoi confesses that philosophical skepticism at one time brought him to a condition approaching insanity (p. 50).

(6.) Petrarch's love-misery was a mere pretext for writing poetry (p. 60). This is supposed to be an example of that insensibility which is said to be a common trait of genius and insanity.

(7.) There was insanity in Baudelaire's family (p. 70).

(8.) Swift had a softening of the brain (p. 80). This came on ten years after he wrote 'Gulliver'; and the subsequent disease is supposed to be an evidence of derangement at the time the great work was writing.

(9.) The story-teller Hoffmann was a drunkard (p. 90).

Now, we may fairly assume that for each case of real insanity there would be at least ten cases of symptoms like the average of the above; for these would not occur all ten in one person. If so, Lombroso's thousand instances imply only about a hundred cases of insanity; and 100 cases of insanity *at some time in the lives* of 3,000 persons of intensely active brains, and for the most part in uncomfortable circumstances, is not extraordinary. Certainly, it by no means compels us to suppose that the whole body of them were more or less crazy their whole lives long. On the whole, therefore, the main argument of the book proves nothing and renders nothing probable. At most, it creates a problematic state of mind, and makes us wish to see the subject treated with a stricter attention to the logical conditions of valid induction.

But Prof. Lombroso presents another and much stronger argument. Namely, he shows that an unbroken series of cases exists, ranging from those where there is undoubted genius through imperceptible gradations to cases of undoubted mania, in which last the patient performs intellectual feats of which he would be utterly incapable in his normal state. Thus, he may write poetry, speak a foreign language, or play a game of chess, being unable to do the same thing in his ordinary health. A patient said to his physician, who thought him convalescent, "I am not quite cured; I am still too clever for that. In my natural condition I am stupid; wait, and I shall become so again" (p. 168). In these cases there were *other* symptoms of mania. But as for this disease of genius, if it consists *solely* in the brain functioning more perfectly than when it is well, why, what a very peculiar disease this mental disease must be! There would certainly be no difficulty in finding an unbroken series of cases passing by imperceptible gradations from cases of the working of undoubted genius to cases of the working of plain common sense. Accordingly, if the first series proves that genius is insanity, the first and second together prove that good sense is insanity.

But, after all, there is a puzzle about the matter not easily resolved; and those who are themselves visited with genius have always been ready to admit there is something like a malady about it. No doubt, our ordinary sense of behaving rationally is in the main, though not entirely, an illusion. The right hand, for instance, is connected with a certain part of the brain, and that is joined by commissures to other parts connected again with the eye, ear, tongue, etc.; and it is the structure of the commissures, medial and lateral, between different parts of the brain which determines how we shall act under given stimuli. It is true that, no matter how, we can control our actions to a certain extent; at a short notice, only slightly, but if time for preparation be allowed, a great deal. We can force ourselves to take habits, certain commissures becoming partially atrophied, while others are brought into activity under exercise. But in the main we behave as it is our nature to, like wild animals; and, as it happens that our nature is adapted to our circumstances, we take occasion to compliment ourselves upon our rationality. If the brain becomes diseased, the connection between certain parts get broken, and we begin to act in new ways. As we acted right in the main before, to act differently is to act ill. Yet it may happen, in special cases, that the breaking down of certain commissures may cause certain special actions to be done better than before; because the wave of nerve action is restricted to certain channels and its dissipation prevented. Indeed, it is probable that an excess of medial commissures, or those between the two halves of the brain, causes stupidity, deliberation becoming impossible when the thinking vessel leaks so fast. If so, we can see how disease of the brain may cause an improvement in the general intelligence.

Now, the brain of a genius, say of a great mathematician, a Gauss or a Dirichlet (of which two brains Prof. Lombroso gives drawings), is seen at a glance to be quite unlike that of a common man. It may be larger; it is certain to be far more complicated and implicated. These foldings imply that the parts are more disconnected. Its connections of parts being different, such a brain must act differently from common brains; and consequently it will in general be less adapted to the ordi-

nary purposes of life. It is not disease, but greater development; yet the unfortunate man whose shoulders have to carry it, becomes the victim of his own higher organization. Of course, there will be special things for which such a highly complicated brain will be specially adapted; and in being exercised continually on those things, as it naturally will be, it will grow more adapted to them. Such actions will not be insane; they will be like the operations of common sense, only more perfect. In doing such work, such a brain will take steps for the advancement of mankind of which ordinary heads would be quite incapable. The world will reap the benefit of it, and the unfortunate individual will have to pay for it. But, circumstances being generally unfavorable, the energies of such a brain are largely spent in vainly trying to make it do things for which it is entirely unadapted, though other brains do them with ease. The result is, that first derangement, then disease ensues, and we get the phenomenon of aberrations of genius.

MORE NOVELS.

Peter Ibbetson. By George Du Maurier. Harper & Bros.

In the "Stranger People's" Country. By Charles Egbert Craddock. Harper & Bros.

The Lady of Fort St. John. By M. H. Catherwood. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

An Imperative Duty. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Bros.

The Little Minister. By J. M. Barrie. John W. Lovell Co.

A Modern Aladdin. By Howard Pyle. Harper & Bros.

The Spanish Galleon. By C. S. Seeley. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Prisons of Air. By Moncure D. Conway. United States Book Co.

OCCASIONALLY an author who has not developed from small beginnings beneath the public eye, by making his literary début in a long novel justifies the rashness of his choice. This rare occurrence is perhaps the foundation for the commonly accepted belief that the art of writing is the only art for which no special training is needed. Mr. Du Maurier's remarkable book, 'Peter Ibbetson,' is a very valuable illustration in support of the argument that writing is natural to man, even as breathing—much more valuable, for instance, than the literary achievements of great soldiers, from Julius Cæsar down to General Grant; men who had not first to invent their story and then tell it with more or less reference to the conditions and conventions of art, but only to narrate lucidly and exactly events in which they took a prominent part.

Mr. Du Maurier, in this his first novel, scores two successes, one through the extraordinary interest and charm with which he invests the lives of a number of people remarkable for nothing except gentle manners and good looks, and the other through the imaginative force by which he makes incredible things appear possible, if not always probable. We have nothing of its kind in fiction more refined and natural than the description of the tranquil domestic life of the Pasquiers and Seraskiers at Passy; and if there is some disappointment of expectation in the failure of the engaging Gogo Pasquier, become by adoption Peter Ibbetson, to develop brilliantly, the compensation of that just vengeance which in a moment transforms the kindly giant into a hero and a criminal, is great. The reasons why the nephew could not help killing the uncle are so clear and sufficient that the sudden tragedy is divested of violence, even of any appearance of deliberate dramatic surprise. If it were possible for the law in meting out punishment to take cognizance of the character of the offender as compared with that of the victim, Peter Ibbetson would have been awarded a public ovation, not condemned to twenty-five years of stone walls and prison fare. The situation to which this tragedy leads is as novel as it is audacious.

We are being so thoroughly educated away from incredulity by dabblers in extra-natural and superhuman mysteries, that no theory or statement boldly advanced is so strange as not to win qualified acceptance, or at least to escape unqualified repudiation; but he who represents himself as selected for experiences still far beyond the ordinary, must not insist too much, nor invite criticism by too voluminous detail and an infinite extension of his situation. Mr. Du Maurier seems to us to have fallen into the error of over-elaboration, an error which an accustomed novelist would almost surely have feared and avoided. We accept the original conception, startling though it is. That the dream companionship endured through twenty-five years is no more marvellous than that it should ever begin. Our deep sympathy with the misfortunes of Gogo and Mimsey makes us willing to believe that they were given a shadow of happiness more complete than the substance they had missed, but sympathy doesn't stand the strain of their retrogressive incarnations and prehistoric gambols with the mammoth. Why did they stop short of a first cause and deprive us of the joy of announcing 'Peter Ibbetson' as the greatest book ever written in any age or tongue? But it is near enough to greatness to tempt one to extravagant epithet. There are no suggestions of mediocrity. The pathos is true, the irony delicate, the satire severe when its subject is unworthy, the comedy sparkling, and the tragedy, as we have said, inevitable. One or two more such books, and the fame of the artist would be dim beside that of the novelist, as in this one the artist is properly secondary. It has been said that the story is mere text for the illustrations. The expectation of such a performance is the only foundation for the accusation. Most of the drawings are cleverly illustrative, but some in which the figures are crowded have been so much reduced that they are neither explanatory nor decorative.

Zealots in the pursuit of science are notoriously cold-blooded, but seldom promoters of disorder and crime. Mr. Shattuck, the scientific gentleman in 'The Stranger People's Country' is preëminently a man of peace, yet before the tale of his persistence in desecrating the graves of the "Leetle People" is told, the "straight-shootin'" Guthree and the desperado Cheever, with his gang, appear by comparison with him blood-guiltless. It is a very interesting tale, one of the best that Miss Murfree has told us, though if fiction really were, what many people pretend that it is, good only in proportion to its beneficial effect on a common moral sense, all Miss Murfree's stories are bad, and this one of the worst. It must be confessed that the chief interest in almost all stories of American frontier life of our mountains and prairies is a demoralizing one; that we care for the people most, not on account of their primitive and spasmodic virtues, but for their absolute contempt of law and order, their uncontaminated ruffianism. Our frail sympathies gush most warmly towards the permanently intoxicated Col. Starbottle, or that professional exponent of the blandishments of poker, Mr. Jack Hamlin—in this instance, towards the straight-shootin' Fee Guthree. When the clatter of hoofs down the defile announces that the sheriff is after some one, our heart stands still with anxiety—not that the Sheriff may catch his man. When the ruffian stands over six feet in his long boots, rides straight and stiff in his stirrups, has fair hair and a sentimental cast of mind, Sir Galahad in competition is nowhere. Such a charmer is Fee Guthree; his romantic splendor much enhanced, his power for demoralization infinitely extended, by contrast with the correct, dull, scientific grave-robber, Mr. Shattuck.

But one thing Miss Murfree might have done to depreciate Guthree and excite a mild esteem for Shattuck—that is, to have made the latter the victim in the culminating tragedy. By choosing another course, she fails as a moralist, which is not her office, and also as a story-teller, which vocation is her birthright. A novelist may legitimately make use of all possible situations and developments of character, but we demand for our satisfaction (the reason why is deeply philosophical) that he shall choose the most probable; or, probabilities being equal, that which does not spring upon warm emotions an ice-cold shower. If some one had to be shot, it might as well have been Shattuck as Guthree. Such a catastrophe would have been humanly and artistically fitting. All along we are keenly in sympathy with the local superstition and veneration for the unknown dead, and that Shattuck should come to his death when in the act of rifling the grave would be as the lightning-stroke of vengeance from the offended gods of the long-buried Little People. The spectacle of such respectability stalking unchecked in the Tennessee mountains is exceedingly irritating, and we dismiss as arbitrary sentimentality the picture of the freakish Letitia, wearing out her bright youth with waiting for the fulfilment of a promise no sooner spoken than forgotten by the man who made it. How much closer to probability and gratifying to expectation would be a picture of Letitia (her fancy for Shattuck converted into resentment for his desertion) keeping her eye on the sacred graves and her hand on the family shotgun, for prompt reply to any one who should come "vagrantin' round inquirin' for them as be dead and done with the livin' long ago." Letitia of the last page contradicts all that goes before, and we can account for her only by supposing that Miss Murfree gave way to a rare fit of sentimentality which obscured her judgment. To the same blindness may perhaps be ascribed those final paragraphs in one of which reference is made to the heavy doom that fell upon all who were implicated in the attempted disturbance of the Little People, while, in another, we take farewell of the chief offender, Shattuck, middle-aged and prosperous, indulging in reminiscences of the Tennessee mountains, with no suspicion that his behavior there had been open to censure.

Discontent with an author whose fictitious tragedy is weak is mild compared with that excited by the author who spoils an actual tragedy by surrounding it with fictitious circumstance. About five years ago there appeared an anonymous novel, entitled 'Constance of Acadia.' This book, though defective in arrangement and style, showed study and comprehension both of the details of the feud between Charles La Tour and D'Aulnay de Charnizay and of contemporary New England history. The remarkable character and heroic

life of Constance La Tour were depicted with admirable fidelity and understanding. A second more or less fictitious version of this romantic but, in its results, insignificant historical episode, would seem superfluous, unless the person attempting it should be possessed of notable literary skill. In Mrs. Catherwood's 'Lady of Fort St. John' such justification is not apparent. The fort, by the way, is historically and commonly known as Fort La Tour, or the "habitation of the River St. John," and the Lady as Constance, on which, either for sound or significance, Mrs. Catherwood's Marie is hardly an improvement. The events of the story immediately precede and comprise the surrender of the fort by Mme. La Tour to Charnizay. Excepting a few particulars of the surrender, the book is unadulterated and commonplace fiction. The characterization of Charnizay is unduly harsh, if not false, and that of La Tour and his wife vague and inadequate. It is to be supposed that the weird creature who rides or flies about on a swan is a pure creation of the fancy, and her importance casts a doubt on the sincerity of the author's prefatory scorn of "shadows and types, when we may go back through history and live again with people who actually lived." Learning and inspiration together probably fall short of exact truth in an effort to reproduce the past; but the combination often succeeds in arraying the most credible narration of events, and in describing characters and motives with a perfect resemblance to truth. In Mrs. Catherwood's story, facts are few and so narrated as to lose most of their inherent picturesqueness, while imagination is chiefly expended on the impossible.

'An Imperative Duty' may be best described as a situation involving two rather difficult problems of conduct. For the particular instances, the given solutions seem natural and proper, but the wisdom of a general application would be doubtful. The weakness of Mrs. Meredith's solution is, that if it were accepted as unequivocally right, conscientious people might always relieve themselves from bearing peculiarly unpleasant consequences of their own acts. The impeccability of a conscience that compels a woman most cruelly to wound one who has always been dependent on her affection, is at least debatable. Mr. Howells, without expressing an opinion, shows how Mrs. Meredith was driven to tell Rhoda about her antecedents by the lash of a hypochondriacal conscience, applied to hysterical nerves. We feel that Olney's solution of his problem is, for him, right and just and admirable, but, supposing that he had known of Rhoda's mixed blood from the beginning of their acquaintance, would marriage with her have been so commendable? The inference from Mr. Howells's presentation of the case is that it would, and yet it is certain that such marriages increase the war between temperament and character which he declares to be "the fruitful cause of misery in the world, where all strains are now so crossed and intertangled that there is no definite and unbroken direction any more in any of us." But it is fair to hold Mr. Howells responsible only for his particular instance, and to regard some of Olney's utterances as mere lover's extravagance, not as condemnation of all men who would not do as he does, nor as an adjuration to young men in search of an object of special pride to go get a wife with a strain of negro blood. The situation is described and argued with that lucidity, force, and grace which give to all Mr. Howells's stories a rare distinction.

The story of 'The Little Minister' is told by that dominie whose acquaintance is made in 'A Window in Thrums.' It is a poetical, passionate story, with a plot so romantic as to appear quite old-fashioned. Unlike most clever writers of character sketches, the dominie has understood that a long novel is the better for a sustained plot, and none the worse for an air of mystery and the leaven of a few dramatic situations. The blind god never played a more mischievous trick than when he arranged the meeting between the little minister, Gavin Dishart, and the elusive gypsy, in the elf-haunted shades of Caddam Wood. An Auld Licht minister is, after all, but a man, especially when at the age of twenty-one and complacently scornful of the frivolous sex. When Gavin got the "call" to Thrums, and was able to establish his devoted mother in the manse, the troubles of life seemed to lie behind and the future shone fair, provided his physical vigor should prove equal to the demands of Thrums for loud-voiced denunciation of all things natural and agreeable to weak humanity. Poor Gavin had not counted on an "Egyptian limmer" coming dancing out of limbo, straight into his cut-and-dried life, dictating heaven or hell for him by the ring of her voice and the light of her eyes. But when, at last, he understands the wonderful, terrible force that sweeps away all his well-known self, except his stanch integrity, then let Thrums rise and with imprecation stone him from its limits: Babbie is his and the joy thereof passes understanding. Mr. Barrie leaves us in doubt about the action taken by Thrums when the news of the marriage over the tongs was confirmed, but the inference from the behavior of "lang Thammas" is that they accepted what couldn't be helped, and proceeded to vindicate outraged righteousness by proving to Babbie how far from a bed of roses is the lot of a minister's wife.

'A Modern Aladdin' and 'The Spanish Galleon' are modern versions of very old tales. The mysterious personage who wears in a crystal ball hung round his neck the charm that wards off old age and death, has flitted casually across the page of history, and has long been the property of story-tellers. In Mr. Pyle's hands he has really the freshness of youth, he is as good as new, and has that polish, elegance, and unabashed wickedness which centuries of high society and moral irresponsibility should properly bestow. The narrative of his capture of that good rustic, Oliver Munier, and of what he did with him, is exceedingly ingenious and amusing, and is told with an attention to salient detail that gives it an air of sober fact.

The author of 'The Spanish Galleon' has not spared detail, and if there breathes a man or boy whose early education has been so neglected that he knows neither 'Robinson Crusoe' nor the 'Swiss Family Robinson,' he may read with pleasure this prolix account of solitary life on a desert island and recovery from ocean's depths of a Spanish treasure-ship. Mr. William Morgan appears to know more about applied science than Crusoe did, and is certainly not such a favorite of Fortune as was the ingenuous Swiss family; yet neither learning nor self-reliance gives him the charm of those old friends, to know whom is to make comparison inevitable.

It is kind to regard Mr. Conway's 'Prisons of Air' as a freak of genius, and not amiss to remind him that few literary reputations are so firmly established as not to suffer from indulgence in such freaks. There is a limit beyond which public confidence cannot be forced, and that limit is reached in 'Prisons of Air.' Knowing Mr. Conway as a sane if sometimes excursive littérateur, we expect to find in a novel by him some indications of literary cultivation, of knowing how to do it, and are willing to excuse, if necessary, the lack of any aptitude for story-telling. All that we do find is a perfect illustration of how not to do it. Time was when the romantic office boy or chambermaid might have followed with starting eyes the woful doom of the Redleghs extending through nine generations in fulfilment of a gypsy's prophecy, but the indications of publishers' ledgers are that that time has gone by, and that Lady Amanda and Lord Adolphus, with their whole spectacular equipment of dooms and weirds, lost wills and wandering heirs, can no longer be said to draw in this enlightened land. This is one of the most encouraging signs of the times, and we regret that Mr. Conway, in his 'Prisons of Air,' should so elaborately have written himself down a reactionary.

Letters of Field-Marshal Count Helmuth von Moltke to his Mother and his Brothers. Translated by Clara Bell and Henry W. Fischer. Harper & Bros. 1892. 8vo, pp. 317.

Von Moltke's letters to his mother and to his brothers Adolf and Ludwig compose the fourth volume in the German edition of his collected works; in the order of issue they are the second volume, the first in the order of publication having been the History of the War of 1870 (vol. iii. of the works); a third volume has been recently issued containing miscellaneous writings, and forming vol. ii. of the works. The translation of the letters is by the same hands that furnished the English version of the History, and, while it reads smoothly and may, in the main, be pronounced fairly correct, it contains some odd blunders which cannot, in this case, as was done in our review of the former book, be ascribed to the technical character of the work, but are evidently due to an imperfect knowledge of German and to a lack of literary instinct. The wonder still grows that people who know so much of a foreign language did not contrive to know a little more. For instance, it is almost incredible that any one undertaking a task like this should not know that *Rechentafel* means the slate familiar to every schoolboy and not a "counting-board," as it is translated on page 15. Two pages further on, we find "Hosen" rendered "gaiters," instead of "trousers," although later on in the book the same word is correctly translated. Errors of this kind are trivial, and will not disturb any reader who has not the original before him, but the offence is more serious when the translators actually represent their unfortunate author as saying the very reverse of what he actually did say. Thus, on page 15, we read: "I am glad to think that I shall soon have done with surveying." What Moltke wrote is, in the original: "Eben erhalte ich einen Brief aus Berlin, der einen Thaler vier Groschen porto kostet, es sind Messinstrumente dabei für die Schule; ich freue mich sehr darauf, die Aufnahme geht nun bald los." That is to say, he is glad the instruments have come, as they will enable him to go right on with the work. Some of the mistakes are very hard to explain, as they occur in passages that present no difficulty whatever, as on page 26, where it is said that "The Kospoths *interest themselves in everything* that is fashionable and distingué in Silesia." This is nonsense, but becomes quite plain when for the four words we have italicized

we substitute the following: "are related to everybody." Perhaps the most comical blunder of all is the following passage (on p. 14): "I have lately made the acquaintance of Countess Blumenthal and her family, *who have been to Gutsnachbar in the Liebethal*, and say they recognized me by my family likeness." We again italicize the words which contain the error. The translators evidently take *Gutsnachbar* to be the name of a place; it is simply an every-day German common noun, and means the proprietor of a neighboring estate: Moltke simply wrote that the Blumenthal family had been on a visit to neighbors. Probably most readers will be puzzled to read, on page 34, "I arrived here safe and sound by mail on Sunday," and will wonder whether human beings were forwarded in that way sixty years ago; Moltke really says that he is "mit der Post eingetroffen," that is, "arrived with the mail," or, in other words, he travelled in the mail coach, which had not as yet given way to the railroad.

We had noted a few other instances of mistranslation, but they are not of importance and do not seriously impair the value of the book for non-German readers, to whom this translation will sufficiently convey the substance of Moltke's letters, although they will, to a great extent, miss the charm of his natural and unaffected although highly cultivated style. Those of them who still regard the great general as nothing but a cold, grim, taciturn strategist, with no genial traits to soften his iron character, will be led by his familiar letters to revise their preconceived estimate. It is to their autobiographic revelations, and to the side-light they cast on Moltke's inner life, that these letters owe the greater part of their interest. They enable us to follow him from his early struggles with poverty, and to appreciate the dogged perseverance and industry with which he carved out a career for himself. He writes a good deal about money, about the economy he is forced to practise, about his debts and the like, which might seem sordid if it were not in letters to his mother, to whom he opens his heart freely on every topic; at the same time, although his finances are not brilliant, he offers to set apart for his mother's use five thalers a month, when his own pay is only forty-five thalers. On another occasion he offers to his father the proceeds of a book he has written; he is always ready to help his brothers from his own scanty means. His warm affection for all the members of his family, from his earliest youth to the very end of his career, is a specifically German trait; not quite so German is the generosity with which he is willing to aid them in proportion to his increasing wealth. Moltke had the reputation of being almost as stingy as that other Field-Marshal, Wrangel; he says himself in one of these letters that it is hard to shake off in his old age the habits of economy which were forced on him by the poverty of his youth.

His intellectual activity and energy were untiring, and serve in great measure to account for his commanding position. If he had not been a great general, he would probably have been a great writer. As it was, he published a considerable number of books, mostly potboilers, but nevertheless not devoid of merit. He undertook a translation of Gibbon, and, with the assistance of his brother, completed it, although it was never published, as before he got to the end the money troubles which had prompted him to begin it had ceased to oppress him. Aside from his literary labors, he dabbled in painting. His accomplishments as a linguist are proverbial.

His distinguished career was but the natural result of his abilities and the good use he made of them. His rapid rise after he had once attracted the attention of his superiors is an additional demonstration of the high degree of intelligence with which the Prussian monarchy has always selected its servants, thereby in great measure securing its constant increase in power and prestige. Although Moltke was thirty-three before he reached the grade of first lieutenant, he was promoted captain two years later, and on this occasion he wrote to his mother, under date of April 21, 1835:

"With regard to my promotion, four of my seniors in my old regiment are still second lieutenants. I have passed over their heads and the whole body of twelve first lieutenants. Even in the Guards the men who got their commission at the same time with me are only just made first lieutenants, and I am perhaps the only captain in the army who entered so late as 1822. Thus I have made good the four years I lost in the Danish service."

Taken as a whole, the correspondence here published reveals an interesting and sympathetic personality. The reader feels that he is in the presence of one of the world's great men: a great man morally and intellectually. Moltke was in no sense a happy accident; there was no element of mere luck in his career. He stands as a perfect representative of everything that is best and most worthy of admiration in the German national character, and his unrivalled military genius is but one of a harmonious assemblage of traits that enabled him not only to command success, but to deserve it.

A Universal English-German and German-English Dictionary. By Dr. Felix Flügel. Being the fourth, entirely rewritten, edition of Dr. J. G. Flügel's Complete Dictionary of the English and German Languages. New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1891.

THE creation of adequate and comprehensive polyglot lexicons appears to be one of the latest and least cultivated occupations of modern scholarship. While such monumental works as the dictionaries of the English Philological Society, of the Century Company, of Webster and Worcester, of the French Academy, of Pierre Larousse and of Littré, of Sanders and of the Grimm brothers, indicate what may be accomplished within the limits of a single tongue, the work or works which might form the binding links between the three great modern languages have not yet been evolved and compiled, though a rich mass of material awaits the fortunate combination of patient and accurate scholarship supported by enlightened commercial enterprise.

Among the contributions towards such an undertaking might be mentioned the admirable and ingenious little French and English dictionary by John Bellows, the great French and German lexicon of Sachs-Villate, and the English and German dictionary of Flügel, the concluding number of which has just been issued. The fourth if not final edition of this well-established work recalls the interesting relations of the Flügel family to this lexigraphic inheritance. It was the elder Flügel who laid the practical foundations of the work during a long residence in this country. Visiting the United States as a merchant about 1803, he remained here fifteen years, travelling up and down the Mississippi for more than a decade in his own vessels. His charts and log-books, still preserved, would afford valuable reminiscences of the early navigation of the great river. Later he published an English grammar and taught at the Leipsic University, where his grandson Ewald, the accomplished editor of *Anglia*, now discusses English and American literature. As United States consul in Leipsic and agent of the Smithsonian Institution, offices efficiently filled afterwards by his son Felix, he rendered useful services to the land which he represented. In 1830 was published the first edition of his Dictionary, a work which was copious for its time, and boasted a larger vocabulary than even the current English lexicons. It is this work which, after passing through various editions and revisions in Germany and England, now appears anew in charge of the second and third generations.

The position of the present edition seems secure. It is destined to remain for a long period the standard dictionary of reference for translating between English and German, and a place should be found for it on the desk of every teacher and every advanced student of the two languages. For daily and ordinary use in reading and travel, abridged dictionaries like Thieme-Preusser, Cassell-Heath, and Longman will still remain useful and convenient helps; but they will need to be supplemented by frequent consultations of Flügel not less than of Sanders, Grimm, Weigand, Heyne, Heyse, and Kluge. For that no one lexicon may satisfy all demands is a discovery made at an early stage by every student, and in lexicography at least the proverb holds good that only in a multitude of counsellors there is safety.

The typographical effect of Flügel's dictionary is excellent. The page is divided into triple columns, and the leading word of each article is in full-face. The type is small but clear, and all German words are consistently printed in German characters, while the extremely revised orthography is conservatively avoided. The pronunciation of the English words is indicated—so far as pronunciation may be indicated—after the method of Worcester, by a simple key repeated as a running caption; but the page is not sown with any elaborate system of symbolism to mark by various familiar and unfamiliar devices the classification of the vocabulary. The range of definition includes the technical or scientific terminology. Foreign terms, in Latin as well as in other languages, are not excluded, and geographical nomenclature and proper names, including classical mythology, are exhaustively illustrated. Nautical phrases are well represented. Tables of strong verbs and irregular nouns are given, and a summary of the marks of pronunciation. Abbreviations are found scattered through the text under the initial letters, the articles on which are replete with information. Etymologies are wisely avoided. A formidable tale of English authors cited is enumerated, but the list appears to be fully utilized in the text, with chapter and verse indicated. The excerpts in the English-German part range from Shakspere through the usual seventeenth and eighteenth-century worthies, on which German students of English are often overfed, down through the present century to our own Mark Twain. In extent and attractiveness of quotation the work compares advantageously with Webster and Worcester, and although this feature may be intended more for the foreign reader, the possessor of the work in England or America will turn to these quotations with interest and satisfaction.

Both divisions of the Dictionary have been enlarged by collections of materials made by the author—collections so rich that it has been feasible to make only partial use of them. The principal lexicons in both languages have also

been utilized, but for this employment due acknowledgment has been made. Attention is incidentally called to the fundamental value of Johnson and Todd, whose treasures have been freely plundered by later laborers in the same field. It would appear that some German lexicographers, like Lucas and Grieb, have not abstained from following similar traditions of plagiarism.

To sum up, the Flügel Dictionary is the fruit of honest, long-continued, legitimate scholarly work. An undertaking of this sort, which is no slight influence in aiding two peoples to a more intimate understanding of each other's literature and life, is worthy of a cordial welcome on this side of the ocean too.

The Afghan Wars, 1839–42, 1878–80. By Archibald Forbes. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

Mr. Archibald Forbes has written an excellent account of those two very remarkable episodes of Anglo-Indian history, the Afghan wars. He has compressed, with a light hand and by a very clear arrangement of his materials, a great many important events and transactions, political as well as military, into a handy volume which contains all that the general reader could wish to know upon this subject, explaining concisely the connection of of the two wars, and bringing up to the present date the history of the relations of India with Afghanistan.

The period which he traverses extends from 1839, when an Anglo-Indian army first crossed the Afghan frontier, up to 1880, when, at the close of the second war, the last British regiment evacuated the country. The story of the first war, which ended in 1842, includes a vivid and very accurate description of the great disaster which overtook the British troops in their attempt to retreat from Kabul in January, 1842, when some 4,500 men, with a much larger number of camp-followers, were totally destroyed by the Afghans. No sterner example could be found, in all the annals of warfare, of the consequences of irresolution, imprudence, and incapacity; and never were the conditions of Asiatic fighting more pointedly illustrated than by this narrative, which shows how a well-disciplined and well-armed force, ill led and badly handled, can be exterminated by a horde of barbarians. In the second war, nearly forty years later, precisely the same lesson was enforced at the unlucky battle of Maiwend, where a British division of about 2,500 men was completely routed by the Afghans, with a loss of 964 killed. If any one desires to understand quite plainly how *not* to conduct campaigns against an Asiatic enemy who gives no trouble to Europeans that know their business, he has only to study carefully Mr. Forbes's account of these military operations. If, on the other hand, he prefers to learn how these things should be done, he will find in the defence of Jellalabad, in Gen. Pollock's advance to Kabul (1842), and in Sir Frederick Roberts's march from Kabul to Kandahar in 1880, choice specimens of the best workmanship in the art of Oriental war. To the civilized European, with his arms of precision, it seems at first sight equally simple to rule barbarians and to rout them in the field; but they give no quarter in war or in politics, and mistakes are apt to involve massacres.

Of both Afghan wars the political motives and causes were the same: the English desired to bring the country under their influence, and particularly to exclude the ascendancy of Russia. England has virtually proclaimed a kind of Monroe Doctrine in Asia with regard to all those States which surround the frontiers of India. Just as the United States do not permit the interference, within certain limits, of European Powers on the North American continent, so the English Government bars all encroachment by European rivals within the regions bordering upon its Indian possessions. It was the rumor of Russian advance upon the northern frontier of Afghanistan that caused the expedition of 1839, the invasion of 1879, and very nearly brought on a rupture with Russia in 1885. This principle is the backbone of English policy in the East; and Mr. Forbes explains, with remarkable power of comprehensive view, combined with great precision of details, the working of this principle throughout the last fifty years. He also draws true and striking portraits of the principal actors in the stirring scenes that he describes—of Dost Mahommed Khan, the ablest Ameer of the Kabul dynasty, of his son Akbar Khan, who shot the British envoy at a conference, and of the present Ameer, Abdurrahman Khan, who for the last ten years has been ruling the Afghans with bloody severity, who has mastered the fighting clans, and has nearly reduced them to the melancholy condition of a tame and orderly people. To the English generals who have from time to time distinguished themselves in Afghanistan by brilliant feats or disastrous failures, Mr. Forbes distributes impartial credit or censure; and on Sir Frederick Roberts, who commanded at Kabul during the perilous vicissitudes of the campaign of 1879–1880, he bestows well-merited praise. He shows a true insight into Afghan character, and a generous appreciation of the patriotic valor with which these hardy tribesmen united against the English garrison at Kabul, and spent their blood in the determined attack upon the English position in the winter of 1879. We may approve or condemn the proceedings of the English in Asia, we may regard the steady expansion of their dominion as the progress of civilization or as unjustifiable territorial aggrandizement; but the subject is of unending and world-wide interest; the story is full of tragic incident and heroic enterprise; and the book now before us describes some of the most important and effective scenes of the great drama.

English Colonization and Empire. By Alfred Caldecott. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

The success of University Extension in England has prompted an endeavor to furnish the general reader, through a series of manuals, that combination of principles with facts and methods with results which has been the essential feature of the best extension lectures. Some thirty manuals are announced, and several have already appeared. The present work is filled with well-digested matter set forth in an engaging style. Apt literary references and illustrations, such as a cultivated lecturer would naturally introduce, relieve the narrative here and there, and in one or two other respects the personal tone recalls the lecture-room. For example, it is not England or the English people, but "we," who did this and that. This is a rhetorical blemish in a text-book designed in part for America.

Stated most succinctly, Mr. Caldecott's subject is "the diffusion of European civilization over the face of the inhabited and habitable world." After an introduction admirable alike in matter and form, the work of Portugal, Spain, and England in the pioneer period of discoveries, and the international struggle for supremacy, are described. The historical section is concluded with chapters on the rise of the English power in India and more recent dependencies, and on the development and separation of the American colonies. The rest of the volume, about three-fifths of the whole, deals with the government of the empire, trade policy, supply of labor, native races, education, and religion. As characteristic features of this diffusion of European civilization over the world—differentiating it from earlier migrations—Mr. Caldecott notes: Knowledge of the whole surface of the earth; practical mastery of it and control of the forces of nature—"space obstacles yield to steam, and time obstacles to electricity"; recognition of the oneness of the human race; wealth, under the form of capital, highly mobile, available in any part of the world; the finality of physical science as regards truths in actual possession; and lastly, the moral influence of Christianity.

The sketch of colonization is extremely well done. The author brings out clearly how thoroughly the Spanish colonial policy was dominated by monopoly, but he leaves somewhat indistinct the same feature of the English policy. In regard to the American colonies he doubts whether the broad effect of the navigation laws gave "any serious ground for complaint," as the interference with the natural course of trade was not considerable. The prevalence of illicit trade and smuggling points towards a modification of this judgment.

The section on Africa is a convenient and timely description of the present political condition of that continent brought down to the spring of 1891. One is surprised, upon comparing the maps, to see at what a rate taking possession of Africa has gone on in the last eleven years. There is nothing like it in the previous history of colonization. In this movement the English have a marked advantage in possessing the best part of South Africa with its temperate climate.

In discussing emigration, Mr. Caldecott estimates the value of an immigrant at what it costs to raise one in the mother country. The figure he gives—£175—is Dr. Farr's estimate of the present value of an immigrant, which is found by multiplying his annual net earnings into his expectation of life. In other words, the value of an immigrant to the United States is not what it cost to raise him in Germany, but what he will contribute to the production of wealth in the United States. Among the suggestive comments scattered along Mr. Caldecott's pages one or two may be cited. He compares the modern syndicate with the old chartered trading companies. One secures monopoly by force, the other started with it, but, the monopoly once acquired, the problem of management, the strength and weakness of the organization in both cases, are much the same. The comment on the exclusion of the Chinese is very happy: "In America and Australia, men are practically acknowledging that the Chinaman was right in closing the ports of his country against men of different civilization, for they are now reverting to his policy."

In conclusion we may note some errors that should be corrected. The explanation, page 18, how Brazil came to belong to Portugal is confused and erroneous. More serious is the ante-bellum Southern view of our Federal Union: "The 'States' of America are sovereign States acting under a compact. To speak of 'federating' Great Britain and her colonies is to acknowledge the virtual independence of the latter." This is an extraordinary misapprehension in so well-informed a writer. Not so grave an error, but a statement either indicat-

ing little familiarity with our polity or suffering from too great brevity, is that on page 195, that slavery was abolished by "Presidential decree in 1864, during their great secession war." On page 193, in speaking of the early colonial period, Mr. Caldecott says: "In Pennsylvania slavery was soon disallowed." It was not until 1780 that the movement really began with the passage of a gradual emancipation act. On page 47 Irving is enumerated among the sons of New England. The statement on page 218 that "the existence of non-Adamite man is still an open question" savors more strongly of theological apologetics than of scientific ethnology.

The Antiquities and Curiosities of the Exchequer. By Hubert Hall. With illustrations by Ralph Nevill, and preface by Sir John Lubbock. London: Elliot Stock; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 8vo, pp. xvi., 230.

THE author of this first instalment of the "Camden Library" begins his preface with the assertion that the Exchequer "is certainly the stock from which the several branches of administration originally sprang." This is a sweeping generalization which cannot be accepted without reservation. The best authorities on constitutional history rightly maintain that the Exchequer is one of various central institutions which emerged from the "Curia Regis" of the early Norman kings of England. All will agree with Mr. Hall, however, in ascribing to the Exchequer great importance in the development of the English Constitution. In his book he aims to draw attention to the "quaint surroundings and mystical practice" of the Exchequer, "its working staff, and all the chief appurtenances of its mediæval existence." Most of the results embodied in this work have already appeared in the form of essays, printed in periodicals and in the publications of the Pipe Roll Society. This fact should have been more clearly indicated in the preface.

In chapter i. an attempt is made to determine the official seat of the Treasury in the twelfth century. The author declares in favor of Westminster, but thinks that there were various secondary treasuries. The most important of these was at Winchester, and it was specially designed to accommodate plate, regalia, and jewels, for which a permanent repository was not provided at Westminster until early in the thirteenth century. It cannot be said that Mr. Hall proves these conclusions, and in the *Antiquary* (June and July, 1887) Mr. Round advances some strong arguments in favor of the view that Winchester Castle was the chief treasury in the reigns of Henry I., Stephen, and Henry II. We must also take exception to the remarks on p. 7 concerning the Treasury in the time of Edward the Confessor, which are based on biographies of that King written in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. From the statements in these sources Mr. Hall infers that the Treasury organization under the Confessor was similar to that of the twelfth century. But he presents no evidence to show that the biographer of the twelfth century is not describing the Exchequer as it existed in his day, rather than in the time of King Edward. Non-contemporary chroniclers of the Middle Ages did not take pains to make such incidental references to institutions of the past conform to facts.

Chapter ii. contains an account of the contents of the mediæval treasury—the coin, regalia, plate, and records. From the earliest times national records were kept for safety in the king's hoard. Those at Westminster were first carefully arranged in 1327. The author briefly describes some of the principal categories of records and the manner in which they were stored away.

The "Exchequer House" and the "Officers of the Exchequer" are the titles of chapters iii. and iv. respectively. Mr. Hall thinks that, during the twelfth century, the chief Exchequer building was in the river-garden of Westminster Palace. His description of the upper and lower chambers is derived from the well-known account given by the author of the 'Dialogus de Scaccario.' The ancient Exchequer buildings were much changed after the end of the thirteenth century, the "upper chamber," or "Exchequer of Account," being removed from the premises occupied by the "lower chamber," or "Exchequer of Receipt." Occasionally it was found necessary to locate the Exchequer temporarily at some other place. For example, in 15 Edward II., the paraphernalia of that institution, including eighteen cart-loads of records, were removed to York, owing to the exigencies of the Scotch war. The letters printed in chapter iv., relating to the domestic affairs of certain Exchequer officers, do not seem to be very instructive or valuable.

The "chess game," or mode of reckoning accounts on the Exchequer table, is described in the next chapter. The author follows the 'Dialogus' in seating seven officials at the head of the table, within a space of about two and one-half feet. It is unfortunate that the explanation of the diagram illustrating the method of computation at the Exchequer (p. 115) seems to contain errors. It is not clear how the lower line of the figure can represent a deficit of £14 17s. 4d. That there is something wrong with Mr. Hall's calculation or statements is evident from the fact that he makes the same diagram represent a deficit of £3 1s. (p. 221). Apart from this dubious two-fold use of his illustration, there is certainly an error in his computation on page 221; for the combination of dots or counters in the fourth row makes £12 19s. 2d. (cf. p. 129), not £12 18s. 2d. We fear that many uninitiated readers will fail to comprehend "this formidable-looking cryptogram," though Mr. Hall made the meaning of the "dot-system" quite plain in volume vii. of the Pipe Roll Series. In vol. iii. of the Pipe Rolls he did not seem to accept the ordinary view that the Exchequer table in the twelfth century was covered with a checkered cloth or had the appearance of a chess-board, but in the work before us this view is adopted. It would be interesting to know whether he has found any new material that has led to this apparent change of opinion. The author of the 'Dialogus' presents no clear evidence in favor of either view.

Chapter vi. ("Exchequer Problems"), which is mainly an abstract of book ii. of the 'Dialogus,' contains an account of the Pipe Rolls, summonses and writs of the Exchequer, testing of coin, etc.; and chapter vii. ("The Making of the Budget") gives a brief history of the sources of royal revenue in the Middle Ages. The latter is one of the best chapters in the book, though it contains some doubtful speculation. On p. 178 we are informed that there is no evidence to show when or how the old folk-lands became crown-lands; but on p. 204 this change is said to have occurred at the end of the ninth century. On p. 205 the author speaks of the Laws of Edward the Confessor as though they formed an authentic code, made by that monarch "with the approval of his wise men"; but historians now agree that they are a private compilation of the twelfth century.

It is clear, from what has been said above, that Mr. Hall's work is wanting in scholarly accuracy and critical method. It is also disappointing to find, in a book claiming to give "original" results, very few references to the sources from which the material has been obtained. For example, an interesting document is printed on pp. 25–28, which "is translated here from the Norman-French of the original record"; but we are not told where the record may be found. Another striking defect of the book is the author's obscure style. Every chapter is marred by many misty phrases and sentences. The following are a few of them: "the next fifty years," p. 8; "the Tower," pp. 33–34 (it seems at first view to mean the Tower of London, but apparently this is not the meaning); "only a century later," p. 38 (later than what?); "contents of the record repository," p. 49 (what repository? He has spoken of several; cf. pp. 35, 60); "the records deposited in the royal treasury were preserved in similar receptacles to the bullion," p. 49; "former" and "latter," p. 60; "King Edward's day," p. 65 (Edward the Confessor or Edward I.?); "throughout the reign," p. 72 (what reign?); "between the two," p. 80; the definition of a tally, p. 120; "placing a counter in every tenth place for intervening units in the second and third columns," p. 127; "on each of these rotulets lines were ruled, ample space being left between each, and also between the top and bottom of the joint membranes," p. 139; "both items," p. 169; "their" (apparently referring to "the alien"), p. 199; "the etymology of the word," p. 200 (what word?); "these early records," and "of the latter," p. 201.

In the preface the author intimates that the older historians of the Exchequer are too erudite to be intelligible to ordinary readers. But they will probably find Madox and Thomas easier to understand than Hall; and learned readers will long for some of Madox's formidable foot-notes and cautious reasoning. In closing the volume before us, we feel that it contains some valuable results, which cannot be found in older works, but that a better book should have been produced by a writer who is regarded by many as the best recent authority on the history of the Exchequer. Forthcoming volumes of this series should be written in either a more popular or a more learned style, and they should be provided with better indexes.

Mutual Thrift. By J. Frome Wilkinson. [Social Questions of To-day Series.] London: Methuen & Co. 1891.

THE virtue of providence is the cornerstone of human progress. Like charity in the realm of ethics, it is in the economic world the greatest of virtues, without which the others profit nothing. It is not the most amiable of traits; the prudent man may be sometimes avaricious, envious, harsh, and mean. His conduct does not give color to life or furnish subject for romance. His aim may be narrow and his motive selfish, but he renders to society a service that is indispensable to its advance. Moreover, his habit of mind becomes inevitably, as a rule, bound up with the reproductive instinct, and comprehends the welfare of the family as well as of the individual. Nor does the broadening of this form of egoism stop here, for it is the lesson of civilization that the good of the individual is best attained through the welfare of

others. It is to a particular application of this general principle that Mr. Wilkinson has devoted this most instructive volume, his text being that "by the contribution of the savings of many persons to one common fund, the most effectual provision can be made for casualties liable to affect all the contributors."

The extent to which associations for this purpose have been formed in England is amazing. Mr. Wilkinson has not included either the co-operative societies or the trade-unions, and he takes no account of deposits in savings banks, nor of the life-insurance companies patronized by the middle and upper classes. But, with these deductions, the figures are still of the most impressive magnitude. Those friendly societies known as "affiliated orders" have a membership of over 2,000,000, and funds amounting to over £14,000,000. Twenty-six of these bodies had in 1886 an income of £2,786,000, and disbursed in sick benefits and funeral allowances £1,735,000. If we add other societies, we have the enormous total membership in societies insuring for sickness as well as death of 4,394,696, with funds amounting to over £20,000,000. In addition to all these, there are "collecting" societies, which are intended to provide only for burial expenses, with a membership of over 3,500,000, but with funds amounting to only about £2,500,000. With large allowances for double membership, it yet appears that these societies are now insuring over 6,000,000 persons, or more than one for every family not possessed of affluence in the United Kingdom.

In the class of societies insuring against death should apparently be included the "Industrial Assurance" societies. The largest of these are stock companies, whose stock is owned by persons other than the assured, and is extremely lucrative property. Three-fourths of the business done by these companies, which number fourteen, is in the hands of one of them, the "Prudential." The number of its policies now in force is probably 9,000,000—in other words, a fourth of the population of the United Kingdom are its policy-holders! The stockholders seem to receive annually about 100 per cent. upon the capital originally invested. The average amount insured for life is somewhat over £9, the total of insurance being about £83,000,000. The expenses of management are, however, enormous, consuming nearly one-half of the receipts for premiums. The growth of these societies has been in recent years extremely rapid. In 1878 their premium income was about £1,500,000, in 1887 it was £4,180,000. In the former year the death claims paid amounted to a little over £500,000, in the latter year the amount had risen to £1,664,000.

Mr. Wilkinson gives the insurances effected by the middle and upper classes—which are not included in the above figures—as amounting to about £400,000,000, divided among some 750,000 policy-holders. We may add that a reference to Mr. George Howell's account of the trade-unions shows that the membership of these bodies is probably nearly 1,500,000, having an annual income of about £2,000,000, and reserve funds of the same amount. Although the impression is common that these bodies aim chiefly to support their members during strikes, this is by no means the case, their principal function being to insure against less avoidable casualties. If we consider also the large sums deposited in the Government and other savings banks, it is impossible not to admit that the charge commonly brought by the English against themselves that they are a thriftless race, is a most unwarranted calumny. On the contrary, there is abundant ground for asserting that, had it not been for the mischievous effects of public and private almsgiving, the English people would have abundantly protected themselves against the pecuniary ills that flesh is heir to, and that, even as it is, the great masses of the deserving poor have so protected themselves.

We cannot follow Mr. Wilkinson in his interesting account of the origin and growth of these "mutual thrift" societies. The earlier ones were generally secret, with much mummery in their proceedings and a somewhat excessive predominance of the convivial element. Even now many of these associations have their meetings in public houses—places, it is true, not having the disrepute in England that they have in this country, but not in all respects unobjectionable. It goes without saying that the principles of life and casualty assurance were not at first understood, and that great numbers of these bodies came to grief owing to the lack of this knowledge. It is still true that these principles are imperfectly understood, and many failures now occur and will continue to occur until the lessons of experience have been generally learned. But what is especially impressive at the present conjuncture is, that these bodies have been until recently hindered and not helped by the attempts of Government to regulate their affairs.

As is well known, the jealousy with which combinations of workmen were regarded by English law was for a long time so extreme as to include associations for all purposes that were not clearly of a kind not likely to lead to conspiracies to raise wages or otherwise lessen the control of masters. Where they were not positively prohibited, the law at least refused them its assistance, as in cases where officers of these friendly societies had misappropriated the funds intrusted to them. Even when this injustice had been remedied, great injury was done to these societies by the arbitrary power of the officer to whose discretion their registration was committed. The Government, moreover, practically insisted that they should do business according to life tables that were eventually proved to be so defective that their use necessarily resulted in disaster. But the evil effects of governmental folly were most severely felt at the time when the abuses under the Poor Law were at their worst. The practice of granting allowances in aid of wages ruined almost all mutual-insurance societies where it prevailed; and yet these societies sprang at once from their ashes when the abuse was stopped. So dependent upon the virtue of their members for their success are these bodies that they seem to flourish best when most let alone. Mr. Wilkinson remarks upon the feebleness of those that have been patronized, and Mr. Howell declares positively, "No trade union started under patronage has long survived."

We would gladly dwell upon the noble work accomplished by some of the devoted men who have labored for these organizations with little reward except the establishment of the work of their hands, but we must refer those who are interested in such themes to Mr. Wilkinson's pages. Eventually these men worked out the principles upon which their business must be conducted to be enduring, and it is now only a question of time when these methods will be generally adopted. Perhaps we should rather say that it would be only a question of time were it not for the threatening aspect of the State insurance scheme. The Socialistic craze is now so strong in England that it is not improbable that this scheme, which embodies the exploded fallacies of the old Poor Law, will be adopted, in which case the most disastrous results to this magnificent structure of voluntary mutual insurance will follow. As Mr. Wilkinson impressively says, "Any legislative proposal, however plausible and helpful it may appear, that in the smallest degree lessens the healthy cultivation and exercise of the economic and moral virtues of self-reliance and self-help, as seen in the great voluntary mutual-thrift institutions of our country, will strike a deadly blow against national progress."

The Campaign of Fredericksburg, Nov.-Dec., 1862: A Tactical Study for Officers. By Brevet-Major G. F. R. Henderson, York and Lancaster Regiment. Third edition. London: Gale & Polden. 16mo, pp. xx, 145, colored maps.

The Battle of Spicheren: A Study in Practical Tactics and War Training. Same author and publishers. 16mo, pp. xxx, 300, colored maps.

THE first of these books is well known through the earlier editions, the original publication being anonymous, "by a line officer." The second is on the same general plan, being the detailed military history of the first battle on the Moselle frontier in the Franco-Prussian war. The form is compact, the printing good, the binding neat and suitable for use in camp. Both are models in their way of a good handy volume, flexible and easily packed in a valise or carried in a pocket, and yet so legible as to be read with comfort. In the matter of maps they are far beyond any books of moderate price published in this country. The outlines are clear, the indications of topography simple but good, and the positions and movements of the opposing forces are contrasted by bright red and blue colors, so that the eye follows them without hesitation or fatigue. The author's study of the official material has been conscientious, though, in the Fredericksburg, he does not conceal his sympathy with the Confederate side. This very fact will perhaps make the little book more instructive to the officers of our army, as they will be the more stimulated to independent examination of his statements and to a comparison with the full official records of that campaign, which are now published. In the Spicheren, he draws very forcibly the contrast between the uncertain and irresolute handling of the French armies, under the guidance of a general staff which he characterizes as utterly incompetent, and the systematic and strong combinations of the Germans, the fruit of the long discipline of both staff and line under the master mind and the firm hand of Moltke. The style is clear and direct, and the general reader (as well as military ones) will find it easy and interesting to follow the detailed movements of the battles described, aided so well by the comments of a competent guide and by the liberal array of charts and sketches.

Mr. Sponge's Sporting Tour. [The Jorrocks Edition.] London: Bradbury, Agnew & Co.

WHEN this book made its first appearance, just forty years ago, it was received with immense enthusiasm by youthful and sporting readers in England. *Tempora mutantur*, and though things change very slowly in the English shires, it seems scarcely possible that, even there, such dreary stuff can be admired to-day. The hero is a mean, shameless scamp, and the other characters, male and female, are either

vile or insipid; while the whole book reeks of stale tobacco and gin, and leaves a bad taste in the mouth. Even Leech's illustrations, which young gentlemen of a quarter of a century ago regarded with reverence as works of art, are "standpoints overpassed," as our German friends say. Some of the devoted followers of the anise-seed bag in this country may take an interest in Mr. Sponge's adventures, but it is to be hoped that there is no general demand for this species of literature.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aveling, Edward. The Student's Marx. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.

Criticisms on "General" Booth's Social Scheme. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.

Du Bois, Henri P. Four Private Libraries of New York. Duprat & Co.

Fulton, Rev. J. The Chalcedonian Decree. Whittaker. $1.50.

Hatton, Joseph. Cigarette Papers. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Hazell's Annual for 1892. Scribners. $1.50.

Jackson, F. G. Lessons on Decorative Design. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribners. $2.

Sterne, Laurence. A Sentimental Journey through France and Italy. London: Pickering & Chatto; New York: J. W. Bouton.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 3, 1892.

The Week.

THE United States Supreme Court in the *Sayward* case has declined to consider the question of national jurisdiction in Bering Sea outside the three-mile limit. It would be a mistake, however, to suppose that the *Sayward* case had not had a great influence in settling the dispute with Great Britain. It was a noteworthy fact that the first real steps toward arbitration were taken immediately after the *Sayward* petition was presented to the Court. Mr. Blaine had informed Lord Salisbury what the President would consider the points available for arbitration without, however, committing himself to arbitration. When the *Sayward* case came up, a purpose was manifested for the first time of really settling the question in a rational and decent way, instead of prolonging the wind-bag dispute till the next Presidential election. When the case came to argument, the Attorney-General betrayed his anxiety by announcing in open court that the terms of arbitration had been agreed upon. He offered this fact as a reason why the Court should not decide the question of jurisdiction over the waters of Bering Sea beyond the three-mile limit. The Court was evidently glad to avoid that question, but if the position of affairs had been the same now that it was when the petition was filed, the decision would perhaps have been commensurate with the actual emergency.

The decisions of the Supreme Court in the Custom-house cases involving the validity of the McKinley Tariff Act, could hardly have been different from what they are without throwing the Government into confusion and creating embarrassments of the most serious character for the past, the present, and the future. The main point decided is that the invalidity of one part of a revenue act does not invalidate the whole act. When this principle was settled, the objections to the act based upon the reciprocity clause, the omitted tobacco sections, and the sugar bounty really disappeared. Yet the Court considered the two former objections separately. It holds that the reciprocity clause did not put legislative power in the hands of the President, but merely the power to ascertain a fact the determination of which should put the law in operation. The point here is a very fine one, namely, whether the President is to ascertain a fact, or to settle his own convictions and state of mind regarding a certain concatenation of facts. Naturally the Court would, in so narrow a dispute, decide in the way that would produce the least embarrassment. Regarding the two sections that were passed by Congress (as the journals show), but were omitted from the enrolled act, the Court holds that the best evidence for the courts of what was passed by Congress is the act itself, and that it is not competent under existing laws to introduce the journals to contradict the act itself. Of course, Congress can establish a different system of interpretation if it chooses. In the Ballin-Joseph case, where the Special Worsted Act was called in question, the Court holds that the rule adopted by the Fifty-first Congress for "counting a quorum" was within the competency of Congress, and that a law passed in that way will not be declared unconstitutional for that reason only. The propriety of such a rule is not passed upon by the Court, and obviously could not be. In the same case the Court has reversed the decision of the court below, which held that the Worsted Act had not changed the duties on worsteds, but had changed the classification. It is decided now that the change of classification changed the duties *ipso facto*.

Chairman Springer's report on the wool and woollens tariff, although late in coming, is a strong document, and, if followed by a vigorous debate, will help to put the Democratic party on its feet again. That bewildered organization has been wandering hither and thither in an aimless way ever since the election of Speaker Crisp. It has been in the critical situation and desperate plight of not knowing what it wanted. In all cases where a political party does not know what it wants, the country properly says, "Then we don't want you." The question now is whether Chairman Springer and his Committee can make sufficient stir to convince the people that the party wants tariff reform, and intends to fight for it till it gets it. The wool tariff is a good place to begin. There never was any reason for putting a tax on wool. Not even the canons of protection furnish a decent pretext for it. Wool-growing needs to be let alone, and needs nothing else. This is proved by our experience and by that of Great Britain. Wool was practically on the free list from 1857 till 1863, and the business was prosperous. It began to decline when the high tariff of 1867 was adopted, and continued to decline until the free-grazing domain of the Western Territories was made accessible by railroads. In Ohio, the only State that is rabid on the subject of the wool tariff, the number of sheep has declined from 6,730,000 in 1868 to 4,061,000 in 1891. The price of domestic wool has fallen also, and in a still greater ratio, yet the pagans of Ohio are demanding a prohibitory tariff, and are telling us that carpets are a luxury, and that people who buy them ought to pay whatever price it costs to make them of American wool.

Now as to woollen goods, it should be borne in mind that the tariff of 1883 was satisfactory to the manufacturers except as to worsteds. No woollen-manufacturer would have thought of disturbing that tariff had not the pagans come forward with their demand for higher duties on wool. Consequently, to gauge the proposed bill of the Committee of Ways and Means we must take for comparison the tariff of 1883, and ask ourselves what would have been fair and equitable if the McKinley Bill had never existed, and if, instead of that, Congress had repealed all duties on wool. Tested in this way, the bill now proposed will be found to be not only fair, but generous to the manufacturers, and we venture to predict that when the debate comes on, Gen. Stevens, who is the largest individual woollen-manufacturer in the United States, and who is a member of the Committee making this report, will put to shame the organs of protection that have been whining for a month past over what they call the "ruthless cut" at their industry. The truth is, that no tariff reform will ever be accomplished with their consent. If we have to wait till they give the word, the sounding of the last trump will find us under an advancing stage of McKinleyism. The report of the Committee shows that these people declared in writing in 1867 that all the protection they wanted was 25 per cent. net. This bill gives them 35 per cent. net, and now they call it a "ruthless cut." We hope that all the tariff-reformers in Congress will lend a hand to carry this measure through.

Senator Vest's speech on reciprocity is to be welcomed, if for nothing else than the fact that it marks the willingness of at least one Democrat to resume the war upon the McKinley tariff. The managers of the Democratic party at Washington have been so busy bargaining and intriguing to get away from the man who made the tariff issue for them, that they have been so many dumb dogs thus far in the session. They know that as soon as any one opens his mouth to attack McKinley he thereby advocates Cleveland, and hence they have been keeping back their tariff bills to the latest possible moment. Senator Vest has broken the ignoble silence, and his example will give courage to members of the House in the tariff debates. He was perfectly right, too, in saying that the only defence of the McKinley Bill which the Republicans have is to point to that reciprocity clause of it which has, in so far, made the bill inoperative and void. Nor is there any dodging the point he made that the way to get real recipro-

city, the way to make a treaty which will really favor agricultural exports, is to make a treaty with the largest consumers of our agricultural exports. The Republican party could easily give our farmers a better price (because a more active demand) for their staple products in Europe, and at the same time give them cheaper clothing and other necessaries of life—all by means of commercial treaties with France and Germany and Austria. But that, of course, would be a surrender of those precious privileges of being swindled which no true American can part with without tears.

There was an important debate in the Commonwealth Club on Friday evening on the silver question. The first speaker was Mr. Louis R. Ehrich of Colorado Springs, whose recent addresses to the people of his city and State have been so highly commended, and have won for him so much reputation. Mr. Ehrich put the silver situation before his hearers in an illuminating way. He said that the decline in the price of silver was due in large part to the unnatural and artificial purchases of the United States Government. "If a crank should declare his intention," said Mr. Ehrich, "to buy $100,000 worth of Pears's soap every year and put it away, and should carry his intention into effect, the first and immediate result would be to advance the price because the demand in the market would be a little in excess of the previous supply. But the supply would soon overtake the demand, and then a contrary result would be observed. The buyers of soap would begin to be afraid of the accumulating stock in the warehouse of this crank. They would be afraid that he would change his mind and stop buying, and perhaps sell some of his accumulations. They would know that he couldn't go on buying for ever. The larger his hoard became, the more apprehensive they would be, and the more they would curtail their own purchases. So the market would be shorn of its bona-fide purchasers while this crank was giving it an artificial support. The United States, the crank among nations, has been playing the same perilous game with the silver market. It has frightened the other nations by these artificial purchases and this towering accumulation, so that all who can dispense with silver are doing so, and all are cutting down their purchases to the minimum." This diagnosis will be recognized by every financier who has knowledge of what is going on in Europe. Austria has been driven toward the gold basis by sheer terror of the American accumulation of silver. To all silver-standard countries, including India, this is as a leaning tower, liable to fall upon them at any moment. Austria will pawn everything she has in the world in order to avert that danger, and it is not unlikely that she will extract from us the gold necessary to her deliverance from it.

That the stagnant condition of our money market has some connection with the silver question is the opinion of nearly everybody who is able to form an opinion on the subject. The last London *Economist* sums up the situation thus:

"A point of considerable importance in considering the probable future of the market is that there appears to be some probability of a renewal of the flow of gold hither from the United States. It is to that, at all events, that the present monetary policy of the States is tending. Although there is a superabundance of currency, and the banks are holding unprecedentedly large deposits, yet the Government is compelled to keep adding steadily to the superfluity by the issue of nearly £1,000,000 of Treasury notes each month in payment for its purchase of silver. The natural result of that is to drive out the portion of the currency which is of use outside of as well as in the country—viz., the gold currency. Any immediate relief which the European markets may obtain in this way is, however, almost certain to be realized at the cost of subsequent trouble. The fear that the States are drifting into monetary difficulties has already disorganized the silver market, which is kept in a chronic state of apprehension lest the Treasury should be compelled to dispose of a portion of the enormous stock of the metal it has accumulated. That is the root cause of the extreme weakness of the silver market, and it is a menace also to the stability of the money market, since it is impossible to say to what devices the United States Treasury may be forced to have recourse in its efforts to maintain the parity between gold and silver."

"The root cause of the extreme weakness of the silver market" is exactly what the *Economist* points out. All the world knows that the Treasury purchase of silver must stop some time. Many people believe that when buying ends, selling will begin. In either case silver will fall ten to twenty points, and not even free coinage would stop or hinder it. Free coinage would put an end to Government purchases and leave silver to sell for what it is worth in the world's markets. It would enable the holders of silver to pay their preëxisting debts in a debased metal, but beyond such temporary cheating it would do them no good, for they could not buy a pound, a gallon, or a yard of any kind of property for future delivery except at the gold value thereof.

Secretary Noble's testimony before the Pension Bureau Investigating Committee on Friday left no doubt as to the full truth of one of the worst of the many scandals charged against Gen. Raum's management. The charge was that Gen. Raum's son had taken money as a reward for using his influence to secure an appointment in the Bureau, and in reference to this Mr. Noble said:

"The case against young Raum was very strong, for it was shown conclusively that he had taken money in consideration of securing Smith's promotion. It has never been my practice in the office to wait very long under such circumstances, and I immediately inquired for further information. I investigated the facts, and, as he was the son of the Commissioner, I accepted his resignation, and gave him time to find something else to do. I treated him as moderately as I thought the circumstances required on account of his relationship to the Commissioner, but with promptness."

When Mr. Noble was asked if he remembered the affidavits of two other Bureau employees to the effect that young Raum had demanded money of them, promising promotion in return, he replied that he could not give details, but would look the matter up. That young Raum, after having been proved guilty of one instance of blackmail, should have been permitted to resign and escape all punishment, was itself a scandal of the first magnitude, for which the responsibility rests mainly upon the President.

The following observations about the extraordinary situation of affairs at Albany are made by the *World*, which is doing its best to make it appear that the Hill-Tammany-McLaughlin-Murphy gang constitute the Democratic party for the State of New York:

"The events at Albany during the past week show the existence of a dangerous power in the hands of *four* men. It is evident from these proceedings that, as matters now stand, any legislation desired and agreed upon by Lieut.-Gov. Sheehan, Edward Murphy, jr., Richard Croker, and Hugh McLaughlin, will pass, and that any measure opposed by these men will fail. These men are essentially party bosses. They practise politics for a living—and something more—to themselves and their followers. Neither separately nor together do these men represent the leadership of intellectual and moral forces, devoted to the success of principles and the furtherance of ideas which alone make politics noble and government beneficent."

But why does the *World* not put Hill's name with the others? He is their boss, as they are the bosses of the parts of the machine which he has organized. They stand for him and his methods. They worked under his orders to pack his Convention and his delegation to the National Convention. They are working under his orders now in passing the "jobs" which the *World* is denouncing, for the main object of those "jobs" is to supply money to be used in the Hill-Croker-McLaughlin-Murphy scheme for securing the Democratic nomination for the Presidency. Those jobs are designed to enable Hill to put his hand into the public treasury to get money for campaign purposes, in the same manner that he put it in in 1886, when he took $15,000 from the $30,000 obtained on a swindling aqueduct contract. Are these "jobs" any worse than the theft of the Senate?

The *Iowa State Register*, which still assumes to be the chief organ of the Republican party in its State, although Mr. J. S. Clarkson is no longer its editor, is out with an appeal that the Iowa delegation to the Republican National Convention "be sent to Minneapolis under instructions to cast Iowa's vote solid for the great party leader whose matchless ability as Secretary of State has made the whole Administration popular at home and throughout the world." The *Register* concedes that "President Harrison has proved himself by many titles to be great," but it insists that he "is not great enough," and that the party should take "the strongest man," who is, of course, James G. Blaine. It holds that "he will poll 10,000 more votes in Iowa than any other man that can

be nominated—a gain of 10,000 for the Republicans and a loss of an equal number for the opposing candidates—and Blaine will poll about that number of votes more than any other man, in proportion to the population, in all other States." The best comment on this outburst is found in certain figures regarding the last three Presidential elections in Iowa contained in the *Tribune Almanac*, which we subjoin:

	Rep. Vote.	Opposit'n	Rep. Maj.
1880	183,927	139,138	44,789
1884	197,089	178,788	18,301
1888	211,958	192,532	19,426

It will be seen that Blaine had only 18,301 majority in Iowa in 1884, although Garfield had received 44,789 in 1880, and that even the man who "is not great enough" got a decidedly larger majority in 1888 than "the strongest man" could command in 1884.

One of the indirect effects of the expulsion of the Jews from Russia is the revival of the agitation in England for laws restricting or at least regulating immigration. This agitation attained considerable proportions after the influx of Polish and German Jews in 1881 and 1882, and again in 1884, when Bismarck began his Jew-baiting; but it subsided with subsiding immigration, so that in 1889 Charles Booth wrote: "Whatever may have been the cause for alarm presented by the immigration of the Jew, it is all over now—at least for the present." He was wise to add the last modifying clause, as the immigration has been renewed in the past year and a half in a way to excite great uneasiness. Just how many immigrants have entered England during that time it is impossible to say. A curious anomaly in English statistics is the lack of any adequate system of numbering immigrants. Masters of vessels are required to report the number of aliens on board their ships on entering an English port, and to state how many are en route to America or other countries; the inference being that those not so reported intend to become residents of England. Besides the evident fallibility of such an inference, the admitted fact has to be taken into account that the reports of the masters are drawn up in a very slovenly manner; they often enumerate only the heads of families, and in other respects leave much to be desired as an accurate or trustworthy register of immigration. Yet even these imperfect returns make it clear to Mr. Giffen that there was a "notable increase" in immigration during 1890 and 1891. Taking them, together with Board of Trade reports and testimony gathered from the administrators of the Poor Law and the Boards of Jewish Guardians, a competent writer, Mr. W. H. Wilkins, concludes that between 85,000 and 100,000 immigrants became residents of England in 1891, a very large proportion of whom were destitute.

In view of our own rigid legislation on the subject of pauper immigration, and of the similar measures which have been enacted by the great English colonies—Canada, Victoria, Tasmania—the backwardness of England in the matter appears surprising. The only Alien Act now in force is that of William IV., and this simply relates to the reporting of aliens to customs officers by ship-captains. The result is, that the only action which England can now take to protect herself from pauper immigrants, is the publishing in foreign newspapers circulating among the class from which such immigrants come of notices like the following:

> "Her Britannic Majesty's Consul-General at —— has been instructed to cause it to be made public that destitute persons intending to emigrate to Great Britain to seek employment are likely to be disappointed on arrival, the prospects of obtaining employment being very limited."

England's reluctance to do anything which might look like a retreat from her traditional position as a home of the oppressed is highly creditable, but probably will not operate much longer to prevent the passage of some law protecting herself against a pauper invasion. The labor unions are taking the matter up, no less than forty-three different organizations having passed resolutions calling for the restriction of immigration.

The Emperor William, in his speech at the Brandenburg banquet, virtually says to the German people: "You must not only do as I tell you, but you must think as I tell you." This crazy saying is addressed to forty millions of the most intelligent people on earth, including leaders of the world's thought in many departments of philosophy, literature, and science. To these men and all others he says that it has unfortunately become the fashion to criticise every step taken by the Government, so that many persons have become imbued with the idea that the country is the most unhappy and the worst governed in the world. He advises all such critics to take themselves out of the country at once. If they do not go, he does not tell what may happen, except that he intends to have his own way. All this sounds like an echo of the seventeenth century, but it should be remembered that these and similar wild utterances come from a man who is suffering from a disease which undoubtedly affects his mind. It is known that in the last week in January one of the most distinguished specialists in Germany, Prof. Madelung of the University of Bonn, was summoned to Berlin to study the Emperor's case. Alarming reports of his grave fears for the patient leaked out through the professional and official reserve which was naturally maintained on all hands. There appears to be little doubt that the Emperor suffers increasingly frequent seizures of excruciating pains in the head, or that his medical attendants are apprehensive of serious brain complications. The language which he holds is certainly much like that of incipient mania, though he would be a rash man who would undertake to discriminate, on all occasions, between a man who is merely an egregious fool and one who is an out-and-out lunatic.

Official and parliamentary circles in Berlin are much wrought up over a sweeping attack upon the methods of naval administration, made by Capt. Stenzel in a pamphlet lately published. He points to the expenditure of $110,000,000 upon the navy during the past ten years, and then asserts that the fleet has been neither augmented nor improved by that vast outlay. Some of the vessels constructed are so unwieldy that they cannot be manœuvred at all, he says, and he recalls the fact that the cruiser *Leipzig* had recently to be towed from Yokohama to San Francisco, not being able to make the passage herself, owing to badly planned and built engines. To the same cause was due the great delay of the German squadron in reaching Chilian waters during the civil war. Capt. Stenzel lays the blame of the whole upon the bad organization of the Navy Department of the Government, which he urges should be completely made over if Germany is to be in condition to fight by sea as well as land in a future war. His pamphlet is but a sharp and open presentation of what has long been hinted by various Germans in public life; and, though it is open to the suspicion of exaggeration, and of being timed so as to get a big appropriation from the Reichstag, it seems to expose a really weak spot in German bureaucratic government.

About the only tangible public property that the Argentine Republic can lay its hands upon in these days, when it is gathering together what it can out of the wreck, is its railway system and its harbor works. Both might be regarded as sound public investments, were it not that so many of the millions expended upon them stuck to the fingers of corrupt officials and favored contractors. A recent debate in Congress brought out the fact that the Buenos Ayres port has already cost something like $35,000,000, though it is not yet nearly done. The absurd extravagance of such an outlay is seen by comparison with the very similar work done at Hamburg. At that port, where one third more shipping is handled than at Buenos Ayres, the channel was deepened and quays built for one-twelfth of what has so far been spent at the capital of the Argentine Republic. Another wild scheme of the flush times was the building of the La Plata harbor, only a few miles from Buenos Ayres, where President Roca proposed to create a second Chicago. Fully $10,000,000 was devoted to building that harbor, yet it is scarcely used to-day, the total duties and charges collected there during 1891 being only about $865,000.

POWER OF THE INDEPENDENT VOTE.

CONGRESSMAN BRECKINRIDGE of Kentucky has an article in the *North American Review* which Democrats who despise independent votes, and think their party has no need of them in a Presidential campaign, will do well to read. He is writing as to the issues which will be decisive in the next campaign, and, after beginning with the suggestive remark, "Assuming that the Democratic party has not already thrown away the Presidency," he goes on to say:

"In each Presidential contest there must be some leading issue or issues; and to select wisely and skilfully the issue to be made pre-eminent in a particular canvass is becoming more important because of the increase of those troublesome voters upon whom party ties sit lightly, but who reserve to themselves the privilege to vote as they please. And it is not exaggerating the importance of this increasing class of voters to say that they have much to do with the formation of issues in a given canvass. They hold the balance of power."

The main issue in the approaching canvass will be the tariff, he says, and the particular form in which it will be presented "will depend upon the action of the present House, and largely upon the past history and present views of the candidates selected by the Democratic party, and somewhat upon the platform adopted by our Convention." He warns the leaders of both parties, especially those who control the party machinery, that the "people understand this question, are in earnest about it, and cannot be fooled by careful but ambiguous declarations in platforms, or speeches in obscure rhetorical and oracular phrases," adding:

"For two months the country has been in a condition of expectancy; thousands of independent voters in a state of uncertainty. This will not continue long, and that party will win which soonest impresses upon the country that it is sincere and will follow its convictions to their logical results."

Every observer of political sentiment during the past few weeks knows how true that statement is—knows also that the state of uncertainty with very many independent voters is approaching a state of decision against the Democratic party. The do-nothing policy in the House, the seat-stealing and jobbery at Albany, the Hill Convention and Hill delegation, are filling thousands of independent voters with such disgust for the Democratic party that nothing, except the best of behavior by that party in the near future, can win them back. Mr. Breckinridge points out that these voters have no party ties to bind them. "They care but little," he says, "as to the party which holds power, and nothing as to the persons who fill offices, but much as to the success of views which they hold to be superior to party affiliations." All that is true, and when Mr. Breckinridge says that the Democratic party needs the aid of these voters in order to win, he might have gone further and said that it needs also the support of the independent newspapers, daily and weekly, in the prosecution of its campaign. Think, for example, of trying to carry the country for a Democratic candidate with all the illustrated newspapers arrayed in solid mass against him. How are the independent voters, whose votes "hold the balance of power," according to Mr. Breckinridge, who is a first-rate Democratic authority, to be persuaded to support the Democratic cause if all the independent newspapers are arguing against it?

The most foolish mistake which the "regular" politicians make is in despising the independent vote because it is small. It does not need to be large to decide an election in this State. Ten thousand independents make a change of 20,000 votes in the result, and even a Hill-Tammany man will be forced to admit that there are as many as that in this State. In a national election, which always calls out in New York State a much larger Republican vote than ever appears in a State election, the loss of 10,000 votes to the Democratic party would mean defeat in this State. Instead of only 10,000, however, there are from 50,000 to 100,000 such voters in the State, as the figures of State and national elections since the war conclusively demonstrate. There are more of them in this State to-day than ever before, and the same thing is true of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and in fact every Northern State. Many of them parted company with the Republican party in 1884 because of Mr. Blaine's nomination, and many more of them have been shaken in their allegiance to the same party because of the McKinley tariff abomination. All of them, however, would go back to it instantly were the Democrats to make such a nomination as that of Hill, or Gorman, or any candidate whose position on the money question is doubtful.

In addition to these Republican Independents, there are in New York State many voters of Democratic affiliations who are to-day in open disgust, if not in open revolt, with their party because of the Hill-Tammany-McLaughlin-Murphy domination. If any one doubts that, let him look at the town elections and see for himself. In 1890, on the tariff issue squarely and honestly put, the Democrats carried this State in the Congressional elections by an aggregate majority of 75,000. In 1891 they carried it again, with the aid of many tariff-reform and independent voters whom Mr. Cleveland's personal leadership brought to Mr. Flower's support, by a majority of 47,000. In the town elections of this winter, there has been a complete revolution, and the Democrats have lost more than 30 per cent. of the strength which they showed in the same elections of a year ago. That is sufficient evidence that a large percentage of the regular Democratic voters is dissatisfied with the present policy of managing the party as if it were an association of brigands.

Mr. Breckinridge, like every other politician worthy of the name, recognizes the fact that in every campaign each party seeks to win success by attracting to its support the voters who are not "regular." The "regulars" of both parties are never appealed to: they are sure to vote with their party under any conditions; but no politician claims that either party has enough of such voters to enable it to carry an election. In fact, if there were enough of them, there would be no necessity for making a campaign. All the arguments in speeches and documents, all the mass-meetings of a campaign, are designed, not to influence the regular voters, but to persuade the undecided and doubtful voters. That is admission by the professional politicians themselves that the doubtful voters constitute the deciding force in the election. Yet the Hill-Tammany proposition is to drive the entire body of these voters to the opposite party before beginning the campaign!

THE BAILIWICK OF THE BAR ASSOCIATION.

IN an interview with Mr. Wheeler H. Peckham, in the *Times* of February 24, he said, if correctly reported, that "the Bar Association of this city had no jurisdiction over Justice Maynard, and could prefer no charges against him; that he did not live in New York, and was not a member of the Association; that the Committee on Grievances [of the Association] was instituted for two purposes: to prefer charges against members of the Association, and to prefer charges against lawyers not members of the Society, but within its bailiwick, with the view of bringing them before the General Term of the Supreme Court for disbarment."

Now, if we remember rightly, it was the Bar Association which set on foot and prosecuted to conviction the impeachment of Judge Barnard in 1870. It is true that Barnard and Cardozo were both Judges of the Supreme Court in this district, and, therefore, strictly speaking, within the bailiwick of the Bar Association; and it may be, therefore, that the Bar Association would be within its right in leaving to the bar of other districts the duty of impeaching judges guilty of misconduct in office in such districts. But the jurisdiction of the Court of Appeals covers the whole State. Its decisions settle the law, without further recourse, for the whole State. One of these has just deprived the city of New York of one of the most valuable public bequests ever made. There is hardly any case of importance involving life, liberty, or property which does not go up to it for final judgment. The judges of the Court are therefore within the bailiwick of all the bars and all the bar associations of all the judicial districts. Every lawyer of the State of New York and every lawyer's client, as well as the public at large, have a deep interest in the composition of the Court and in the fitness and good behavior of its judges. It was largely through the exertions of the bar that the amended judiciary article lengthening the terms of the judges was submitted to the people and

passed in 1869, and it has been owing largely to the influence of the bar that both the great political parties have, during the last twenty years, concurred to a very great extent in ceasing to treat seats on the bench of the Court of Appeals as simply party spoils. In fact, if the bar got into the way of considering the character of the highest court as no concern of theirs, where should we be? What other body or person is competent to pass on the fitness of the judges? Of what other body or person are lawyers willing for one moment to admit the competency as critics of the judges? Certainly not the newspapers, for lawyers treat press comments on legal decisions with ridicule and contempt.

The special function of the "Committee on Grievances" of the Association is of no great consequence in a crisis like the present one, in view of the fact that among the "objects" of the Bar Association, as defined in its Constitution, are "to maintain the honor and dignity of the profession of the law, and to increase its usefulness in promoting the due administration of justice." It does not require any straining of language to conclude that the appearance on the bench of the highest court of the State of a judge accused, in a judicial proceeding, of grand larceny in the second degree, committed in order to aid in the perpetration of an election fraud, seriously touches "the honor and dignity of the profession of the law." Nor can any man be very far astray who holds that such an appointment does seriously impair "the usefulness of the profession of the law," and seriously interfere with "the due administration of justice."

Of course, it may be said, and probably will be said, that Judge Maynard's offence having been committed, if committed at all, before he became a judge of the Court of Appeals, it affords no opening for an attack on him as a judge; that the real grievance to be assailed is the abuse of the appointing power committed by Gov. Flower. But this is really a distinction without a difference. It is, and we trust always will be, the presumption of both lawyers and laymen in all civilized countries, that a man who bears the burden of an unanswered criminal charge is, *ipso facto*, unfit for a high, or indeed any, judicial office. It makes no difference how he gets the office as long as the accusation is unrefuted. Of his failure to answer it every citizen and every lawyer is bound to take notice.

We have tried, before making these remarks, to get hold of some of the addresses made by eminent lawyers at the opening of great gatherings of the legal profession in this and other States, and to the graduating classes of law schools. It is in these discourses that one finds the duties of the bar towards the community set forth with most fulness and solemnity. We have, however, not had time enough for a successful search. We may return to these documents hereafter. But we venture to affirm, without being able to quote at this moment, that they lay on the lawyer a burden of responsibility with regard to *everything* that concerns the life, liberty, and happiness of the citizen, which any profession might be proud to bear, but with which no other profession is honored. They confine this responsibility within no "bailiwicks" or districts. They make it as broad as the State, and, in some of its aspects, as broad as the civilized world. Wherever there is a fountain of justice they put lawyers on guard over it, to see that, no matter in what direction it may flow, it shall not be defiled on any pretext whatsoever.

From this point of view it looks as if the Bar Association, even if it cannot impeach Judge Maynard, ought not to allow it to go down to posterity in legal annals, that an appointment like Judge Maynard's was made in this State in the year 1892 without one word of protest from the proper and self-appointed guardians of "the dignity and honor of the profession of the law." And then there is a Committee on "Judicial Nominations." Surely the functions of this Committee extend also to judicial appointments. Is there another nice distinction here?

OLD-AGE PENSIONS IN ENGLAND.

THE remark attributed to Sir William Vernon Harcourt, "We are all Socialists now," finds fresh illustration in the scheme which Mr. Chamberlain, with the backing of the National Provident League and many members of the clergy, is seriously urging upon Parliament and the country for the pensioning of all workingmen when they reach the age of sixty-five. In its original form his plan was a pretty close copy of the German model—that is, the workingman himself, his employer, and the State, were each to contribute in equal proportions to a fund out of which insurance against sickness and pensions in old age could be paid, the whole process to be made compulsory by law. But there was needed only a little public discussion to make it evident that some modifications would be necessary. First the sick-pay part of the scheme was dropped; then it was made voluntary instead of obligatory upon laboring men, and employers were freed from the necessity of contributing to the reserve fund. As nearly as can be gathered from Mr. Chamberlain's reserved intimations, the final form restricts the application of the plan to Scotland, for the present, and provides that if a workingman deposits £5 with the Government before he is twenty-five, the latter will add £15, so that the accumulations would suffice to pay a pension of five shillings a week after the age of sixty-five.

As the intention is evidently more to abolish old-age pauperism than merely to promote habits of thrift, the question at once becomes pertinent to how great an extent old-age pauperism exists under the present conditions. It has been assumed, (and, indeed, this is the basis of the whole movement), that it exists to an appalling extent. A frequently repeated statement of Canon Blackley, the head of the National Provident League, is that "one in every two of the wage-earning classes who pass the age of sixty-five dies as a pauper." Others have put it that "45 per cent. of *all persons* in England who reach the age of sixty years die as paupers." Mr. Charles Booth puts the proportion of paupers in the total population above sixty-five at 38 per cent., but he admits that his figures are misleadingly high, since he has to class as a "pauper" every one who has received any parish assistance whatever. This whole aspect of the case has just been rigorously investigated by Mr. J. F. Wilkinson. He shows how loose and exaggerated the statistics quoted are, proves that there has been a steady decrease in pauperism as a whole in the past thirty years—it was 4.7 per cent. of the population in 1859, and but 2.8 in 1889—and makes it probable that the whole number of paupers above sixty-five is now no more than 350,000 at the very highest. Thus the extent of the evil which it is proposed to remedy has been very greatly magnified at the start.

Apart from this preliminary oversight, the impracticability and impotence of the measure advocated by Mr. Chamberlain are at once apparent. The deposit of £5 or £10, as may be agreed upon, is to be entirely voluntary. Now, the very class of people who are most likely to turn out paupers at sixty-five are either naturally improvident, so that they will not make their deposit, or are so close to starvation even in youth that they cannot. On the other hand, those forehanded workmen who have savings, already enjoy opportunities for placing them where they will serve both as insurance against sickness and a pension after working days are over. They have the Post-office system of annuities, and, above all, they have their own Friendly Societies. These societies have now a membership of about 4,500,000, and funds amounting to no less than £20,000,000.

It is precisely from these organizations that the most effective opposition to Mr. Chamberlain's plan has come. They stand for the principles of thrift and self-help and coöperation, and have let it be clearly known that no bill can go through Parliament which will interfere with the conduct and progress of their affairs. The head of the Foresters said in a recent address: "Determined opposition should be offered to preference or patronage being given to any State fund." At the same meeting the following resolution received the votes of all the 721 delegates present:

> "The question of superannuation has also come to the fore from the interest lately evinced in the subject by the Right Honorable Joseph Chamberlain, M.P.; but it should be well understood that State aid means State interference, and we are of opinion that no such thing will be tolerated by members of Friendly Societies."

In the same tenor were the remarks of

the Master of the Manchester Unity at the annual meeting of that great society:

"We have no desire to see set up another great Government Department, with its army of officials, to further tax the community under the plausible profession of benefits to the aged."

Mr. Chamberlain has endeavored to meet the objections of these organizations of workingmen. At their behest he has abandoned the compulsory character of the measure as originally conceived, and has attempted to annex their own pension system to his Government plan. But to do the latter, it would be necessary to have a Government inspection of the affairs of the Friendly Societies, and that they would never assent to. In fact, his scheme is now so cut down from its first magnificent proportions that it has little to recommend it except its sentimental aspect. Mr. Morley lately said that he "thought the man or the party who solved the question of preventing a man who has worked hard all his life, maintained his family, has been a good citizen, from going in his old age to the workhouse, would deserve more glory than by winning battles on the field." In this he expressed a feeling which is highly commendable, but which is no excuse for running into Socialistic schemes that will not bear examination.

RECONSTRUCTION IN IRELAND.

LONDON, February 15, 1892.

THE two last and the present sessions of Parliament have, regarding Ireland, opened in manners diametrically different—that of 1890 in assured hope and enthusiastic confidence; that of 1890-91 in the blackness of despair; the present, with a feeling of encouragement, especially if we consider the results of the English by-elections, yet not without a grave conception of the magnitude of difficulties before us when we remember the Parnellite success at Waterford. To most of the Irish members there appeared no possibility of difference regarding Mr. Parnell's duty and the right course to be pursued when, in November, 1890, they determined to bring him to book regarding the O'Shea verdict and his attitude towards the Liberal party and themselves. If their mental vision was then unsealed, and for the first time the selfishness of spirit to which he had declined stood fully revealed before them and the world, they also realized as they had never realized before his consummate adroitness and superb resource. A difference hinging entirely upon personal conduct of his which could be defended by no one, was, in a speech of a few minutes and in a short manifesto, made to turn upon totally different issues. They, not he, were put upon their defence. He recognized the subsistence of tense cords of feeling in the Irish heart which they thought had been for ever unstrung, and the growth of others of which they had been unaware. Suspicion and hatred of English parties and of the English people were again aroused. The cry of "No priests in politics" was raised when it was found that the priests were opposed to him. The issues before the country were deliberately confused.

The history of Irish affairs since has been the history of an effort, in the main successful, to reëstablish the Irish movement upon the basis, and carry it forward upon the lines, which Mr. Parnell himself had originally laid down, but which he and his followers had so strangely abandoned. His and their object thenceforward was to uproot the very foundations of an agitation carried with infinite toil, at infinite sacrifice, through twenty weary years almost to success. The crisis was desperate. The organization of the National League remained in Mr. Parnell's hands. The principal organ of public opinion in Ireland—theretofore also the organ of the Catholic bishops—supported his policy, and dared his opponents (the majority of the Irish party) to show their faces in Ireland. On the side of the nation as against a man, Davitt was more of a philosopher than an organizer. Sexton, supreme as a parliamentarian, was ill-fitted by disposition to face mobs and blackthorns. Dillon and O'Brien were in America, and on their return, after futile attempts at a settlement, went into prison with words of doubtful import on their lips. Justin McCarthy, the new chairman, whom every one respected, was not the man for a rough-and-tumble fight. It was Mr. Healy in the main that saved the situation. If the storm was to be faced and beaten down, it was he that stood in the forefront. If within a few weeks a daily organ, the *National Press*, was started, and the reorganization of the country set about, if within a few months the *Freeman's Journal* was compelled to swing into line with the majority of the nation—to him, more than to any other man, was the credit due. And yet, by the violence of his language, Mr. Healy was between many a cause of profound difference, and he is pointed to by the Parnellites as a permanent impediment in the way of reconciliation. There can be little doubt that his writings and utterances alienated many sensitive souls, incapable of perceiving that extravagance of language in support of right cannot warrant men in turning their backs upon the right. The question they should now ask themselves is, not whether they might not have preferred to have the crisis met in a spirit of complaisant and respectable amiability, but whether, remembering the language used by Mr. Parnell himself at the outset, and the course of action embarked upon by him and his adherents, it would have been possible, with any chance of success, so to have met it. That Healy and men like him are hated by the Parnellites not on account of their language, but in proportion as they are dangerous opponents, is proved by the fact that just as Dillon, O'Brien, and Davitt, whose language has been studiously moderate, have come to the front, they have come to be hated in like manner. Scarcely worse treatment has by howling crowds in the streets of Dublin been meted out to Mr. Healy than has been meted out to men who, by their desire for forgiveness and reconciliation, have run the risk of being considered half-hearted.

Nevertheless, the time has now come when scornful invective and denunciation had better give place to moderation. Mr. Parnell died, worn out by his own frantic efforts to undo his life's work, all by which he will yet be remembered. The evil passions resuscitated by him still bear sway in the breasts of his followers, and operate to a dangerous extent in many of the Irish constituencies. A daily paper has been set on foot to sustain and advance the cause of faction. It must indeed be difficult for Irishmen abroad to understand why there should not again be unity in the Irish party. If they withhold their help and countenance until there is union, if they hold their reason in abeyance in judging as to which side is deserving of their confidence and support, they will fall into the same error as that into which British statesmen for so many generations fell. Union is no more possible in Ireland than in other countries. If it is necessary that she should in Parliament be represented for the present by a homogeneous body of representatives, and if there is no longer any question regarding Mr. Parnell's leadership, the only intelligible basis of union that remains is that the minority should subordinate their feelings to those of the majority. More especially is this to be demanded when all the best-known and best-tried men—those who have striven longest and suffered most—are to be found on the side of the majority. Well might Irishmen stand in doubt if Davitt, Dillon, O'Brien, McCarthy, Sexton, Healy, Sullivan, or one of them, advised union with the minority. The minority is largely composed of fresh additions to the ranks of the National party. The task they set before themselves and the country is to sweep the majority from political life; upon the strength of their own character and services to build up a pure and reliable party; to hamper, embarrass, and destroy the Liberals; to begin again where Mr. Parnell himself began, but without him, without the power of parliamentary protest possible under the old rules, without the possibility of resuscitating a land agitation.

Surely, there never was a wilder programme placed before any people. If we cannot but admit that many of them are honest and devoted, we are driven to the conclusion that they are carried away by some aberration of mind almost amounting to political lunacy. Their main reliance is upon the chivalrous devotion of the Irish people to the memory of Mr. Parnell; upon a feeling against clerical dictation, wholesome enough in itself, if not warranted in the present juncture; upon national pride as against what they style Mr. Gladstone's interference in our affairs. Reason is being held in abeyance; feeling is to take its place—such feeling as led the French to receive Napoleon back from Elba and to elect his nephew; such feeling, if we are to judge from a remarkable article in the January *Atlantic*, as swayed the slave States when they went into rebellion. All hope of settlement in our day and generation would be at an end if such feeling moved the majority of the Irish people.

That it does sway large numbers with a depth and fervor blinding to all best national interests is deeply to be deplored. Strange as it may appear, Parnellism is confined more to town than to country districts, where the people gained most from the agitation of the past twenty years. We always looked forward under home rule to Mr. Parnell leading the conservative instincts of the country against the towns; in place of which in his extremity he appealed to the radical and revolutionary instincts of the towns against the country. So long as the Parnellites can sustain their daily organ, the *Independent*, the longer the general election can be adjourned, the better for them and the Conservatives. They are now a much more potent factor in Irish politics than they are likely to be after the electors have dealt with them. The advent of the Liberals to power, and the introduction of a satisfactory Home-Rule Bill, would entirely cut the ground from under their feet. Poor as has been the success of Mr. Balfour's Land Act, the agrarian movement is apparently breaking down under present complications. Ireland is not the fashion to the extent that she was. These considerations undoubtedly carry weight in Conservative counsels. Nevertheless, the

Liberal leaders and the English people, however discouraged regarding Ireland, have undoubtedly grasped the principles upon which alone the Irish difficulty can be solved. The anticipations of their opponents will be belied. Present trials and difficulties reveal more clearly than would under previous conditions have been possible, the real opinions of the Irish people. Much is now being brought to the test and fought out that would otherwise have had to be left in doubt until after the establishment of home rule. And, after a general election, whatever measure is accepted as final by a large majority of the Irish people is much more likely to be lasting and final than if it had been accepted by a majority elected merely upon the fiat of Mr. Parnell. D. B.

THE DRINK QUESTION IN GERMANY.

DRESDEN, February 18, 1892.

A NEW idea is just getting above the horiz n of German thought. A body of citizens, small in number, but containing a large proportion of the thoughtful and competent observers of the social situation, are by no means content with the drinking habits of the people. They believe that, even if violent drunkenness is still rare, the physical and moral fibre of the nation is being weakened from year to year; and it is this sentiment which has now found expression in the recent Bill for the Repression of Drunkenness. The fact that agitation on the subject has been able to reach the Reichstag, has been commended by the Emperor, and has been supported by some of the most important persons in the State, certainly makes a very important incident in German social history, and I use the present moment of discussion to point out what seem to me the social influences and movements which lie behind the bill.

The contents of the present bill make up a strange mingling of some proposals which to an American seem very elementary, with others which seem very harsh. It is curious to hear the appeal to personal liberty made at such different points in different lands. The American citizen has grown accustomed to having his liberty infringed in the case of drink, but thinks of Germany as a monument of Governmental interference because it has State railways and telegraphs and compulsory army-service. The German, on the other hand, takes these institutions as in the course of nature, and is even willing that the State shall put drunkards under guardianship and sequestrate their estates; but he draws the line of personal liberty at his own right to unlimited beer. Much more interesting, however, than the fate of the present bill is the question what the influences are which lie behind it, and which will remain of importance even if the bill is wholly lost. These influences appear to be of two kinds: first, the growth of organized temperance organizations in Germany; and second, and much more effective, the serious impression felt by many of the best-informed citizens that a social crisis for the country is near at hand in which the liquor question must have its part. As to the first of these influences, the story for Germany is short, and, until very lately, insignificant. Most of the movements which have got any foothold in Germany have come to it from without. The Blue Cross organization has come over from Switzerland and secured some little following among evangelical Christians in Germany. The Good Templars have come down from Denmark and have a limited membership in Schleswig-Holstein. An International Temperance League has been organized within the past year with its bureau in Denmark, and has begun the publication of a monthly journal devoted to the cause (*Internationale Monatsschrift zur Bekämpfung der Trinksitten*). Three small societies rally the German total abstainers, one under the lead of Prof. Forel, the director of an insane asylum in Zürich, one under Prof. Bunge, a physiologist of Basel, and one directed by a most devoted and intelligent leader in all social reforms, Dr. W. Bode of Dresden. Of these societies the Swiss stands more especially for State prohibition, and the Dresden Club for personal influences. Each branch is active with tracts and periodicals, but none of the three numbers more than seventy members.

The only considerable temperance association is the "Verein gegen den Missbrauch geistiger Getränke." This society, founded in 1883, may be said to have a real social importance. It numbers about 10,000 members, grouped in some thirty local associations. Its membership is almost wholly recruited from the educated and influential class. Among its first supporters were the Emperor Frederick, Gen. von Moltke, Field-Marshal Herwarth von Bittenfeld, and the Oberbürgermeister Miquel, now Prussian Minister of Finance and one of the most important persons in Germany. It has also among its members many physicians, prison officials, directors of asylums, pastors concerned with missionary work, charity experts like Dr. Emminghaus of Gotha, economists like Prof. Böhmert of Dresden, and many other persons brought professionally or by their philanthropic activity into close relations with the question of drink. This society demands no pledge of abstinence; indeed, at its Congress last summer in Bremen, wine was served on the tables. It calls for nothing more than a general interest in moderation, and unites all who feel the social danger of drink. The present Emperor, following the example of his father, has formally expressed the hope that this society may prosper. It is in reality the parent of the present bill, for which it has repeatedly petitioned. As early as December, 1887, it formulated its wishes in almost the same language. The law now proposed may thus be fairly described as offered to the country by its expert philanthropists, and as having its strength through the social position of a few of its adherents.

Yet this amount of direct agitation is not, I think, sufficient to account for the new interest in the drink question in Germany. Quite apart from the efforts of these reformers, there seems to be an impression in many minds that both the money and the physical strength of the people are being seriously wasted, and this, too, at a time when both are terribly needed. The fact is that the nations of Europe are now engaged in a contest for life itself—a contest which has been until very lately for military supremacy, but which has now been abruptly and happily transferred to the field of trade. The demand in each country is so great, the competition so close, and the results may be so portentous, that intelligent men are setting themselves to consider every factor of the case which may have any weight; and in Germany, at least, many observant persons have come to see that one important factor is the drink-habit. The nation which first checks the present increase in the use of liquor will have, it is seen, a tremendous advantage both in physical and economic warfare. The first newspaper article which suggested to me that the Germans were aware of the social danger of drink was, curiously enough, the *Army Journal*. It described the autumn manœuvres at Erfurt, where a detachment of reserves was called out to take part in those days of vigorous drill. These men, summoned thus abruptly from their ordinary pursuits, soon showed that they were in poor physical trim and quite unfit for active service; and the military critic attributed this fact to the inactive, beer-drinking habit of life into which they had sunk. "Unless," he wrote, "Germany redeems herself from the saloon, she will look in vain for competent defenders when the test of war is to be met. A man cannot rise from his 'Kneipe' and fight well for his fatherland."

This judgment, made from the military point of view, appears even better justified when one considers the present economic situation in Europe. Germans, on the whole, agree with their Emperor that the new reciprocity treaties begin a new period in European history. But with this change in diplomacy, a new importance is given to questions of social science. A new test of supremacy is presented. The nation, or the group of nations, which is internally the healthiest, the most self-contained, and the most productive, will best meet this new test. The most sober and thrifty nation will have a tremendous advantage in this industrial competition. Where, then—people are beginning to ask themselves—is there any great waste of income, and where can any saving be made? This question points directly to the drink habit. Add to this new industrial diplomacy the present extreme dearness of the necessities of food, partly the result of vicious legislation and partly of the bad harvest of the year. Bread has cost more in Germany this autumn than in any year since the so-called famine year of 1847. The common price through the last twenty years of the coarse rye bread of the country has been about two and a half cents a pound, and often it has gone as low as two cents. It has cost this autumn nearly four cents. Germany is, on the whole, a nation of poor people. In thousands of homes life is sustained on an incredibly narrow margin of income. The average income per head in the kingdom of Saxony is about $106, and there are scores of cases in the Saxon district of Zittau in which whole families of weavers, man, wife, and from one to four children, make both ends meet on $100 a year. In such a state of things a new importance is given to the question: How much does Germany spend on drink? Is it not an unreasonable amount, and does it not seriously limit both the food production and the financial strength of the country?

These questions have seemed to me so important that I have asked a most competent expert, Dr. W. Bode, to make an abstract of the imperial statistics for the year 1889–'90, bearing on this subject. The result of this examination will make the first study of the kind in Germany, and will soon be published in pamphlet form under the title of 'The German Drink Question' ('Die Deutsche Alcohol-Frage'). The facts which will there be described in detail are, briefly stated, as follows: The production of material manufactured into beer, wine, and spirits in Germany occupied in 1889–'90 just about one-fifteenth of the cultivated land of the whole country, a territory somewhat larger than the kingdom of Saxony or the grand-duchy of Baden, and somewhat smaller than the kingdom of Würtemberg. If this immense field, thus devoted to the liquor traffic, were diverted to the production of food, there might be raised on it in a year 1,637 millions of kilogrammes of rye, a quantity sufficient to make 3,272 millions of pounds of the bread on which the poorer classes chiefly live. The fifty millions of

people of Germany would be able to have of this bread 65½ pounds apiece, or a family of eight persons, 524 pounds; enough to give them their entire food for six or seven weeks. The loss in money value may be estimated at a total of 458 millions of marks—a loss to each inhabitant of 9 marks 17 pf., or to a family of eight of 73 marks, enough to pay all the expenses of a weaver's family for about eight weeks. In the direct service of the liquor traffic, agriculture, manufacture, and retailing, about one and a half millions of men are engaged, out of the twenty and one-half millions occupied in all the industries of the land. In other words, about one-quarter of the productive energy of the country is devoted to this business. The consumption of drink per head of the population gave in 1889–90 the following figures: Wine, 6.44 liters; distilled, 4.64 liters (pure alcohol); beer, 106.3 liters.

In the presence of facts of these dimensions it is in vain to say that the temperance question in Germany is not serious and pressing. Here, as in other lands, it is at least one possible key of the economic situation. Professor Schmoller of Berlin, perhaps the most important leader of the younger political economists of Germany, has expressed himself unequivocally on the subject as follows: "Among our working people, the conditions of domestic life, of education, of prosperity, of progress or degradation, are all dependent on the proportion of income which flows down the father's throat. The whole condition of our lower and middle classes—one may even without exaggeration say the future of our nation—depends on this question. If it is true that half our paupers become so through drink, it gives us some estimate of the costly burden which we tolerate. No other of our vices bears comparison with this." FRANCIS G. PEABODY.

Correspondence.

MR. COLE'S ENGRAVINGS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the closing of the series of engravings from the early Italian painters, now in course of publication in the *Century*, a desire has been expressed by several artists and amateurs of art, of high distinction, among whom I may mention E. Burne-Jones, G. F. Watts, and W. B. Richmond, to obtain from Mr. Cole a series of engravings of a still more important character, from the same epoch of art in which he has shown so thorough an appreciation and such masterly power of reproduction in the *Century* engravings. Those who have followed the series will have noticed that in the course of the publication there has been a curious diversity in the style of the engraving, which is not explained by the relation of the prints in their order. The reason for this is, that when Mr. Cole went to Europe, he fell first under the influence of the later painters of the Italian school, and began his work in the Louvre, with the "Entombment of Titian," Da Vinci's "Mona Lisa," etc., and it was only when he had been some time in Italy and had become acquainted with the earlier painters, that he entered fully into the spirit of the Italian Renaissance, and his engraving from that time changed its character entirely, as will be seen by the reproductions of Gentile da Fabriano, Duccio, Botticelli, Mantegna, etc., etc., and the engravings which come later in the course of his work are certainly the most masterly and conscientious transcripts to black and white that have ever been made from that school. Mr. Burne-Jones says of them that they are better than any photograph; Mr. Watts says that they are incomparably the best renderings of early Italian art ever made. M. Hébert of the Académie de France has said to me, among other most flattering expressions, that "line could go no further in fidelity to the spirit of the originals." Richmond says that they are incomparable in their truthfulness; and old Cavalcaselle, the veteran critic of Italian art, says that they are the best reproductions of their epoch ever made.

Mr. Cole would be glad to be enabled to do, at a living price, a series of prints four times the size of those in the *Century*, from the earlier painters, and from works either never reproduced or unsatisfactorily reproduced; and I propose, on behalf of the admirers of Mr. Cole's work, to call for subscriptions for a series of wood-engravings which I believe would be the most important reproductions of the noblest school of painting the world has ever seen, both as to size and fidelity. The blocks would be about ten by sixteen inches, and it is proposed to limit the edition to 250 copies. Mr. Cole desires to make the series of twelve, but it seems to me that it would be better to limit the subscriptions to a series of six, which would be delivered, printed under the engraver's own eyes, for $50; and if the subscribers then desired to renew their subscriptions for another six, the way is open. Mr. Burne-Jones is confident of securing fifty subscribers in his own circle, and if 200 can be got, Mr. Cole would set about the work at once, his work for the *Century* being about completed. The half of the subscription would be payable as soon as the number is complete and the work determined on, and the other half when the prints are delivered. This is rendered necessary by the fact that the artist has not the means of support for the period in which he would be engaged in the undertaking.

If some enterprising and liberal publisher would undertake the work at his own risk, the matter would be simplified and the end of the friends of Mr. Cole's art equally attained; the only requisite being that he should be left free as to the choice and treatment of the subjects, which would be from Giotto and Duccio down.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

ROME, February 18, 1892.

THE SUFFERING IN RUSSIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was interested in your recent article on "Aid for the Starving Russians." I have already sent receipts for cooking cornmeal to Russia. They will be published far and wide, so that when the meal contributed by our generous Northwest reaches the sufferers, they will know how to deal with it. The receipts which I selected were mush, Johnnycake, and Boston rye-and-cornmeal bread. Molasses is scarce and dear in Russia, and will probably be omitted from the Boston bread, for that reason and because the taste there runs to sour, not to sweet, bread. I sent these receipts only by way of precaution. Cornmeal (*kukurúza*) is by no means unknown there. My friends in Petersburg told me that they bought it whenever they could, but I never chanced to see any on the table, or to find any in the shops, though the dealers knew what I wanted. In one of the imperial parks, near Petersburg, I have seen corn used as a fine variety of leaf-plant. One ambitious stalk had attained the height of a foot and a half, and sported a tiny ear and silk. It will not grow as grain until a hot region eight hundred or a thousand miles south of Petersburg is reached. A recent paragraph in a Russian newspaper states that cornmeal is now being shipped from Odessa to the suffering districts in the interior, and the peasants have, without doubt, already discovered some ways of cooking it, where they were not already familiar with it. There is no difficulty about grinding it, as they make several sorts of meal (*krupá*) in Russia. Oatmeal is not among them. After a long and wearisome search, when I was informed condescendingly, in shop after shop, that oatmeal was fit only for animals, I succeeded in getting a little, in St. Petersburg. I never repeated the experiment. No amount of cooking could make that improperly prepared oatmeal fit for human consumption.

The highest aristocracy of Russia is now forming into groups, proceeding in person to the villages which are distant from railways and other means of communication, and administering help to the sufferers. This has been found to be one of the most efficacious methods of rendering aid. Those who cannot go themselves are choosing the most afflicted localities, and sending their contributions to persons of whose honesty they are perfectly sure, and corresponding with them to keep track of the work. Thus, the cousin of Count L. N. Tolstoi, who writes me these details, has chosen for her sphere of activity (being of an age and health which preclude personal activity on the spot) three districts: in Saratoff, where a little hospital has been organized for women and children reduced to beggary; in Orel, where a cousin, Prince V., is distributing succor himself day and night, to prevent any deception; in Penza, where, in a very poor convent, the nuns feed and shelter between 80 and 100 starving people a day, though they have hardly enough to eat themselves. In this manner, the proper expenditure of every penny is assured and is a real benefit. The Count's cousin has raised funds for her work, among other means, by translating 'Miss Toosey's Mission' into French. She has already realized $350 and expects at least $500 from 'Miss Toosey.' It may be of interest to Americans to learn how active and practical the Russians themselves are in this crisis.—Yours truly,

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

9 EAST 22D STREET,
NEW YORK, February 27, 1892.

THE PERIODIC LAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Without detracting an iota from the fame of Prof. Mendeléef, who is one of the greatest chemists of this or any age, I may venture to correct the statement made in the *Nation* of February 4 (review of 'The Principles of Chemistry'), that this great Russian scientist was the discoverer of "the Periodic Law." In 1882, it is true, the Royal Society of London did award the Davy medal to Prof. Mendeléef, conjointly with Lothar Meyer, "for their discovery of the periodic relations of the atomic weights." This action was taken in ignorance of the fact that in 1864, a number of years before Mendeléef and Meyer had begun their investigations, Prof. John A. R. Newlands of England had pointed out the law of octaves and the periodicity of functions. For some strange reason the discovery attracted little notice at the time, but after the Royal Society had honored his rivals, Prof. Newlands claimed recognition as the original discoverer. The fact having been conclusively established, the Royal Society in 1887 awarded the Davy medal for that year to Prof. New-

lands "for his discovery of the Periodic Law of the Chemical Elements," adding, "Although in the somewhat less complete form in which the law was enunciated by him, it did not at the time attract the attention of chemists, still, in so far as the work of the two foreign chemists above mentioned was anticipated, the priority belongs to Mr. Newlands" (*vide* Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, 1887–'88, vol. 43, p. 195).

Even Newlands was almost anticipated by Beguyer de Chancourtois, who was catching a gleam of the great truth enunciated by Newlands, and elaborated by Mendeléef, when he brought out his treatise in 1863, entitled, 'Vis Tellurique, classement naturel des corps simples ou radicaux, obtenu au moyen d'un système de classification hélicoïdal et numérique.'—Yours truly, C. De K.

New York, February 5, 1892.

[If our correspondent will read carefully what the Council of the Royal Society say about Newlands, he will see that they do not commit themselves very far. In truth, the step taken by him was not a difficult one. The principal precursor of Mendeléef was, as it seems to us, that penetrating intellect, Josiah P. Cooke, who first proved that all the elements were arranged in natural series. For though his classification was not free from uncertainties, which have since been removed, nor from such mistakes as the association of borax and silicon according to the ideas of that day, yet his memoir could leave no real doubt of the general serial arrangement; and this was a great advance upon what Dumas and others had done. After the new atomic weights came in, it was inevitable that every well-informed and ingenious chemist, in speculating upon the relations of the properties and atomic weights of the elements, should be led to write the different series in a certain succession, somewhat as follows:

Li	Na	K	—	Rb	Ag	Cs	
7	23	39		85	101	132	
—	Mg	Ca	Zn	Sr	Cd	Ba	Pb
	24	40	65	87	112	137	206
C	Si	Ti	—	Zr	Su		
12	28	48		90	118		
N	P	V	As	Nb	Sb	—	Bi
14	31	51	75	94	122		210
O	S	Cr	Se	Mo	Te	W	
16	32	52	78	96	128	184	
Fl	Cl	—	Br	—	I		
19	$35\frac{1}{2}$		80		127		

It would also be remarked that the atomicities of these series seemed to be i, ii, iv, iii, ii, i. No doubt, many a chemist in those days drew up a table more or less like this, but refrained from publishing it, feeling that a great discovery was imminent. An obscure American chemist actually assigned this as a reason for not attaching his name to such a table. Yet this was all, if not more than all, that Newlands did; and his papers, in a very widely circulated journal, made no sensation.

Of all those who were puzzling over the relations of the elements, Mendeléef alone had the sagacity to discern the true scheme of relationship; and this he was aided in doing by his more profound study of the relations between their general properties. His wonderfully vivid conception of the scheme, as well as his clear perception of its evidence, is shown by the formal and audacious descriptions he gave of the properties of several elements then undiscovered, but required to fill blank spaces, and by the subsequent triumphant verification of his predictions, especially of what seemed the most wild and improbable of all—that relating to gallium. Very few inductions in the whole history of science are worthy of being compared with this as efforts of reason. The work of Lothar Meyer also has great value as supplementary to that of Mendeléef. In all branches of physics, inductions concerning periodic laws are most difficult to establish; and the pursuit of indications of periodicity leads all but the most wary of minds to some wild-goose chase. Yet how quickly and completely the periodic law of chemistry was put out of doubt!

While we are upon this subject, we may suggest that if there are atomicules that are Boscovichian points, two or more of these might attract one another according to such a law that they would approach one another in spirals without ever becoming separated; and in this way it might be supposed that the atoms of most of the existing chemical elements have been built up from a few different kinds, and that it is in this way that the relations between the atomic weights have arisen. —Ed. Nation.]

PROTECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your issue of December 17, 1891, contained some pointed remarks with regard to the action of the firm of Jas. W. Queen & Co., in complaining to the Government that certain professional persons were obtaining microscopes, ostensibly for laboratory work, and afterwards selling them to students. Their virtuous indignation over this matter called to my mind a conversation of some months since with a gentleman who told me that he had seen in an English medical journal an advertisement by this firm, offering a case of optical test lenses at a certain price, adding below that the same case was $15 more in the United States. As they are not known to be in business from purely philanthropic motives, it is probable that this American firm can not only compete with foreign manufacturers of test lenses, but can make a fair profit in so doing. The iniquitous "protective" tariff, however, makes it possible for them to demand and obtain $15 extra profit from me. Opticus.

Philadelphia, February 27, 1892.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Gen. Walker's suggestion that the Government should charge immigrants $100 each is offered, I presume, because of the widely diffused conviction that the class of immigrants we have received has debased our political life; but from a protectionist standpoint I do not consider the amount large enough. I am a laboring man, thirty years of age. I earn (say) $300 per annum, and shall probably continue to do so for ten years, making the value of my labor $3,000. I pay a tax of from 30 to 100 per cent. on my wearing apparel, furniture, tools, etc.; why should I not be protected by making my foreign competitor pay at least 20 per cent. tariff on his $3,000 worth of goods, or $600 instead of $100?—Respectfully yours,

Thos. F. Anderson.

Chicago, February 26, 1892.

SCIENCE IN AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The fine aphorism of Calgacus, "Omne ignotum pro magnifico est," has its obverse in the fact that "Omne proximum pro ignobili est." One would hardly suspect, from reading the interesting and excellent letter of Mr. Stille in your issue of the 11th inst., that the doctrines of the complex variable, of conform depiction—*zusammenhangend und in den kleinsten Teilen ähnlich*—of multiply compendent multifoliate Riemannian surfaces, with their *Windungs- und Verzweigungspunkte*, *lacets fondamentaux*, *et id omne genus*, were taught carefully and studied zealously almost within ear-shot of the writer. Yet such is the case. The enclosed conspectus shows that courses in such subjects not only are offered—there is little art in that—but are actually pursued at the University of the State of Missouri. Next year the class will meet not three times, as now, but five times per week, throughout the year, and follow in the fresh tracks of Hermite, Halphen, and Weierstrass. But even Freshman students here are familiarized with $x+iy$ and imaginary exponentals, while for the whole body of geometric discipline the researches of Bolyai, Lobatchevsky, and Riemann are regulative.—Respectfully,

William Benjamin Smith.

Columbia, Mo., February 19, 1892.

[We are pleased to learn that mathematics is so deeply studied in Missouri. The lectures of Hermite form a good introduction to the theory, and the work of Halphen to the practical side, of the doctrine of functions. As we are unacquainted with any treatise of Weierstrass capable of being used for a text-book, the study of this author (concurrently, perhaps, with that of the orations of Calgacus) cannot fail to impress us very much. Nothing is said of projective geometry, which ought to be a compulsory study where there are any compulsory studies; but we cannot expect a relatively small university to cover every branch of mathematics, nor would such an ambitious attempt be wise. We are glad the ideas of Riemann (including doubtless those of Cayley and Klein) are regulative, and that Lobatchevsky is at hand for students who wish to approach the non-Euclidian geometry by the elementary method. Bolyai is a make-weight.—Ed. Nation.]

KIRK'S ALLIBONE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Had I been aware of your rule not to print rejoinders to your reviews, I should certainly not have had the presumption to claim exemption from it. But since you have published my letter, with a reply which is calculated, however undesignedly, to convey a wrong impression as to the scope of my book and the principles on which it was prepared—a matter not exclusively of personal importance—I must ask the further indulgence of being permitted to offer a brief explanation.

The work is not a *revision* of Allibone's, and I am no more responsible for his defects than he, if he were still living, would be for mine. The evidence I found that a revision of his work would some day be necessary, led me occasionally to omit entries which could not so appropriately be inserted in the 'Supplement' as in a revised edition of the original work. This will account for the omission, among others, of Mrs. Follen's book, Allibone having mentioned her earlier works, but without dates, etc., so that what seemed to be really required was an entirely new statement in his 'Dictionary.' The omission of Miss Sheppard's name was also intentional, and was obviously necessary if my work was to have any definite limits; for Allibone had recorded her death, which occurred several years before the date at which the 'Supplement' takes up the entries under the letter S, and there was no more reason for my resuscitating her on account of his having failed to mention 'Almost a Heroine' than there would have been for my going back over the whole field of English literature in search of similar cases. J. C. Mangan's death is not mentioned by Allibone; but it occurred within his period, and hence the 'Poems,' a posthumous work, did not appear to me to call for admission in the 'Supplement.'

Several other omissions, among those which you have noticed, may be defended on the same or similar grounds. Thus, Custis's 'Recollections of Washington' was omitted because Allibone had inserted it under Washington's name, where readers would be pretty sure to look for it when they failed to find it under that of the author. George H. Derby was omitted because Allibone had inserted his books under the pseudonym under which they appeared. "Doesticks" is an entry which, in accordance with the rule mentioned in my preface, I should not in any case have made without some fuller knowledge of the personality of the writer; but you will be glad to learn that this "representative of American humor" was not "entirely ignored" by Allibone, who, on the contrary, gave a presumably full list of his immortal works under his real name—Mortimer J. Thompson.

Your suggestion that I ought to have based my statements on contemporary reviews and advertisements seems to me to involve a misconception of the comparative value of such authorities and of the feasibility of such a course. A certain number of my entries were, in fact, derived from these sources; but to have made an exhaustive research among them, especially for American books, would have been to postpone to an indefinitely remote period the completion of the 'Supplement' on the chance of adding a few hundred titles to the ninety-three thousand there enumerated, while it would not have saved me from the commission of mistakes such as I have referred to as "serious."

Very respectfully yours,
JOHN FOSTER KIRK.

PHILADELPHIA, February 29, 1892.

Notes.

A. D. F. RANDOLPH & Co. have nearly ready 'The Early Religion of Israel,' by Prof. Robertson of Glasgow University; 'The Life Beyond,' by George Hepworth; 'The New Life,' by Andrew Murray; and 'A Girl's Winter in India,' by Mary Thorn Carpenter.

Charles L. Webster & Co. will add to their "Fiction, Fact, and Fancy Series," edited by Arthur Stedman, a collection of 'Merry Tales by Mark Twain'; 'Selected Poems from Walt Whitman'; 'The German Emperor and his Eastern Neighbors,' by Poultney Bigelow; and 'Don Finimondone: Calabrian Sketches,' by Mrs. Elizabeth Cavazza.

Harper & Bros. announce 'Monsieur Henri [de la Rochejacquelein]: A Footnote to French History,' by Louise Imogen Guiney; and 'Van Bibber and Others,' short stories by Richard Harding Davis.

Worthington Co. will publish immediately a translation, by Lita Angelica Rice, of Hector Malot's 'Conscience.'

'Ground Arms!' an English version, by Mrs. Alice Asbury Abbott, of Baroness Bertha von Suttner's novel, 'Die Waffen nieder!' is about to be issued by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Dr. Prompt, author of several monographs on matters pertaining to the study of Dante, and M. Maignien, librarian at Grenoble, announce the speedy publication of a photographic reproduction of the manuscript of Dante's 'De vulgari eloquio,' which is preserved in the library of Grenoble. This is not only one of the two important manuscripts of the work in existence, both dating from about the end of the fourteenth century, but is probably the more important of the two, being that used as a basis for the *editio princeps* of 1577 by Corbinelli, whose marginal notes are still legible. The reproduction is nearly the size of the original, and makes a book of some fifty pages. Subscriptions, at seven francs, are to be addressed to M. Maignien, Conservateur de la Bibliothèque de Grenoble. Still another forthcoming publication shows the growing interest in France, long indifferent in such matters, in Dante studies. Lecène & Oudin, who recently published M. Édouard Rod's 'Dante' in their series of "Classiques Populaires," now announce Mlle. C. Augis's translation of "l'importante étude de J. A. Symonds sur *Dante, son temps, son œuvre, son génie.*"

'La Femme au point de vue du Droit Public' is the title of a work by M. Ostrogorski which has been crowned by the Faculté de Droit of Paris, and appears in the series published by Arthur Rousseau. The author has compared the electoral laws of the principal countries of the world, finding that female suffrage in its unlimited form prevails only in our State of Wyoming. In a modified form, generally as connected with the possession of property, it is to be found in the Isle of Man, in Austria, Sweden, and Italy. But in local affairs, and for special purposes, women have rights of voting in almost all parts of the earth—rights that are for the most part, except in this country, of ancient date. The author also gives the established rules for female succession to the throne, for regency, etc., and adds chapters upon the capacity of women for holding office and following various public occupations. A translation of the work is to appear in Sonnenschein's "Social Science Series."

We spoke the other day with approval of Prof. Teegan's treatise on 'Elementary Education in France,' and drew from it an augury which its readers will find confirmed in M. Jost's *Annuaire de l'Enseignement Primaire*, now in its eighth year (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.). This is, for 1892, a solid little volume of 600 pages, equally divided between statistics and personnel of the primary department, and papers on a variety of topics such as, we fear, are caviare to the majority of our primary-school teachers. One of these, "Ne bouleversons pas notre orthographe," by M. Martel, is an able and sensible objection to the proposals of French spelling reformers, and can be read with profit by our own. Of wide application, also, are the papers on "Les Musées scolaires," "Un Musée scolaire dans une école rurale." Another treats of public instruction in Tonkin; and Germany and England, with "abroad" generally, are included in the conspectus of the various contributors. At the end are to be found book reviews for 1891, geographical and scientific surveys, a necrology, and a bibliography.

From the same publishers we have the new periodical launched last month, *Revue Universitaire*, of which the object is to improve secondary education in France. M. Lavisse opens the ball with an article on necessary reforms in this direction, and Mlle. M. Dugard takes up the theme in behalf of her sex. M. Lavisse looks to a special training of professors, and would have them instructed in the current ideas of England and Germany by missionaries sent each year to report on them. Mlle. Dugard shows that in the ten years since the higher education for girls was fairly organized, there have sprung up 24 *lycées*, 26 *collèges*, and fifty courses; this in spite of much opposition, not yet wholly overcome. Extracts from Dr. W. Douglas Hogg's official report on English and French college life are begun and will be continued. The last part of the *Revue* is taken up with examinations and competitions, themes, etc., and with notes and news.

The periodical third in the scale, devoted to "l'enseignement supérieur," is the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* (A. Colin & Cie.), now in its twelfth year. In the January number twenty pages are devoted to an account of Wellesley College (Mass.), by E. Stropeno, who cannot withhold his praise from programme and performance, yet feels that in trying to give women, in Molière's language, "des clartés de tout," the college overdoes, and "virilizes" female education instead of "feminizing" the courses laid down for men. But he observes that this tendency is not confined to Wellesley or to America.

Last year's great earthquake in Japan has been studied and described, with the aid of twenty-nine photographs, by Profs. Milne and Burton, and the work has been published in that country at once sumptuously and at a low price. The seat of origin of the catastrophe was "a basin of palæozoic hills where there are neither volcanoes nor volcanic rocks," but which has a very bad record in the matter of earthquakes.

The twenty-ninth volume of Sidney Lee's 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) ranges from *Inglis* to *John*. The Scottish and English monarchs, James and John, fill a large space together, the sketch of James I. of England being from the pen of Mr. S. R. Gardiner. The editor himself writes to good purpose on Ireland and his forgeries, and Mr. Leslie Stephen deals tenderly with Jeffrey. Dr. Richard Garnett gives a very clear idea of Edward Irving's character and career. Other noticeable articles are on Richard Jefferies, Jenner, Douglas Jerrold, and W. S. Jevons. The Rev. M. G. Watkins sums up the cannibal incident which clouds the memory of Stanley's lieutenant, J. S. Jameson, on the Congo, by saying: "Of the inhumanity thus imputed to Jameson he was undoubtedly incapable, but that he was guilty of reprehensible callousness is apparent from his own version of the affair." The pugilist Jackson, "Gentleman Jackson," as he was called by the nobility whom he instructed, was employed, we are told, at the coronation of George IV., "with eighteen other prize-fighters dressed as pages, to guard the entrance to Westminster Abbey and Hall." In the notice of the second Charles

Inglis we descry an error in the thirteenth line, where "Auchnutz" is printed for Auchmuty, whose assistant at Trinity Church in this city Inglis became. *Per contra*, the biographer of William James, the naval historian, rebukes Cooper and Lounsbury for styling him an American and a renegade as well as a felon and a horse doctor; and Appletons' 'Cyclopædia of American Biography' is challenged to prove that Gen. William Irvine graduated at Dublin, for his name does not appear on the list of graduates.

It appears from a new edition of Mr. Barrie's 'The Little Minister' (John W. Lovell Co.) that the copy on which our recent review was based was incomplete. The story was published as a serial in *Good Words* during the year 1891, and the final chapters in the December number of that magazine were not in the book. Mr. Barrie, instead of leaving us in the midst of an interesting situation, tells all we could desire to know. His description of Babbie, become a most respectable person, quite adored by Thrums, perhaps properly rounds out a romantic love story, but we cannot think it so probable as the development conjectured without the author's aid. Still, we are disposed to forgive Thrums so agreeable an inconsistency.

A number of reprints are before us which do not call for many words. From the Harpers, Mr. Black's 'Strange Adventures of a Phaeton,' the second volume in the new and revised edition of his popular novels; and Sir E. Creasy's 'Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World,' which has passed its fortieth year of steady demand. From Nims & Knight, Troy, N. Y., a second edition of Mr. Augustin Daly's 'Woffington,' which has naturally found a larger number of eager buyers than the 150 to whom the first edition (1888) was confined. The volume is still of the handsomest, adorned with nineteen illustrations. From J. W. Bouton, the Aldine edition of Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey,' illustrated by Stanley L. Wood, whose designs are sufficiently clever and enhance the typographical comeliness of the book. From Percival & Co., London, 'Selections from Defoe's Minor Novels,' edited by George Saintsbury in a short introduction to pieced extracts taken from 'Captain Singleton,' 'Moll Flanders,' the 'Memoirs of a Cavalier,' 'Colonel Jack,' and 'Roxana.' From Macmillan, the 'Religio Medici, and Other Essays by Sir Thomas Browne,' in the "Stott Library's" attractive pocket form, with a portrait of Browne and a good prefatory sketch of his life by Dr. D. Lloyd Roberts. The essay on cremation ("Hydriotaphia") has a revived interest in these days. From the Clarendon Press (Macmillan), 'The Oxford Shakspere,' edited by W. J. Craig. Its characteristics are—adherence to the text derivable from the quartos and the first folio, sparing emendations by the editor, a thorough revision of the punctuation, a glossary, and a numbering of the lines by four instead of a longer interval. The plays and the poems are included. The print is fine in double columns, and thin (but not too thin) paper makes an unbulky volume of 1,264 pages, 12mo.

Prominent among the more valuable of the publications recently issued by the Bureau of Ethnology is Prof. Cyrus Thomas's 'Catalogue of Prehistoric Works East of the Rocky Mountains.' Although filling a volume of 246 pages, the list is necessarily incomplete, owing to the indefinite character of some of the earlier accounts, and to the fact that there are thousands of mounds, graves, etc., scattered about the country which are unknown outside of the immediate neighborhoods in which they exist. So far as it goes, however—and a glance at the different maps will show the distribution as well as the number and character of these works—the record is believed to be correct. This, of itself, is a great gain, and when we add that the account is supplemented by a bibliography of the explorations that have been made at certain well-known mound centres, it will be seen that the student has cause to be thankful for the volume.

The grave of Gov. Simon Bradstreet, the common ancestor of the Danas, the Holmeses, Channing, and Wendell Phillips, is the subject of the leading paper in the *Salem Press Historical and Genealogical Record* for January. Bradstreet's portrait in the Essex Institute is reproduced, and there is a view of his tomb. Mr. Perley Derby begins an abstract of the County Court records of Essex County, Massachusetts, 1636–1693, in which the curious will find fresh illustrations of the phase of lax sexual morality recently discussed by Mr. Charles Francis Adams before the Massachusetts Historical Society, as well as of the rigor of church discipline considered in the same connection: presentments of man and wife for their confessed "offence before marriage"; of a certain William Winter of Lynn, "for saying that Mr. Cobbett of Lynn taught things against his own conscience"; of several for alleging "baptism of infants no ordinance of God"; of William Goult of Salem "for unseemly speeches against the rules of the Church; set in stocks one hour and severely whipt on Lord's day"; of Jeffrey Estie "for much sleeping on the Lord's day in church," etc.

The same press has put out, to subscribers, the first part (part ii.) of a 'History of the Putnam Family in England and America,' by Eben Putnam, illustrated. The work is expected to be finished by summer. It is limited to 300 copies. "Many surprises," promises the editor, "are in store for the great body of our name. . . . Never have characteristics, mental and physical, remained so fixed as in our family." This instalment treats of the Putnams of Danvers, and has much to tell of the witchcraft delusion as related to the Putnam family. One member, Joseph Putnam, was conspicuously opposed to the witchcraft trials.

Another bit of Puritan annals is 'Early Grants and Incorporation of the Town of Ware,' by Edward H. Gilbert (Fords, Howard & Hulbert). It is very largely documentary, and has been edited with great scrupulousness and caution. Important are the four maps—one an original compilation, the others representing the grants as found delineated in the Massachusetts Archives.

Mr. Arthur G. Webster writes to us from Clark University: "In my letter last week I spoke of a course including projective geometry formerly given at Harvard, and remarked that it seemed to have disappeared. I have to-day received the pamphlet describing the mathematical courses at Harvard, and am pleased to see that the course is still announced. I am glad to correct this apparent oversight, knowing as I do that it is not the custom at Harvard to take steps backward. I had consulted the catalogue of 1891–'92, in which the names projective or synthetic geometry do not appear, the course referred to being catalogued as analytic geometry (higher course)."

—The March *Atlantic* contains an important educational paper by Prof. Palmer upon the subject of "University Extension." He reviews the character and aims of the movement in England, and has little difficulty in showing the difference in the conditions there and here, the closer dependence of the American college on the people, and the richer and more varied resources, other than collegiate, for popular enlightenment among us; and he comes in this way naturally to the crucial point that the English movement enlists as teachers sufficiently capable men of education not otherwise employed, while in America it is proposed to draft the lecturers from the body of college professors. The doubt which he therefore expresses of the success or even wisdom of our imitation of the English scheme, rests on the probability that systematic college instruction will be weakened, and its grade lowered, in consequence of submitting professors to an amount of work too great to allow just attention to their prime duties. The paper does not lack friendliness for the efforts being made to extend intellectual interest among the people at large, and in particular for the work of Chautauqua, for which Prof. Palmer says the best and most useful word. It is plain, however, that the movement, as hitherto planned in this country, owes more to philanthropic sentiment than to either popular demand or well-considered methods of enlarging the domain of education; and now, rather than later, is the time to say that University Extension must be self-supporting, if it is to succeed, and cannot safely look to the colleges for more than advisory action. Otherwise, it cannot do more than repeat, with some improvement in organization and definiteness, the old lyceum system. This, at least, is the trend of Prof. Palmer's paper, which deserves very careful consideration from those interested in the matter. A second article, interesting because of the unusualness of its tone, is by Gamaliel Bradford, jr., on the "American Pessimist"; and, in fact, it reads rather like a study for some character in a novel than like an essay. Very sane and moderate in tone, and very interesting from its autobiographical nature, is Gen. J. D. Cox's exposition of the reasons which led Northern men to embark in the civil war. It is well calculated to impress thoughtful Southerners of the present or the previous generation. For the encouragement of those who have fancied that our poetry is running too much to "technique," we must refer to the verses entitled "A Metamorphosis," which make the old reader of the *Atlantic* rub his eyes. It were tedious to specify the curious infelicities of these lines, but the concluding couplet shall serve to exemplify them with a rhyme quite novel, we think, in these pages, however well suited to the latitude of Philadelphia:

"—his eyes are mild and calm;
The lion stands confessed a lamb."

Nor is it altogether a matter of rhyme and grammar; but the entire poem, from the time when the "beast of March" is "set free from out a cloud-hung arch" of skies that are as "cold as frosted violet's eye," to the moment of the transmogrifying rhyme above, is what, in the ancient days of criticism and poets, was called "doggerel." But the old "Demon of the Threshold," whom we all know, seems to have been throttled in the ante-room by Howells's "Christmas Boy."

—The *Popular Science Monthly* for March contains nothing that will be more interesting than Prof. Davis's sketch of William Ferrel, in which there are valuable additions to the article on this distinguished physicist which appeared in our columns, and President White's fifteenth chapter in the "Warfare of Science," wherein he outlines with much force the series of great battles fought regarding the relations

of the earth to the heavenly bodies. In the early church, the earth was in its last days, and at best the heavenly bodies could only be objects of pious speculation. Wrought into the foundation of the "Ptolemaic Theory," and based upon it, there was developed in the middle ages, by means of Biblical texts and theologic reasonings, a sacred system of astronomy which became one of the great treasures of the universal Church. A triad of great thinkers, culminating in Saint Thomas Aquinas, the "Angelic Doctor," mainly reared this resultant structure of the universe, in form so final and impregnable that to attack it was blasphemy. It stood for centuries. Many will for the first time learn from Dr. White's able writing that even Luther called Copernicus the hard names of "fool" and "upstart astrologer"; while even the mild Melanchthon's 'Elements of Physics,' not published till six years after Copernicus's death, is responsible for these strange words: "The eyes are witnesses that the heavens revolve in the space of twenty-four hours. But certain men, either from the love of novelty, or to make a display of ingenuity, have concluded that the earth moves. . . . Now, it is a want of honesty and decency to assert such notions publicly, and the example is pernicious. It is the part of a good mind to accept the truth as revealed by God, and to acquiesce in it." Later, and to clinch anti-scientific ideas more firmly into German Protestant teaching, Rector Hensel wrote a text-book for schools, entitled 'The Restored Mosaic System of the World,' which showed the Copernican astronomy to be unscriptural. "Doubtless," significantly comments Dr. White, "this has a far-off sound; yet its echo comes very near modern Protestantism in the expulsion of Dr. Woodrow by the Presbyterian authorities in South Carolina; the expulsion of Prof. Winchell by the Methodist Episcopal authorities of Tennessee; the expulsion of Prof. Toy by the authorities of another Protestant sect in Kentucky; the expulsion of the professors at Beirut under authority of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions [Dr. White is in error as to the ecclesiastical control of the Protestant College at Beirut] —all for holding the doctrines of modern science, and in the last years of the nineteenth century."

—The handsome second and third parts of Mr. Gotch's 'Architecture of the Renaissance in England' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.) more than sustain the interest of the first, which we noticed some ten months ago, and bring us to the end of the first volume. The subjects are on the whole more attractive than before, and the plates have gained something in quality. Some of the photo-prints of interiors are charming in light, clearness of detail, and picturesque quality—for instance, the Cartoon Gallery at Knole House, pl. 63, in spite of some intrusive and unexplained shadows, or the drawing-room at Bradfield, pl. 23, with its door in an inside porch as in an Italian church, but set in a corner, a device peculiar to these English houses. Of the exteriors, that of Rushton Hall, pl. 50-52, is the most attractive, and is indeed a model of picturesqueness, elegance, and good design. It must be said that the only signs of the Renaissance in it are the entrance gateway and the balustrade that sits rather uneasily above the cornice. Another exterior, Kirby Hall, pl. 45, is an interesting design of John Thorpe, and shows his work curiously commingled with that of Inigo Jones. It tells, also, how early (1570) Thorpe introduced into English building the idea of a single order running through two stories or more, which was the idea that revolutionized the Italian architecture of the sixteenth century; and with what lawless cleverness he pared the order down to a series of mere buttresses, running up into finials. Longford, pl. 33, is another of Thorpe's buildings. Its front, with a graceful second-story loggia, shows him at his best; its plan (a triangle with huge round towers at the angles, like one or two others here given) is characteristic of this most whimsical of architects. After all, one must conclude that Thorpe was a better architect than those about him, and had more sense of design, more fancy, more appreciation of proportion. It is borne in upon us that the English builders of that day were much stronger in surface decoration than in any other. Their arabesques, diapering, and strap-work were good; but their details in relief and their larger features were apt to be coarse, crude, and barbarously misproportioned. We have here, too, an example of the most repellent qualities of their architecture in Barlborough Hall, a bare, cold, rigid, and mechanical design quite in keeping with the clipped yew trees in front of it. It is full of the lean and hungry look which belongs to much of the English Renaissance, and which is due to spare mouldings, thin cornices, and as much as anything to the groups of windows, with their abundant mullions flush, or nearly so, with the face of the wall. Mr. Gotch's criticism is as judicious as before. His comments are always interesting and instructive, and sometimes entertaining; whoever overlooks them in examining the book will do so to his own loss.

—The valuable anthropometric data published in 1877 by the Massachusetts State Board of Health, have been rearranged and recalculated, in the form recommended by Galton, by Dr. Henry P. Bowditch ('The Growth of Children, studied by Galton's Method of Percentile Grades'). That is to say, having measures of 848 Boston school-boys five years old, Dr. Bowditch gives first the average height of the shortest forty-two (or five per cent.), then that of the next shortest forty-two, and so on. These calculations are made for each age from five to eighteen. Similar calculations are given for those of American and of Irish parentage. The same thing is then given in regard to weight, and finally the whole is repeated for girls. The numbers are then plotted in curves in various ways. Several new generalizations are thus brought to view. Of course, every man remembers that humiliating period when the girls of his age were bigger than he, and not only looked down upon him from a greater physical elevation, but still more from the supercilious heights of maturer minds. At the same time, he could not help thinking that the girls were dull. This period begins between ten and eleven with a retarded rate of growth of the boys, both in height and weight, which is coincident with a maximum of mental brightness. Indeed, many a man never after recovers the same penetrating intelligence, as distinguished from human insight. Somewhat later, from twelve to fourteen, the girls attain their most rapid growth, and thus, until the most rapid growth of the boys approaches, the girls continue to be the largest.

—All this was already sufficiently known. Dr. Bowditch's new treatment seems to show that all the phenomena of this age come rather earlier with large-sized than with small-sized children. The method of treatment of the statistics necessarily exaggerates this considerably; for the children who grow earlier are necessarily thereby thrown into the higher grades. Hence, it would be desirable to show the general fact by a method which should preserve the identity of the growers. The preliminary retardation of the growth of boys shows nothing of this, but occurs at about eleven for large and small, though it is much more decided for the former. But the acceleration of the increase of weight in girls (which is far more marked than that of their height) is for the largest girls almost at its maximum at eleven, for the middling girls is delayed to thirteen, and for the smallest does not come till fourteen. The result is, that the period at which the girls are taller than the boys of the same age begins at ten and one-half for the largest, and at eleven and one-half for the smallest children; while the period at which they are heavier begins at ten and one-half for the largest and not till fourteen for the smallest children. Then the boys take their start, the largest growing most rapidly in height and weight at fourteen, the middling ones at fifteen, the smallest at sixteen. Consequently, among the largest children, the boys catch up with the girls in height at thirteen, but among the smallest not till fifteen; while in weight, among the largest children the boys catch up at fourteen and among the smallest at fifteen and one-half. Many other interesting relations are brought out for which the pamphlet will be consulted. We hope that it may serve as a model for much future school anthropometry.

—The Japanese Government, with an enlightened consideration for illiterate foreigners, has caused to be translated and published the report of the Minister for Education, as well as the recent laws and regulations affecting schools and teachers. Although the Government of Japan is highly centralized, the elementary schools of the country are under the control of the local authorities, and supported by local taxation or other subvention. Tuition fees are charged to children attending these common schools, although they may be remitted in case of indigence, and apparently more than one-third of the scholars pay nothing. These fees amount to only one-fourth of the total revenue of the schools. The subjects taught in the ordinary elementary schools are morals, reading, composition, writing, arithmetic, and gymnastics. To this curriculum may be added Japanese geography and history, drawing, singing, handiwork, and, for girls, sewing. In the higher elementary schools foreign geography and science are added, and in some cases a foreign language or some other subject. The course of study in the lower grade is three or four years; in the higher, two, three, or four years; and, in addition to Sundays, not more than ninety days a year are allowed for vacation. The school age is the period of eight years between the sixth and fourteenth year of age, and attendance at school is obligatory, which of course involves the obligation on the part of all communities to provide schools.

—That these are not merely paper provisions appears both from the number of schools and scholars reported and from the disbursements. Controlled by local authorities are over 28,000 schools, of which 26,000 are elementary schools. The teachers number nearly 72,000, and the scholars 3,144,000. Adding those in other schools, the total number in attendance is about 3,410,000, or very nearly half the total population of school age. It is worthy of remark that teachers of elementary schools are forbidden to make use of corporal punishment. The intermediate and higher education is as yet in a

comparatively undeveloped state, the Imperial University being of course the most prominent feature. The total annual expense of the system of education is apparently not far from 9,000,000 *yen*, or, allowing for the depreciation of silver, say $7,000,000. Among the laws, we observe several providing for a system of pensions, the features of which seem to us highly objectionable. Unless human nature proves to be different in Japan from what it has elsewhere shown itself, the system will eventually be affected with serious abuses.

HISTORY MADE READABLE.

The Story of Massachusetts. By Edward Everett Hale. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

Mr. Hale, with a view to readableness, as he says, has preferred to select twenty occasions of critical interest in the history of Massachusetts rather than to condense the continuous annals within his limited space. In the matter of proportion, his well-known Chautauquan text-book principle of concluding American history with the war of 1812 leads him to devote 319 pages to Massachusetts affairs down to and including that event, and just 14 pages to all that comes after. A "Study of Anne Hutchinson" fills 27 pages! No more slovenly piece of work has proceeded even from his hand, nor could a truly conscientious author allow this to go forth as history.

As to errors in names, Mr. Hale changes Phips to Phipps, Peirce to Pearce, Clap to Clapp, Say and Sele to Say and Seal, Denison to Dennison, Shays to Shay (twenty times). The reader must choose between the recollections of Capt. Roger Clap and of Richard Clapp; between Sir Edmund and Sir Edward Andros; between John Foster Williams and John Forster Williams; between Commodore Hull and Commodore Hall; between Weeden's 'Economic History' and Welden's. The Governor of Massachusetts from 1823 till his death in 1825 was William Eustis—previously of the Army of the Revolution, Member of Congress, Secretary of War, a prominent citizen; and not, as stated (p. 354), William Curtis.

"Sir Harry Vane" did not come over (p. 13) in the year 1633–34. Vane did not come till 1635, and he was not "Sir Harry" till after his return to England. "They [Robinson and his people] had arrived in August, 1608. They would hardly have come to Holland but for the suspension for a time of the 'Thirty Years' War'" (p. 25). The Thirty Years' War began in 1618. Gov. Bradford did not say, as quoted on page 41, "some to saw, some to drive," but, as quoted on p. 44, "some to saw, some to rive." The Massachusetts Company formed in 1627 "meant to make an establishment . . . where men could worship God as they chose, without being under the direction of Archbishop Laud, or of his court of the Star Chamber" (p. 53). Laud's court was the Court of High Commission, and he was not Archbishop till six years later. The "Wishing Stone" on the Boston Common was not (p. 76) below the Walnut Street gate; it was between paths which diverge from below Joy Street to Winter and to West Streets. "Very remarkable personal beauty has for at least a century past been evident in the immediate descendants of her [Anne Hutchinson's] blood" (p. 101). A large number of her direct descendants, including the present writer, have not been co-heirs of this comeliness; but as she is only one of 256 ancestors, they do not hold her responsible, as it may have been some others of the crowd "qui n'étaient pas si bien." It was Winthrop, not Weld, who said of Mrs. Hutchinson (p. 102) "that she had a ready wit and bold spirit." Thomas Hooker went to England and "became Cromwell's chaplain" (p. 117)! The Rev. Thomas Hooker, with Cotton and Davenport, was invited to go over in 1642 to assist in a synod, but he declined to go, was of course never Cromwell's chaplain, and died where he had spent most of his years —at Hartford. "The same earnestness of resolution that led John Cotton to quit his church in Boston, etc." (p. 143). Learned scholars would know what Boston; but the average reader would be helped by the addition of the word "England." At the time of Philip's war, Daniel Denison was indeed appointed commander-in-chief (p. 155), but, because of his illness, Maj. Thomas Savage led the forces. "Capt. Thomas Mosely . . . was a favorite, as he deserved to be, and he enlisted at once a hundred and ten men" (p. 154). We have never read about Capt. Thomas, but Capt. Samuel Mosely was a favorite with his volunteers and with the public, as a brave and skilful officer; he was, however, guilty of cruelty and injustice to the friendly Indians and of insolence and insubordination to his superior officers and to the Council.

"The idea of union for military purposes . . . readily became actual fact in the year 1776" (p. 206). The colonies appointed Washington commander-in-chief in 1775. The Treaty of Utrecht was not (p. 207) "in the year 1712," but in 1713. William Pepperell was of Kittery, not of Jeffery (p. 211), wherever that is. "Of these [Provincial Governors], Phipps, Dudley, and Hutchinson were Massachusetts men" (p. 226). Why leave out Belcher, born in what is now State Street, Boston? "The Earl of Bellomont was the brother of Bishop Burnet, and appointed, perhaps, from deference to his wishes" (p. 227). The previous page states that he was Richard Coote; how then could he be a brother of Bishop Burnet? Bellomont died in 1701, hence could not (p. 226) have been Governor till 1707. Would it not have accorded more with fact to state that Gov. William Burnet, whose lineage has been left untraced, was the son (not brother) of Bishop Burnet? Massachusetts derives her motto not (p. 333) from Philip Sidney, but from Algernon. This is like ascribing Dr. Hale's writings to his granduncle Nathan, "the martyr spy."

The Stamp Act was not (p. 350) in 1763. At the time of the Boston Massacre, the Custom-house was not "on the east side of King Street, now State Street, at the corner of . . . Devonshire Street" (p. 242). It was on the north side of King Street, at the eastern or lower corner of Royal Exchange Lane, now Exchange Street. The meeting of citizens to protest against the continuance of the two regiments in Boston was held in Faneuil Hall in the morning (p. 244), but it was adjourned to the Old South; it was to that old meeting-house that Sam. Adams brought tidings of his victory. "When the tea arrived, a town-meeting was held. . . . When the news of his refusal came the sun had set" (p. 247). The sun had set forty-three times from the first to the last of the eight meetings held upon that subject from November 3 to December 16.

The *Constitution* was "built at Hart's Wharf in Boston in 1796" (p. 312). There was no Hart's Wharf, nor was the *Constitution* built in 1796. The *Constitution* was built on Hartt's ways, and launched September 30, 1797; the ways are now covered by Constitution Wharf. "The commander of the *Constitution* in her first cruise was Isaac Hull" (p. 314). This was July 12, 1812. If the author refers to the first cruise during the war of 1812, this is correct; but in connection with the account of her building, it would mislead. Her first cruise was under Capt. Samuel Nicholson; this was July 20, 1798. "Lafayette visits Massachusetts, 1825" (p. 351). Lafayette visited Massachusetts in 1824, and returned there in 1825.

"General Butler called upon the Governor [Andrew] to say to him that he was sure . . . that it was the intention of the Southern leaders to bring the matter to the arbitrament of war. . . . Northern States should not be unprovided for such an emergency. Acting upon his advice, Governor Andrew sent a message to the Legislature, asking that it might be considered in secrecy, etc., etc., etc." (p. 328). It would be discreditable to any citizen of Massachusetts old enough to see and hear what was going on in 1861 to make this statement; it is positively disgraceful for one who pretends to write history. Early in December, Mr. (not yet Governor) Andrew visited Washington, and personally acquainted himself with the aspect of national affairs, and with the views of representatives of both North and South, and after that the Hon. Charles Francis Adams kept him acquainted, from day to day, with the progress of events; a confidential understanding was established with General Scott, also with Montgomery Blair and Edwin M. Stanton. There was a furious snowstorm on January 5, 1861, the day of his inauguration. Without waiting for it to abate, his first official act, immediately after the inaugural ceremonies, was to despatch a confidential messenger to the Governors of Maine and New Hampshire, to acquaint them with his determination to prepare the active militia of Massachusetts for instant service. The order for this mobilization was issued January 16, the equipments ordered February 6, after a consultation with Gen. Thayer of the United States Engineers and some other officers. A constant communication was kept up with Gen. Scott, who informed the Governor when the troops would probably be sent for, by what routes they should come, and other conditions. Contemporaries attributed these preparatory movements to Gov. Andrew, and blamed and ridiculed him accordingly; they rightly held him responsible, for it was he, and none but he, who took the wise initiative which placed Massachusetts then in the van.

"On the 9th day of April, 1861, Fort Sumter . . . was fired upon. . . . Gov. Andrew instantly issued his proclamation ordering into service the Fifth, Sixth, and Seventh Regiments. . . ." It was not on the 9th, but on the 12th of April that Fort Sumter was fired upon. On the 15th, Gov. Andrew received a telegram and subsequently a formal requisition for troops. He immediately (on the 15th) ordered the commanders of the Third, Fourth, Sixth, and Eighth Regiments to muster them forthwith, and the next day he sent the same order to the Fifth Regiment.

"On the 18th of April the Sixth Regiment was mustered on Boston Common in twenty-four hours after the proclamation was issued," which, according to Mr. Hale, was issued on the 9th or 10th, some 200 hours before. The fact is that, not on the 18th, but early in the morning of the 16th, the Third, Fourth, Sixth, and Eighth Regiments reached Boston, and, because of the howling storm, were not mustered on Boston Common, but barracked at once. The Third, Fourth, and Sixth all left in the afternoon of the 17th—the Third and Fourth for Fortress Monroe, by transports selected and held in readiness from the last of

January; the Sixth for Washington by rail. The Eighth was despatched on the 18th; the Fifth, together with a battalion of rifles and a battery of light artillery, at dawn of the 21st of April.

Mr. Hale's omissions are even worse than his commissions. He condescends, in the opening chapter, to bring "the history of these 270 years [of Massachusetts] . . . together in connected form," and stops short in his summary at April 30, 1789. As, in his 'Man without a Country,' he enforces the jingo doctrine of always following the flag, he makes no mention of the Hartford Convention in connection with the war of 1812, and skips over the Mexican war and Hosea Biglow altogether. His antipathy to the abolitionists makes him silent about the men who set Massachusetts over against South Carolina in the struggle for freedom; about Sumner's beating—a Massachusetts Senator — by a South Carolinian; about John Brown, at one time a citizen of Massachusetts, and finding his chief supporters there. He had previously called George Thompson and Miss Martineau "carpet-baggers," and he now "notes" that "the foreign orators who came from England to instruct us on these subjects were never cordially received," and that "Englishmen had better take care of England, and Americans of America"—a clear apology for the Boston mob of October 21, 1835, directed against Thompson. He will not name a mother's son of the abolitionists, and acknowledges only Mrs. Child as an "anti-slavery prophet." After her, the first name that pops up is that of Mr. Eli Thayer, as was to be expected.

We are dwelling too long on this hodge-podge, from which one would never learn what constitutes the State of Massachusetts. No list of her orators, statesmen, divines, philanthropists, educators, poets. Franklin's statue, Franklin Street, the Franklin School, the Franklin medals, the Franklin fund for loans to mechanics, yield nothing but casual mention of the great Bostonian in the text, and a line relating his birth in the list of "leading events." The Quincy statue, the Quincy School, Quincy Market, do not prompt mention even of the name of the greatest of the mayors. Horace Mann and his statue are ignored. Of Massachusetts's two Presidents, the "old man eloquent" wholly fails to catch Mr. Hale's eye. He can only see Webster opposing the Missouri Compromise, not fastening the Fugitive Slave Law on the country. Arthur Tappan, George Peabody, Dr. Channing, Bryant, Longfellow, Whittier, Hildreth, Prescott, Parkman—they form no part of the Massachusetts of Mr. Hale; Everett, Emerson, Theodore Parker, Lowell, but an incidental part. John G. Palfrey is thrice quoted—once "on salt-fish dinners"! Harvard College goes unmentioned save in connection with the civil war. Who is there that can lay down this book without applying to the historiographer the Whig clergyman's wind-up to a Democratic Thanksgiving proclamation — "Marcus Morton, Governor—*God save the Commonwealth of Massachusetts!*"

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Mr. Stewart Chaplin's treatise on the 'Suspension of the Power of Alienation and Postponement of Vesting, under the Laws of New York, Michigan, Minnesota and Wisconsin' (Baker, Voorhis & Co.) deals chiefly, if not altogether, with statutory modifications, in the States mentioned in his title, of what is commonly called the Rule against Perpetuities. The subject should not be confounded with that of restraints on the alienation of *present* interests, the most common example of which is furnished by an income derived from a trust fund for the support of minors which a creditor cannot reach. Everything which ties up property is in a certain sense a restraint on alienation, since it makes it less marketable; but, as pointed out by Prof. Gray, in his valuable works on Perpetuities and Restraints on Alienation, the limitation of future estates does not affect the *power* of disposing of the present interest. What rules against remoteness are intended to effect is the suspension of the power of absolute alienation of the whole fee. During the lives in being of the ordinary rule, or the two lives of the New York statute, the remainder being vested in a minor, the absolute title cannot be conveyed. Something here is clearly in suspense, and in this particular case to call it the power of alienation might not introduce much confusion; but the difficulty is that if the remainder-man is of age, the life-tenant and remainder-man can, by joining, convey the whole fee. It is a curious illustration of the confusion in which the whole subject is involved that there is no common agreement as to what name the rule in question, which, in its various forms, more than any other, governs and limits the modern disposition of property by will, should receive. As a matter of practice, in those States which have adhered as far as possible to the common law, it is probably called most frequently the Rule against Perpetuities, while in those States in which statutory changes have been made it is probably called most often the Suspension of the Power of Alienation.

Mr. Chaplin has collected with great industry into a treatise of some four hundred pages several hundred cases which show the law as it exists in four States of the Union, of which one is, in matters of law and property, the most important of all. An appendix also gives statutes of seven other States. Mr. Chaplin declares, what is perfectly true, that the statutory changes have been of so radical a character as to render inapplicable, in a great degree, the treatises and reports embodying the earlier law. His work has been done with care, and will be found very useful to the practitioner.

The revisers of the New York statutes, some sixty years since, found the common-law rule against perpetuities in full force, and, persuaded that they could improve upon it, introduced the "two lives" rule, saying that "it is presumed that no argument need be advanced in favor of restricting, at least to the extent here proposed, the power of creating perpetuities." The difference between the old rule and the innovation they explained clearly. Entail had been abolished, but, by way of what were known as executory devises, estates might be tied up for a *life or lives in being*, and twenty-one years afterwards (the period of infancy). In this the revisers saw a great danger. By taking a large number of lives, property might be tied up for a very long time. This had actually happened in England. What more simple, then, than to limit the number of lives to two? The change needed, as they said, no argument to support it. And now mark the result. In those States in which the New York change has not been introduced, the imagined danger has never occurred, and the law is plain and intelligible, being developed by the judges on the basis of the old common-law principles. In New York the simple change introduced by the revisers has produced such confusion that it has been said by a good authority that "in no civilized country is the making of a will so delicate an operation, and so likely to fail of success, as in New York." Before the passage of the Revised Statutes, there seems to have been only one case before the courts in which the remoteness of a limitation was called in question. Now we have some two hundred.

It is an old story to lawyers, repeated now from year to year, that every new statute means a new crop of cases, less intelligibility in the law, and more litigation. From the time of the Statute of Frauds to the present day, the imposition by the Legislature of arbitrary rules upon the established legal usages of the community, as formulated by the courts, has been productive of nothing but trouble. The evil has reached its highest pitch in our time, owing to the constantly increasing ignorance of legislatures and the multiplication of statutes; but the history of the "two lives" rule in New York shows how dangerous may be even a very intelligent attempt at arbitrary interference with long-established rules of property. Of course the "two lives" rule was only a part of the changes introduced by the New York revisers. It is the corner-stone, however, of a systematic chaos which has not its counterpart anywhere in the world—the despair of judges and litigants—a "mighty maze," as to the plan of which even text-writers as ingenious and painstaking as Mr. Chaplin can in many places do no more than suggest a doubt.

Prof. Keener's text-book, called 'Selections from Leake's Elements of the Law of Contracts and Finch's Cases on Contracts' (Baker, Voorhis & Co.), is a notable product of the rivalry between two systems of legal education, one known as the "Harvard," the other as the "Dwight" method. These terms are not thoroughly descriptive, but roughly answer the purpose of distinguishing between a system in which decided cases play the first part, and one in which cases are subordinated to the commentary upon them, or are used as illustrations of the general principles from which the judgments in them are deduced. Our own opinion is that neither method of teaching, to the total exclusion of the other, is practicable, and that the opposition between the two, while real enough, is in practice always reconciled by a compromise. To teach law by means of cases alone, without any gloss, commentary, or explanation, is as impossible as it would be to teach astronomy by telling a pupil to lie on his back and gaze at the heavens. He would undoubtedly gain an acquaintance with the appearance of the heavens, but he would not become an astronomer. In the same way he might, by sitting in a chair and reading a collection of leading cases, fill his mind with a vast number of isolated judgments, but he would probably know very little of law. Every professor, no matter whether he adopts the "Harvard" system or not, explains his cases by means of a gloss. That he does not write down and publish his gloss, as Blackstone and Kent did, makes no difference. If law could be taught by means of cases alone, there would be no need of law schools at all. All the cases are to be found in the law libraries.

The truth is, that while historically our law is a series of judgments in particular controversies, every single judgment involves a resort to principles governing human conduct, some moral, others having their foundation in prudence, or convenience, or custom. No doubt the principle of decision is often given in the opinion, but in a great many cases it is not, in a great many others there is a difference of opinion among the judges as to what principle the judgment is to be rested on, while in still

others the decision turns out, after much discussion, to have been rested on an erroneous principle.

In his selections on contracts, Prof. Keener has coupled with a collection of leading cases a text or gloss made up from two well-known books. It is intended primarily for students, but the practitioner will find it of use as well. Selections of cases as they are usually made up for students are of no use except in the classes of the professor who comments upon them. No one else has the key. Such a book as Mr. Keener's, however, could be used by any one in any place, for purposes of instruction. The only criticism that we have to suggest is, that in another edition the selected cases should have head-notes. These are a great assistance to the student, and in our judgment he should not only be early familiarized with good head-notes, but taught to make head-notes himself, and, by comparing them with properly prepared syllabi, acquire the art of making correct abstracts. Our own experience convinces us that the number of people in the world who can do this well at present is about as large as that of those who can write a good law book.

In bringing out the ninth edition of Story's 'Equity Pleadings,' the industrious editor restored the text of the fourth edition, edited by Charles Sumner, and published three years after the author's death, and corrected and verified all the citations and quotations. In the present edition (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) Dr. John M. Gould has nearly doubled the number of cases cited, and yet has only slightly increased the size of the book. The shelves of our law libraries are full of books on Courts of Chancery, their pleading, practice, and jurisprudence, but in the long list Story's 'Pleadings' still holds its own. Prof. Langdell's summary of 'Equity Pleading' is designed primarily for students. The last American edition of Daniell's great book appeared in 1879. Foster's 'Federal Practice' deals with the subject as it has been developed in the courts of the United States. A great variety of other books might be referred to which occupy the field in part, but, thanks in great measure to the careful editorial work of Dr. Gould, Story is still the latest American authority on 'Equity Pleadings.'

The National Reporter System, as applied to the United States Digest, began in 1887, and has already proved itself to be indispensably useful. The last gigantic volume of over 5,000 pages of 'The American Digest' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.) brings down the decisions of all the courts in the United States for the year to September 1, 1891, while, with the aid of the periodical publications of the system, the lawyer can bring his researches to a much later date. Not only this, but the work is done on a good plan, and well done. Instead of the pages of paragraphs of abstract principles with which digests formerly deluged us—absolutely useless because detached from the facts to which they applied—the American digest has adopted the true principle of always giving the facts as concisely as possible, together with the conclusion reached by the court.

This is the twenty-second year of Hubbell's 'Legal Directory' (New York: Hubbell Legal Directory Co.), whose reputation is well established. Its chief rival is Story's 'Legal Digest and Directory,' but Hubbell's revision is the later of the two; so far as we have had occasion to consult them, they are equally trustworthy. One of their functions is that of serving as intermediary between lawyer and client. Mr. Hubbell has a list of "able and trustworthy attorneys" in the United States and Canada, compiled "from information obtained by our representatives," who are "constantly travelling through the country for the purpose of investigating the professional standing of attorneys," as also "by correspondence with more than 50,000 presidents or cashiers of banks, bankers, or leading merchants." But note, as the old books say, that in corresponding even with such attorneys as these it is best to "sign yourselves as subscribers to Hubbell." Over two hundred pages of "cards" testify powerfully to the declining influence of the old prejudice against professional advertising.

STONEWALL JACKSON.

Life and Letters of Gen. Thomas J. Jackson (Stonewall Jackson). By his Wife, Mary Anna Jackson. Harper & Bros. 12mo, pp. xviii., 479. Illustrated.

WHAT would appear a too free disclosure of domestic life in the case of a private person becomes a welcome aid to our completer knowledge and appreciation of a distinguished man. We cannot understand history except by knowing the characters who make history. Their public career is determined by the intimate and often hidden traits of private character. We feel the need of knowing them as a friend living by their side might know them, before we can form any adequate judgment of their conduct in the great events wherein they play their part. For these reasons everybody who feels true interest in the history of our civil war will be thankful to Jackson's widow that she has let us see with so little reserve the character and the life of the great Confederate soldier as it was revealed in the bosom of his family.

Mrs. Jackson does not pretend to tell us anything of her husband's campaigns, making only such references to them as are necessary to connect the letters which form the bulk of the volume. It is a fact worth knowing, however, that his habitual reticence as to his plans extended even to his wife, and that she knew little more than the rest of the world as to his purposes, his hopes, and his ambitions.

The memoir corrects, to some extent at least, the popular notion that Jackson was careless in dress and in regard to his person. He is described as a well set-up soldier, erect, neat in dress, scrupulous in cleanliness, and erring, if at all, on the side of over-precision in bearing and address. In war service his rigid conscientiousness in sharing the discomforts of his soldiers, especially in reducing baggage, made his uniform and equipments show hard usage, for he did not allow himself a change of exterior clothing. He had been a good horseman from his childhood, and his service in the artillery during the Mexican war had kept him in good form as a mounted officer. His habit of religious reverie and silent prayer when on the march is well established, and this no doubt made him neglectful of his seat on horseback when he forgot himself at the head of a plodding column. Absorbed in thought, his weary body might naturally settle into a collapsed and ungraceful form till aroused by some excitement or otherwise recalled to a sense of his forgetfulness.

It is not hard to see that even in the intensity of his religious life he was masterful and disposed to make his conscience the law for others; not in an offensive way, but by force of a strong will moved by convictions which made it a duty to exhort all about him to accept his standard of right. This is amusingly shown in his sabbatarian notions. He conceived it wrong to accept the use of the public post on Sunday, and would not write letters on days that would cause them to travel on Sunday, unless the whole journey were longer than a week. He would, in such cases, delay writing till Monday, having faith in a providential overruling of any mischief that might come from waiting. He applied the rule even to his correspondence with the lady to whom he was betrothed, and induced her also to act upon it.

He found a curious case of conscience, however, when, in his Valley campaign, he saw an opportunity to gain a military advantage by taking the aggressive and beginning a battle on Sunday. McClellan adopted a rule that he would not take the offensive on Sunday if the enemy observed the *status quo;* but Jackson, though grievously troubled, determined upon an attack, and seems to have followed it up for several Sundays running. His argument shows how easily men lose themselves in the mazes of casuistry. He wrote home deploring the fact, but says, "I believed that so far as our troops were concerned, necessity and mercy both called for the battle," "and this fact of its being necessary to success," he adds, "and being accompanied with success, and that a departure from it is accompanied with disaster, suggests that it must be right!" It is hard, even for a Puritan, to make war and religion entirely agree; but whatever may be the logic of Jackson's casuistry, there is no doubt of the soundness of his military ideas. Himself no slavery propagandist, he had performed the intellectual feat of persuading himself that the cause of the nationalizing of human slavery was God's cause, that the end justified the means, and therefore that success proved the righteousness of beginning a bloody battle in so good a cause on the Lord's day! Thoughtful people have long shrunk from the confident appeal to "the God of battles," and the confident conclusion that the result of war is the direct expression of a divine judgment; but what must such a mind and conscience as Jackson's have thought of his own argument, could he have seen the end of the struggle and the result to his cause and to himself?

Jackson's reputation as a soldier was made in secondary campaigns or in subordinate places in capital ones. His career has a strong likeness to that of Sheridan. Both had brilliant success in command in the Shenandoah Valley, both were looked upon as the right arm of their commanders in the great armies in front of Richmond. As to both it is necessarily an open question whether they would have succeeded if the burden of supreme responsibility had been cast upon them. In Jackson's case some light may be found in an interview with his brother-in-law, Col. Barringer of North Carolina, which Mrs. Jackson incorporates in her memoir. In this, Jackson is represented as saying that he had been in favor of raising the "black flag" at the beginning of the war, and meeting invasion by the policy of "no quarter to the violators of our homes and firesides." The time of the conversation was immediately after the issue of Pope's famous orders in regard to the conduct of the campaign of 1862. Jackson insisted that his original policy of "no quarter" should then be openly adopted. It is among the possibilities that a man of Jackson's fibre might have executed such a policy for a while, thinking he was fulfilling an order to "hew Agag in pieces before the Lord"; but one

prefers to think the humanity of the nineteenth century of the Christian era would have got the upper hand in a Christian man, and that slaughtering surrendered men of his own race would not have been as possible in practice as it seemed in theory. To accept it even in theory indicates a lack of the poise necessary for the commander-in-chief of a great army.

In the same conversation Jackson gave his ideas of a plan of campaign, which consisted in organizing the whole available fighting force into several "light movable columns." He would "hurl these thunderbolts of war against the rich cities and teeming regions" of the North, operating upon points "possibly hundreds of miles away, . . . all the way to Kansas." "These counter-invasions would be the main feature of my policy." It is hardly credible that a soldier of Jackson's intelligence and experience could have expected success from such subdivision of forces and such a scheme of scattered and distant raids. When we reflect that one of these "movable columns" in the heart of a Northern State would be travelling upon foot without communications, while the national armies could have the benefit of railways and telegraphs in concentrating, it would be hard to devise a more certain way of bringing each to grief, as John Morgan's flying column of horsemen came to grief when they were once committed to a traverse of the State of Ohio. If Jackson is rightly reported, it is well for his military fame that Lee planned the occasions on which to use his "thunderbolt of war."

In these pages the man stands out as an enthusiast in religion and in the secession cause. He was evidently warm in his personal affections, also, though very shy of exhibiting them publicly. Autocratic in temperament, he meant to rule for the good of his subjects, whether in his family or in his army; but he could hardly imagine that anything could be for their good except what seemed so to him. Thus he imposed his will on others, even on those he most loved, and could ill bear a divided command in public or in private. Add to this a personal courage of a high order, exalted almost if not quite to fanaticism by his religious enthusiasm, and it would be hard to find qualities better adapted to make a great soldier in all positions short of the highest. If we doubt whether he could have filled Lee's place, it is because his self-revelation does not indicate the highest or the broadest style of practical intellect.

Mrs. Jackson's editing is faultlessly done. Having decided to show something of the inner character of her hero, she never slips in taste, in modesty, or in the nice sense of the limits of reasonable disclosure. She indulges in no vituperation and in no needless laments over the lost cause. She is partisan only so far as loyalty to her husband and his cause demands. She falls into the common error of attributing to Gen. Pope an imaginary order from "headquarters in the saddle," and that myth will probably be immortal, though the revelation of Jackson's earlier "black flag" policy would seem to make criticism of Pope a little superfluous. The book is handsomely uniformed in Confederate gray, with the lieutenant-general's wreath, stars, and sleeve-knot upon the cover.

The Platform: Its Rise and Progress. By Henry Jephson. 2 vols. Macmillan. 1892.

To the American reader the title of this book does not suggest its subject. What Mr. Jephson aims to describe is not the history of the declaration of political principles by party conventions, but the growth of the habit of oral political discussion in England. According to his definition, "every political speech at a public meeting, excluding those from the pulpit and those in courts of justice, comes within the meaning of 'The Platform.'" It should be added that only discussion outside Parliament is meant. This habit Mr. Jephson properly regards as a political institution of recent development, although it is, perhaps, going too far to say that a century and a half ago there were only three great political institutions in England, the Crown, the Lords, and the Commons. It is certainly paradoxical to maintain that there was no public political discussion during such thrilling periods as that of the Reformation and of the prolonged struggle against the arbitrary government of the Stuarts. Doubtless much of this discussion took place in the pulpit, but it was none the less political because it was religious. Religion and politics were inseparable in those days, and Mr. Jephson's definition seems to us somewhat arbitrary in its exclusions.

This objection would be more serious had Mr. Jephson formed a different conception of the manner in which the history of the rise of an institution is to be traced. We think we do him no injustice in pronouncing him distinctly *not* a philosophic historian. His method is perfectly simple: he has industriously searched among records of all kinds for reports of meetings at which political discussion took place, and has entered them in his chronicle, frequently including long extracts from the speeches made on these occasions. As a result his book is swollen to over 900 pages, whereby, we apprehend, the number of his readers will be reduced to one-fourth of what it might have been. This is to be regretted, for Mr. Jephson had a subject of which much might have been made, and his failure to make the best of it is not at all due to any lack of exertion on his part. Even as it is, his comments upon the steady growth of freedom of speech are frequently judicious, and it is possible—through much skipping—to get from his pages a tolerably vivid picture of the steps by which this liberty advanced.

According to the view here taken, political activity in England, outside the ruling class, dates from about the middle of the eighteenth century. At a time when contested elections were comparatively rare, the voice of the people was occasionally heard in petitions originating in public meetings; but although the right of petition was secured by the Bill of Rights, that of meeting was practically controlled by the aristocracy. In fact, petitions almost always began — "We, the High Sheriff, noblemen, gentlemen, clergy, and freeholders." But it is the glory of England that there have always been members of the aristocracy ready to withstand not only the Crown, but their own order, when popular rights were invaded. Naturally enough, it was at the hustings that complaints of misgovernment were most clearly expressed, and the Wilkes episode, which is fully narrated by Mr. Jephson, may be said to have definitely established the right of free speech. Although little was formally conceded, a temper had been revealed that warned the Government of the danger of revolution if it persisted in its arbitrary course.

What had been won was apparently lost in consequence of the alarm caused by the excesses of the French Revolution. A small faction in England looked with pleasure upon the overthrow of monarchical government, but public sentiment was overwhelmingly against them. Reform was one thing, but revolution was another. It was accordingly easy for Government to proceed vigorously against agitators, and for many years political meetings, both public and private, were severely suppressed. After peace was restored, the harsh measures of the Government and the arbitrary decisions of the courts again aroused the spirit of liberty, and the massacre of Peterloo was such an anachronism as to make the demand for the right of free speech irresistible. The passage of the Reform Bill marked the termination of the era of repression, and after that great struggle the story of the platform becomes comparatively tame.

In our judgment Mr. Jephson would have done well if he had stopped with the winning of this victory, and yet it is not surprising that he was tempted to point out the manner in which the victory was improved. He evidently leans to the view that measures of government should really emanate from the people, their representatives being chosen merely to register their will. But this is a subject by itself, and requires for its treatment somewhat different qualifications from those displayed by Mr. Jephson. So long as freedom of speech was denied, it was an end in itself; when the right was established, it became a means to the attainment of other ends. To enumerate all the ends that may be attained in this way is an undertaking too comprehensive for a single work. But however this may be, we need not hesitate to thank the author of this book for the materials that he has so industriously accumulated.

East Coast Yarns. By P. H. Emerson. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.

Mr. Emerson's 'Pictures of East Anglian Life' were so fresh and so suggestive that the reader will naturally look for the same qualities in 'East Coast Yarns,' and we fear that he will be disappointed. Although Mr. Kipling's success has brought short stories into vogue, it has not made the writing of them any easier. It is one of the necessities of the case that the reader shall be introduced to a succession of kaleidoscopic pictures having little or no connection with each other. If the writer possesses exceptional skill, he can, in a dozen pages, paint his picture in such striking colors that it remains fixed in the memory, and cannot be easily displaced by what follows. But, unfortunately, such skill is rarer than the black swan of the Latin grammar, and Mr. Emerson is not among the happy possessors thereof. The first and most ambitious story in this volume, "The Wreck of the Asia," has nothing to do with the East Coast, being, in fact, an account of a shipwreck on the coast of Wales. Its incidents are neither striking nor dramatic. A number of characters are introduced, and rather carefully labelled and catalogued, without any sufficient motive in the story to warrant the mental effort on the part of the reader to differentiate them. Some of the shorter sketches are decidedly more lifelike and have a distinctly East Coast flavor, but on the whole the collection must be pronounced unsatisfactory.

The Government of Dependencies. By Sir George Cornewall Lewis, K.C.B. Edited with an Introduction by C. P. Lucas. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 8vo, pp. lxviii, 392.

The Government of Victoria (Australia). By Edward Jenks, Dean of the Faculty of Law

in the University of Melbourne. Macmillan. 8vo, pp. xliv, 403.

THESE two books may be said to give us the theory and the practice of England in governing dependencies. Lewis's treatise is an analytical and philosophical discussion of the fundamentals of government and of dependencies, and of the relation between the principles and the objects of their exercise when found in colonies and provinces. He treats the subject somewhat after the manner of Locke and Montesquieu, developing the logical connection of a principle and its application to particular real or supposed cases, and trying thus to draw, *a priori*, the lines of limitation between the practicable and the impracticable, the probably successful and unsuccessful. Mr. Lucas, the editor, has written a long and valuable introductory chapter, showing the actual development of colonial government since Lewis's death, and the practical success of steps which the original author could hardly accept as possible. Lewis enriched his treatise with abundant references to the history of his subject in ancient and modern times, so that his notes are a classical repertory of its literature.

Mr. Jenks's book is at the opposite pole in its treatment of colonial dependence. His is an historical digest of the laws under which the progress of the little settlement of Port Philip in New South Wales was guided, from the time when a few English settlers from New Zealand landed there till it has grown into a great State with responsible government. It began as a little dependency under the almost absolute sway of the Governor of New South Wales; it passed through a crisis of separation, and now, at the end of little more than half a century, is independent in everything but the name, and is working out the most complicated social and political problems with an enterprise and an initiative force and fertility which fasten the attention of the world. Those who will read these books together will be greatly struck with the way in which a new and raw community grapples with and overcomes difficulties in the way of governmental progress which Lewis, the wise and philosophical conservative statesman, looked upon as insuperable. Such readers will also be apt to conclude that the success could have been achieved only by a community in which the genius for representative institutions had become hereditary.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, Capt. L. Among Typhoons and Pirate Craft. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribners. $1.75.
Barrie, J. M. The Little Minister. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Bell, Malcolm. Was She Wife or Widow? Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Beesly, E. S. Queen Elizabeth. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Black, William. The Strange Adventures of a Phaeton. Harpers. $1.
Blomfield, R., and Thomas, F. I. The Formal Garden in England. Macmillan. $3.00.
Bourinot, J. G. Parliamentary Procedure and Practice. 2d ed. Montreal: Dawson Bros.
Brücke, Ernst. The Human Figure: its Beauties and Defects. London: H. Grevel & Co.; New York: Westermann.
Buckley, Arabella B. Moral Teachings of Science. Appletons.
Bullen, A. H. Lyrics from the Dramatists of the Elizabethan Age. Scribners. $1.50.
Calverley, C. S. Literary Remains. 3d ed. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Calverley, C. S. Theocritus Translated into English Verse. 3d ed. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Carter, Franklin. Mark Hopkins. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Cowperthwait, J. H. Money, Silver and Finance. Putnams. $1.25.
Creasy, Sir E. The Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World. Harpers.
Daly, Augustin. Woffington. 2d edition. Troy: Nims & Knight.
Daly, J. B. The Dawn of Radicalism. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 10, 1892.

The Week.

WE are not among those who desired to have the vote on the Bland Silver Bill postponed till the next session of Congress. On the contrary, we think that it is altogether desirable that the people should know before the Presidential campaign begins what they can depend upon. There ought to be no concealment of the issues of the campaign. If the silver question is an issue at all, it will be the overshadowing and controlling one. It will be so because it does not admit of dallying or postponement. The tariff question we have had with us for a hundred years, more or less. A few years more will not make much difference in the total. The silver question has such sudden and tremendous consequences that the people will and must make it paramount to everything else. We do not attach much importance to the vote taken on Monday. It was quite proper that a time should be set for considering the Bland Bill. We find no fault with the forty-nine Republicans who voted with the majority to fix a day for its consideration. Most of those who so voted are opposed to free coinage. All of them probably voted as they did in order to gain a political advantage. For this they cannot be blamed. The preliminary skirmish settles nothing to the disadvantage of the country. If the Republicans are wise, they will vote against the bill when it comes to a vote, because in no other way can they make the issue sharp and decisive, as they must make it in order to win. If it can be said in the campaign that they are just as bad as the Democrats, then the contest will turn solely on the goodness of the candidates.

The Pension Bill is bringing out the annual display of partisan recrimination. The dominant party in the House, responsible for expenditures, is always held up as the enemy of the old soldier because it will not vote unlimited millions for him, while the minority, able to display its consuming love for pensioners by the inexpensive process of introducing lavish measures which have no chance of passing, is always able to pose as the only true friend of the men who saved the country. In the last Congress such Democrats as Mr. Springer and Mr. Holman stood ready to vote about $100,000,000 more for pensions than the Republicans would allow to go through, and took occasion to advertise Democratic generosity to the veterans, as compared with the niggardly spirit of the Republicans. This year the Democratic House passes a pension bill some $12,000,000 below Secretary Foster's estimates, and $35,000,000 below Commissioner Raum's; and although this amount is fully as great as that carried in last year's bill, the Republican chorus of accusation at once breaks out, the *Tribune* correspondent telegraphs dreadful things about the "blow at pensions," and the same old farce is renewed. There is this element of tragedy in it, however, that the claim-agents and demagogues play upon partisan fears to send the appropriations higher and higher, so that the country has to carry the burdens of war in a time of profound peace.

It seems likely that there will be continual danger of attempts to tinker our copyright statutes until they have been submitted for revision and codification to a commission of such recognized dignity and authority that respect will be insured for the results of its labors when enacted into law. The sooner such a commission is appointed for this purpose the better, for in few directions is our legislation so far behind that of the rest of the world as in the matter of the protection accorded to literary and artistic property. Meanwhile we hope that Congress will not encourage the latest so-called "amendment" of the Copyright Law, which was presented to both houses of Congress on February 15. This proposes to require each person who takes out a copyright to make a deposit of two copies for the United States, and one copy for each of the States, of every book or other article desired to be protected. This bill (S. 2185; H. R. 5975) was not conceived with any desire to improve the copyright statutes; but, certain property belonging to other people being coveted, it was devised as a scheme by which the desired property could be secured without paying for it. It does not make the matter any better that the books are coveted for State universities or "similar institutions," for these are no more justified in committing robbery through Federal legislation than are private persons. Besides, if it is justifiable to levy a special tax upon the property of authors and artists in order to enrich the libraries of State institutions, it is equally just to tax the property of other classes for the same purpose. The whole conception of such a bill is wrong. There is no justification for taxing an author who is granted a copyright, for the benefit of others; and the demand for copies of his book or other article proposed to be protected must be made upon the sole ground that such deposit is for his benefit, as necessary properly to identify and make secure the right granted to him.

Our contemporary the *Sun* has a learned article on the breach of constitutionalism in Greece, from which it argues the worst consequences to the reigning sovereign of that country. But it has nothing to say about the recent elections in the State of New York or their probable effect upon the ex-Governor and his Presidential prospects. We will accordingly direct the *Sun's* attention to a few leading facts which ought to possess more interest for its readers than the wrongs of Mr. Delyannis, the David B. Hill of Greece. There was an election in Elmira the other day, a regular city election. The chief office to be filled was that of Mayor. The city is the home of David B. Hill. It is a Democratic city. It gave about 1,000 Democratic majority two years ago, and exactly 512 majority for Flower last fall. In the more recent election it gave a majority of 1,284 against the regular Democratic nominee, who was a particular friend of Hill and the brother of his Cornell University friend and admirer, Prof. Collin. If this had been an isolated event, it might have passed for an accident, but, coming in conjunction with a perfect rainstorm of Democratic defeats in this State, it must be taken as a sign that the people are against Mr. Hill and all his works and ways, and that they are all the more against him in proportion as they are nearer to him and better acquainted with him, to wit, at Elmira, in the county of Chemung. This would be interesting matter to the readers of the *Sun*. If our contemporary will excuse us, the misfortunes of the Hillenes are a more engaging subject just now than those of the Hellenes.

Mr. Hill is credited with saying of the town elections in this State that they are of no especial significance, merely showing that there is a "family row" in the Democratic party. We quite agree with him that there has been a "family row" between the party and its rascals, the significance of which he will see later if he does not perceive it now. The latest returns tell the whole story in language too plain to be misunderstood. Elections have been held in forty of the sixty counties of the State. A year ago the Democrats had majorities in the Boards of Supervisors of 12 of these counties, the Republicans had majorities in 23, and in 5 the Boards were evenly divided between the two parties. To-day the Democrats have majorities in the Boards of only 4 counties, the Republicans have majorities in 33, and in 3 the Boards are evenly divided. Out of a total of 352 Supervisors which they had a year ago, the Democrats have lost 99, or 28 per cent. of the whole. The loss of 8 counties out of 12 is a loss of 66 per cent.

We find in the *Cornell Daily Sun* of February 17 a report of an address by "Prof. C. A. Collin of the Law School," before the History and Political Science Associa-

tion, on the subject of the "Machine in Politics," in which the following passage occurs:

"It is the duty of every true citizen who has any spark of patriotism about him to assist the Machine in one way or another. No one should feel himself above the work of political fighting. *The man who sells his vote for money is more to be respected than the man who stays away from the polls and does not vote.*"

Prof. Collin is the moralist who devotes the greater part of his time to the task of writing eulogies of David B. Hill. His labors in that field are silly and harmless, but when he is allowed by Cornell University to teach its students that the Dave Hill variety of political science is laudable and worthy of their imitation, the matter becomes much more serious. The kind of political science embodied in the passage we have quoted is practised in Tammany Hall, but the teaching of it is a startling innovation in the curriculum of a college.

The unanimous declaration of the Rhode Island Democratic State Convention in favor of Cleveland's nomination grows more significant the more that is learned about the preliminary campaign. The State had been picked out by Hill as a good one in which to work his scheme of getting Hill delegates elected "on the sly" by sharp work in the caucuses; and two or three of the most disreputable "workers" in the party conferred with him as to how they should play the game. But the matter could not be kept quiet. Men like Mayor Honey of Newport and Congressman Lapham warned the people of the plot to cheat them, and stirred up the voters to attend the caucuses and declare their preferences. The result was such an expression of public sentiment in favor of Cleveland everywhere that not a vote was cast in the Convention against the adoption of the strongest Cleveland plank that could be framed. Rhode Island is not exceptional in this respect. The only hope of the Hill men anywhere is in underhand methods. They do not dare to encounter a fair expression of party feeling.

Some remarks of the Rochester *Post-Express* on Dr. Parkhurst's charges against Tammany illustrate admirably the shrewdness of the Tammanyites in getting hold of the Grand Jury lists. The presentment of the Grand Jury signed by two members of the Tammany General Committee, (one of them an ex-keeper of a low dive,) treated the charges made by Dr. Parkhurst against the city authorities in connection with the McGlory case as utterly baseless, and added an amusing comment on the mischief done by "unfounded charges of this character, in creating distrust in the minds of the community with regard to public officials." Accordingly, the country Tammany papers, like the *Post-Express*, make it the text of a homily on the risk the pulpit runs in trusting city newspaper stories about the good men in the City Hall. This furnishes an almost complete explanation of Barney Martin's appointment as Commissioner of Jurors. The fact is that Dr. Parkhurst's charges were absolutely correct, except in the one point of the District Attorney's office having been requested to furnish the evidence against McGlory. And we have little doubt that if the whole truth were known, it would be found that this omission had something to do with the experience of many Grand Juries really anxious to punish criminals who have a "pull," as McGlory had. This experience has shown the danger that when news reaches the District Attorney's office that the Grand Jury is about to pursue a particular malefactor of this class, it will leak out, and the dive-keeper will get warning, and the officer sent after him will come back with the old story—"Impossible to get the evidence." To say this is not necessarily to cast an imputation on the District Attorney himself. But his office is a large office, and a "pull" operates through all sorts of people. The notion that a dive so notorious as McGlory's, and given up to indescribable vileness, could be kept open for a whole year, without the knowledge or connivance of the police or of *anybody* in the District-Attorney's office, is a little too ridiculous for belief. In fact, the November Grand Jury proved its absurdity by sending two of their own number to get the proof, after the captain of the precinct had impudently denied the proof, and they got it without the smallest difficulty. There is always a touch of *bouffe* about Tammany doings, and it was not wanting in the present instance. Has Offenbach anything more comic than an old dive-keeper's signing a "presentment" rebuking a clergyman for saying that a brother dive-keeper could have been found out and punished earlier if the officers of the law had done their duty, and warning him of the danger of "impeaching the integrity of public officials"!

Secretary Foster is credited with saying in London that he has been asked many questions about the alleged system of sending convicts to this country from Great Britain, and with having made the following explanation:

"The question in Parliament in regard to the matter, and the comments of the papers, were based on a misapprehension that the whole Commission was responsible for the report. When I appointed the Commission, I deemed it right to select among the five Commissioners one direct representative of the labor interest. That was Mr. Powderly; and I do not find fault with his report. But that story about ex-convicts had its origin in Mr. Schulteis's report. People on the other side will treat the story on its merits. Here the mistake is made by taking the statement as supported by the whole Commission."

Mr. Foster appears to know very little about the official reports which are made to him and by him given to the public, if that explanation is authentic. The convict charge was not made by Schulteis, but by his fellow-commissioner, Judson N. Cross, and, as printed in the *Tribune* of February 8, was that he had "positive proof that from England, Ireland, and Scotland during the last eleven years there has been a systematic, widespread, and thoroughly organized movement, known, encouraged, and patronized by the Government of Great Britain, for the purpose of sending convicts and ex-convicts to the United States," and that "the passage and money to keep them while seeking employment here is furnished directly by the Government of Great Britain." Mr. Cross sustained this charge with details of the system, saying that the sum paid by the British Government to each convict sent was six pounds. Both Cross and Schulteis, as well as Powderly, were Mr. Foster's appointees, and he has made their work his by adopting and publishing it. His attempt to escape all responsibility by putting it on Schulteis, and then repudiating Schulteis, is a pretty small performance.

Free evening schools were established in New Haven about thirty years ago, and have been maintained ever since, but for several winters past the attendance upon those conducted for English-speaking pupils has been steadily diminishing. It might be supposed that this indicated less desire to overcome the defects of early education among the immigrants, who have always comprised the larger part of the pupils, than was the case in the sixties; but the *Palladium*, which appears to have investigated the matter, says that the truth is that there is much less occasion for such schools now than there was a score of years ago. It says that young Irish immigrants now are usually able to read with ease and to write fairly well, and have a fair knowledge of the rudiments of arithmetic, and it seems doubtful whether it will long be necessary to maintain free evening schools for English-speaking pupils. There has been a good attendance the past winter at the evening schools maintained for Italians, Scandinavians, and Russian Jews, but the principal object of the pupils has been to learn the English language. Our Swedish and Norwegian immigrants are usually well educated when they arrive here, and the *Palladium* says that, so far as New Haven's experience goes, "the Italians are fairly well educated, and the Russians and Poles, while giving evidence of having had few or almost no advantages in this direction, show a brightness and industry which make their progress rapid." This is a very encouraging report, and deserves attention at a time when there is so much anxiety about the ignorance of our immigrants.

Gov. McKinley issued an appeal the other day for subscriptions for the starving Russians. Why did he not issue one at the same time for the starving Austrians? Surely, if either of these classes of sufferers has a claim on him, it is the

latter. The Russians were smitten by the hand of Providence, the Austrians by that of McKinley. By putting a duty of 1,400 per cent. on pearl buttons, McKinley and his followers inflicted cruel misery on thousands of their fellow-creatures. Moreover, this is what they intended to do, and what their newspapers have been bragging about since; as though it were a creditable thing for them to bring about the same suffering that has been caused in a neighboring country by a drought and a bad harvest. We submit that it is incumbent on McKinley to call for subscriptions for the poor of Austria as well as those of Russia.

We hope that those physicians who are sticklers for the fine points of medical ethics have not failed to notice the harm done their profession by some of the expert medical testimony in the attempt to determine the sanity of E. M. Field. The extraordinary fact was brought out that one expert of high standing had at first given it as his written opinion that the man was insane—for which opinion, based though it was mostly upon the representations of others, he had been paid $250, and then had come into court to testify that he thought Field sane. Now, there was no particular discredit in his having changed his mind, except as it showed him to have been hasty and careless in reaching his first decision, but does not every one see how his taking an exorbitant fee for a medical service, simply because it was to have a legal effect, and then being compelled to admit that the service was really worth nothing whatever, brings the profession into disrepute? Such things would not be of so frequent occurrence did the medical associations make a rule, as they should, that only an ordinary charge should be made for expert testimony in legal trials. If a physician were to get for his time in court no more than he would get for the same time passed in his office or making his rounds, the ground for the increasing popular cynicism in regard to the honesty of medical experts would be cut away. Medical ethics is mostly confined to such questions as that of a doctor's advertising himself, or that of his committing the great crime of helping save life in company with a physician of another "school"; we think its sphere might profitably be extended so as to cover some of the evils of the system of expert testimony.

It appears that Lord Salisbury does not agree to a renewal of the *modus vivendi* for the present sealing season, or that he consents only to the drawing of a line thirty miles from the shore, within which sealing shall be prohibited while the arbitration is going on. Nobody has attempted to show that Lord Salisbury is under any obligation, express or implied, to renew the *modus vivendi*, even as to thirty miles from the shore. The main point in dispute is whether we have exclusive jurisdiction outside of the three-mile limit. That and some other things are referred to arbitration. Now our newspaper men insist that, while this arbitration is going on, Great Britain shall yield something else. The *Tribune* begins an article in this way—an article which will make its London correspondent writhe in torment when he sees it:

> "President Harrison may rest assured that the people will heartily sustain him in any measure he may find it necessary to take for the maintenance of the rights of the United States in the seal fisheries. The question has ceased to be one of dollars and cents. The British Government has chosen to treat it in a manner altogether indefensible and unfair. The elaborate and painstaking tardiness of Lord Salisbury appears to Americans deliberately intended to give Canadian *poachers* abundant opportunity to *plunder* and *pilfer* to their heart's content. If that is not his intention, he has a really wonderful faculty of acting, with friendly purpose, precisely as an enemy would act."

Poachers, plunder, and pilfer are handy words to stir up strife with. Bear in mind that the very question referred to arbitration is whether the taking of seals beyond the three-mile limit is poaching, plundering, and pilfering, or not. By referring it to arbitration we have allowed that it is doubtful. But if the peace of the world can be endangered till next November by using catchwords and making thoughtless people believe that the thing referred to arbitration is not doubtful, then let us take the risk.

The overwhelming victory of the "Progressives" — that is, of the Liberals—at the election of the London County Council, owes a good deal of its importance to the indication it offers that the majority of the London districts, which return sixty-two members to the House of Commons, will be carried by the Liberals at the approaching general election. Of the sixty-two, forty-nine are now in the hands of the Tories; it seems to be generally conceded that the proportion will be reversed at the next election, for the "Progressives" are nearly all Liberals. Their programme includes a great number of schemes, some of which are distinctly socialistic in their tendency. The most prominent is an attack on the great landlords of the West End, of whom the chief are the Dukes of Westminster and Devonshire and Norfolk, who have grown enormously rich through the famous "unearned increment"—that is, by sitting still and letting the city spread over their property. They sell no land, but simply lease it for building purposes, and thus escape the local taxation. There has been much agitation of late years for legislation compelling them to sell the fee, or at all events curtailing their leasing power, but the opposition in the present Parliament has been too strong. Dukes have great weight under the present Ministry. The new County Council will be overwhelmingly hostile to them, however, and will undoubtedly at least saddle them with a fair share of the rates which are now borne by the lessees or occupiers of the houses But it must be said for the great land lords that whatever beauty the West End of the city possesses has been due to them Hardly any of the great squares would exist to-day but for their forethought and enterprise in laying out their property and controlling the class of houses erected on it. But the "unearned increment" makes the mouth of the democracy water, and it is a most appetizing spectacle.

The London *Economist's* annual review for 1891 tells us what has become of Mr. Goschen's proposed financial reforms. These, it may be recalled, consisted of a proposed issue of £1 notes by the Bank of England, against four-fifths gold and one-fifth securities, and an authorization to *over-issue* notes in times of crisis on condition of paying the Government a high rate of interest on such over-issue. The *Economist* tells us that,

> "owing to the antagonism of bankers and the obstructive attitude of the Gladstonian party, there is no probability of its passing through Parliament. The only legislation that there is any chance of carrying through is a tentative measure, merely authorizing the Bank to issue £1 notes on the same conditions as it now issues notes of a larger denomination, and to confer upon it power to increase its fiduciary issues in the manner proposed by Mr. Goschen, but without any restriction as to the amount of gold it must hold before it can begin to exercise that power. That would leave many currency questions unsettled, and would also leave undetermined the question as to how the banks are to be induced or compelled to keep adequate cash reserves."

The *Economist* notes the fact that the joint-stock banks have voluntarily increased their reserves since Mr. Goschen made his speech at Leeds one year ago. Their proportion of reserve to liability in December, 1890, was 12.9 per cent. average. In December, 1891, it was 13.7 per cent. This is not a large gain, but it is something. It amounts in the aggregate to about two and a half million dollars. Probably the fear that has pervaded the money market since the Baring crisis has been quite as effectual in causing this increase of reserve as Mr. Goschen's speeches.

Even more striking than Emperor William's words is his action in having prosecuted for lese-majesty the half-a-dozen German newspapers that have expressed a mild disapproval of his recent absolutist speech. In that he advised those who did not endorse his policy to leave the country; he now seems to propose to give them the further alternative of imprisonment. It is not enough for a genuine reactionary to have his way: he must have it without a whisper of opposition, without a suspicion being anywhere intimated that his way is not the divinely ordained way. One of the half-crazy Spanish Bourbons once ordered pen, ink, and paper to be taken from his room. "How can I sleep with such deadly weapons near my bed?" he asked. In his nervous dread of discussion of any kind, William is showing himself a Bourbon of the Bourbons.

"GETTING THE DELEGATES."

ONE point has been made against the anti-Hill Democrats in this State which has a good deal of force in it, namely, that they witnessed unmoved Hill's cheating at the elections, and rose against him only when he called the Convention too early. We trust that now, in view of the way in which the voters are expressing their opinions about him at the county elections, his opponents here will be able to summon up courage to attack him, not simply as a man who calls conventions too early, but as a notorious trickster and corruptionist. For it is now being made manifest to the least perspicacious eye that the strategy which consists in "getting the delegates" and letting the other party get the offices, is an exceedingly unprofitable one, even when backed up by the authority of so accomplished a manager as Hill. Hill is plainly under the illusion in this matter into which nearly all our working politicians of his mental calibre fall. The early training of nearly all such men in politics consists in learning how "to get the delegates." Our nominating system is now so cumbrous and complicated that only trained professionals can work it successfully. Accordingly, everybody of the Hill type who wants to rise, devotes himself diligently to the art of "fixing caucuses" and primaries, so as to control or influence the composition of the nominating convention. In order to accomplish this he has to construct a machine, which is often a marvel of patient industry and ingenuity. When it is constructed, and gets to work, and turns out delegates of a satisfactory type, the inventor is naturally very much elated, and flatters himself that he has done all that needs to be done in politics in order to become a statesman. When Hill said, with a chuckle, that "the other fellows had got the mass-meetings and the brass bands, but he was getting the delegates," he evidently thought, in common with all his class, that the organization of the nominating conventions was the politician's final cause; and when Springer treated the "regularity" of Hill's delegation as ending all controversy as to who was New York's "favorite son," he expressed the same idea.

Hardly any of these men look beyond the convention to the elections, because preparation for the election involves the cultivation of the art of persuasion. It means the preparation of arguments addressed to the country at large touching the policy of the party and the character of the candidates. This art of persuasion they relegate now to a very subordinate place indeed. To the work to be done after the nominations, by way of carrying the elections, they, in fact, give hardly any consideration at all. If they get their man nominated, they trust to luck for the rest.

We are now describing exactly what has happened in nearly every Democratic canvass since the war. When McClellan and Seymour and Hancock were nominated, it was as plain as a pike-staff that no thought whatever had been bestowed on the arguments by which the voters were to be induced to elect them. The strength of the managers had all been expended in "getting the delegates" and "carrying the convention," so that there was no foresight or energy left for shaping a party policy or for commending it to the electors. When Mr. Cleveland got into the Presidency, and furnished the party with a policy — that is, with something to present to the country, after the nomination, in the nature of a programme—the managers were actually, as we now see, disgusted with the man; and when he showed no capacity for "getting the delegates," they set to work, might and main, to get rid of him, and substitute for him a trickster of the Hill type, who knows how to "get the delegates," although he knows nothing else.

When Hill "got the delegates" at the last election, the whole Democratic party in this State seemed awestruck. There was dead silence, even among respectable men, for a month after Flower's election. When it was broken, we heard nothing but glorification of the mighty man who had carried so many State elections, and was now going to send a solid delegation to Chicago to vote for himself. What Hill was to say, after getting there, or what anybody else was to say for him to the people of the United States, by way of proving his fitness for the Presidency, nobody seems to have considered for one moment. In fact, we verily believe that if he had not committed the professional blunder of calling the Convention in midwinter, he might have "got the delegates" in April just as readily as in February, and would have entered the Convention as a sort of Democratic Messiah, instead of as an exposed charlatan, and he might have secured the nomination, either for himself or some other "low rascal," on the pretence that he could carry New York for the Democratic candidate. The horror now expressed in some quarters about sending out a contesting delegation, because it "wouldn't be regular, don't you know?" shows how deep-seated the feeling is that greater skill and merit are shown in controlling Presidential conventions than in winning Presidential elections. We do not believe that to-day one respectable man among Hill's supporters has ever considered what he could say for Hill on the stump in case he were nominated, to voters in Illinois or Ohio or Iowa or Wisconsin, who would not be influenced by his smartness in "getting the delegates" in New York. They would actually be unable to offer a single other reason for electing him. His views on public questions nobody, not even himself, knows. His history as Governor is one long record of jobbery and intrigue. He is neither eloquent nor "magnetic," and his bodily presence is more or less repulsive. His associates and friends at home are mainly of the disreputable class, but he knows how to "get the delegates"!

His excesses as a cheat have, however, at last apparently waked his party up in this State to the fact that the final cause of a party organization is not to illustrate smartness, but to win elections, just as the final cause of a locomotive is not to carry people up and down the line as a display of curious mechanical ingenuity, but to carry people to their destination. A precious possession for the party Hill would be after a defeat deliberately risked on his account. To what use could he be turned? Who would take him off the party's hands, even for the humblest kind of farm work?

HILL'S RECORD REVISED.

WE sent recently a copy of the *Evening Post's* pamphlet on Hill's political record to a supporter of his, one of the few respectable Democrats whom he has been able to attract to his cause, with a request that he inform us whether "all this is true or not." After a brief delay the pamphlet has come back to us with annotations of various kinds marked in the margin against some of the more serious of the charges. As these annotations comprise the first and only defence of Hill that we have been able to get from any quarter, we shall review and answer them in their order, so far as they are of sufficient moment to call for consideration.

The first chapter, describing Hill's early political career in Elmira, is very slightly annotated, the critic confining himself almost entirely to underscoring sentences containing such charges against Hill as that he never mingled in respectable society, never hesitated to sell out his own party, bought votes with *crisp* bank bills, and that he raised the price of votes in Elmira till $20 was paid for a vote for Governor. All these charges we are prepared to prove, even to the fact that the bank bills were "crisp," for they were obtained direct from the bank in large quantities for this especial use. The critic asks for the names of "two responsible citizens" whom we cited as eye-witnesses of Hill's personal purchase of votes. We have them for him, or for anybody else who forces us to the proof of our statements. He underscores the assertion that "scores of lawyers and business men" will attest the fact of Hill's purchase of votes, as if the number were too great. It is the literal truth, and we can so prove it. These are fair samples of all the criticisms upon the first chapter.

In regard to the aqueduct scandal, the commentator has done a great public service in raising questions which will enable us to go more fully than the pamphlet into the details of that part of Hill's public record. His first annotation is as to our statement that Squire was "thrust into the office" of Commissioner of Public Works. In the margin he asks: "By Hill?" Certainly not. The charge is not that Hill put Squire into office, but that he formed an alliance with him after he

got in, knowing well that Squire was a rascal. The commentator then underscores the words "thick and thin" as applied to this alliance. A citation from Squire's testimony, given under oath on April 22, 1888, will show the strict truth of this definition. Squire testified that at Hill's request he called upon him at the Hoffman House in the fall of 1885, and that Hill requested his support in the approaching campaign; that he, Squire, then told Hill that Mayor Grace was trying to get him out of office on the ground that he was unfit, and that Hill replied to the effect that "I (Squire) need give myself no anxiety; that if I did not get convicted in a criminal court in matters connected with my department, where he couldn't stand by me, I might be certain that I should find him behind me; I told him that was very pleasant for me to hear, and I said: 'Governor, if there is anything in the Department of Public Works that I can properly and in order put at your service, let me know.'"

Squire went on to testify that at the same interview Hill arranged for his friend and former law partner, William L. Muller, to be the confidential agent between the two for the distribution of patronage and other favors. In support of these statements Squire produced letters to himself from the Governor written in February, June, July, September, and November, 1885, and as late as May, 1886, all couched in the most friendly terms, all addressed to the "Hon. Rollin M. Squire." The pamphlet annotator puts opposite the statement that he addressed Squire as "My dear sir," the exclamation, "Very bad!" Another Hillite, the *World*, said of these letters from Hill to Squire, when they were first published in April, 1888: "The worst that can be said of any of them is that the Governor of the Empire State should be in larger business than securing offices for his friends from such a man as Squire."

The annotator's next objection is to the statement that Hill knew of the existence of Squire's incriminating letter to Flynn before he joined with the Republicans of the Legislature in the passage of the "deal" Aqueduct Commission Bill. He implies that Hill's denial, which is also cited in the pamphlet, disposes of this charge. It does not, for the reason that the denial was a falsehood. Two witnesses swore that they had informed the Governor of the existence of this letter before the "deal" bill became a law and before the letter itself was published in August, 1886. William M. Ivins testified that he showed the Governor a copy of the letter in March, 1886; Squire testified that he informed the Governor of the fact of its existence in the Hoffman House interview. It is known, also, that the original of the letter was shown to the Governor just before he signed the bill. Yet, when the original was published, and Hill was forced by the publication to remove Squire from office, he made and published the following denial of a charge that he had seen it before its publication:

> "The statement is unqualifiedly false. I saw a copy of the letter in question for the first time when it was printed in the newspapers. I have never seen the original letter."

The annotator's next question is the following in reference to the charge that Hill's personal campaign notes for $10,000 and $5,000 were paid out of the profits made on an aqueduct contract which was awarded to O'Brien & Clark, whose bid was $54,000 above the lowest: "Were they not paid by a subscription list?"

On the first day of the investigation Thomas M. Robinson, Cashier of the Mount Morris Bank, testified that he remembered a note for $10,000 which was presented at the bank by William L. Muller. The note was presented, not for discount, but for sale. *It was signed by Gov. Hill*, and endorsed by John O'Brien and Heman Clark as individuals. Heman Clark testified on April 23 that O'Brien came to him in the campaign of 1885 and said he wished to raise $10,000 for Gov. Hill; that a note for that amount was drawn and signed by Gov. Hill and endorsed by Muller first, O'Brien second, and Clark third; that when it matured it was paid by another note signed by O'Brien and endorsed by Maurice B. Flynn; it was finally paid by O'Brien, and the money was charged to O'Brien's account on the books of the firm of Clark & O'Brien.

The Governor, in a statement which he gave out for publication on April 11, 1888, admitted the main facts in the case by saying that he signed the two notes in conjunction with Muller and O'Brien, and that after election the notes were "taken up and paid by contributions of friends and various Democrats, including Chairman O'Brien, who was the largest contributor." Alton B. Parker, who was one of the endorsers of the $5,000 note, testified that it was cashed by John Keenan, who was a member of the Democratic State Committee; that the cash was paid to him on Thursday before election. John O'Brien, Chairman of the Democratic State Committee, testified that he contributed $500 to take up this note; that Alton B. Parker, who in the meantime had been appointed by Hill a judge of the Supreme Court, contributed $500, and the balance was made up elsewhere; that it ran along for two or three months after that, and finally Muller came to him and he (O'Brien) endorsed Muller's personal note for $5,200 and raised the money in Rhinebeck, which was sent to Keenan to pay off the original note.

As to the awarding of the aqueduct contract at a clear profit of $30,000 to O'Brien & Clark, the annotator asks if the pamphlet is not in error in saying it was awarded by the reorganized commission. It is. The award was made by the old commission in compliance with the personal request of the Governor, through Muller, to members of the commission. Mayor Grace testified that he was asked to favor the award in order that the Governor's notes might be paid; he was positive that the amount of those notes was represented to him as $30,000. Comptroller Loew testified that he was requested to favor the award because the Governor wished it to be made,

In regard to the chapter on the theft of the Legislature, the annotator's first point is that Judge Ingraham's stay was a justification for the conduct of Emans in going to Albany to get back from the mails the legal Dutchess County returns. Judge Cullen has disposed of that by deciding that Emans had closed his official duty as to the returns when he put them in the mails, and that any interference with them by him after that was a "personal crime," not official misconduct. The annotator's next point is that Judge Ingraham's stay was in some way an excuse for the abstraction of the legal returns from the mails after their arrival. But the stay was issued after the returns had been mailed. If the stay were binding, why commit the theft? Judge Cullen's decision on this point is conclusive:

> "The [legal] returns were not before the Board of State Canvassers, not because of any defect in the transmission, nor of a disobedience of the order of the Court, but because, by the action of the Secretary of State, the Governor, and the counsel of the Comptroller, the *returns were taken from the several public offices where they had been properly received* and were given to Mr. Emans."

SILVER POLITICS.

THE authentic announcement has been made that Secretary Foster's journey to England has nothing to do with an international monetary conference, or with any public business. He has gone abroad for the sake of his health and for no other reason. All expectation that the nations of Europe will get themselves into a *financial* scrape in order to help us out of a *political* scrape, may therefore be abandoned. All those countries, except Austria and Russia, now have the single gold standard, and Austria is going that way with absolute certainty and as fast as possible. India would go the same way if she could, but she is too poor. The change of standard would involve the demonetization of such a prodigious stock of silver, coined and uncoined, that the task seems hopeless. As there is no legal ratio between gold and silver in India, the Government would naturally begin with the existing market value, and would decree that the gold rupee should be in law whatever it was worth in the market on the day the change was made. What to do afterwards with the silver accumulations of ages would be the perplexing question.

We have spoken of our silver mêlée as political rather than financial. This is exactly what it is, and the Europeans are not so dull that they cannot see its true complexion. The bad education our people have received during the past quarter of a century, beginning with the first legal-tender act and followed by the legal-tender decisions and by new legal-tender laws

and by the Silver-Purchase Act of 1878, is now yielding its natural fruit. The ideas of multitudes of people are turned topsy-turvy. The notion has got abroad that it is the duty of Government to furnish money to the people, and that the buying of silver is the furnishing of money to the people. It requires no great step to reach the conclusion that free coinage would give everybody all the money, and, therefore, all the good things of this life, that he wants. The Congressmen who know better (and there are very few who do not know better) are caught in this net, which is partly of their own and partly of their predecessors' weaving. How to get through the session without making matters worse than they are now, and yet so as to satisfy the misguided people at home that they have done all they could for free coinage, is the problem up for solution in Washington. It is this which makes the puzzle a political rather than a financial one. It is not confined to either party, although for the moment it is rather more embarrassing to the Democrats than to the Republicans. If the Republicans, however, should begin to toy with the silver question in order to see how nearly they could come to free coinage and still miss it, with the view of "putting the Democrats in a hole," as the saying is, they would find themselves in a position of much peril. The mischief is too great for any party to gain an advantage by playing games with it. "The Democrats have done all the threatening and the Republicans all the damage," said Mr. Williams of Massachusetts, the other day. That is true, and because it is true the Republicans cannot afford to take any doubtful position in the House when the fight comes on.

The damage done by the Republicans was begun when they passed the Bland-Allison Law of 1878. It was increased when they passed the law of 1890. Whatever overt acts have been committed up to the present time they are responsible for; and if it be true, as many skilled financiers believe, that the present exportation of gold is due to an apprehension that we are near to the silver basis, the Republicans are responsible for that also, for they passed the laws which caused this apprehension to exist. They raised the silver purchases from two millions to four and a half millions per month. They weakened the power of the Treasury to cope with this new evil by cutting down the revenues and increasing the expenditures of the Government. All the perils from silver that confront us at this moment are of their devising. If a premium on gold should be disclosed in the market to-morrow, the Republican party would be answerable for it. Whenever such a premium is disclosed (under present laws), that party will have to answer for it.

The avoiding of a gold premium is a problem of several unknown quantities. One of these is the state of the public mind both here and abroad touching the permanence of the gold standard. Every dollar of gold in this country belongs to somebody who is on the *qui vive* to take care of it and see that it does not depreciate on his hands. The Treasury gold is no exception, since that belongs to the holders of greenbacks, or (since the law of 1890) to the holders of any Government paper; in other words, it belongs to the first comers. Now there is nothing so well calculated to create a panic as any signs that the Republicans are weakening their opposition to free coinage. The public cannot know whether such signs are a manœuvre for position in the political campaign, or whether they betoken a real purpose to pass a free-coinage bill. The public may not wait to inquire. They may say: "We will take our gold now, and let them finish their manœuvres at their leisure." For these reasons any attempt on the part of overcunning Republicans to toy with this question is full of peril.

CLERGYMEN AND THE RICH.

THAT the voluntary system of church support inevitably makes the relations of a clergyman to his richer parishioners exceedingly delicate, no one will deny. Newman put the case as follows in the first of the "Tracts for the Times":

> "We know how miserable is the state of religious bodies not supported by the State. Look at the Dissenters on all sides of you, and you will see at once that their Ministers, depending simply upon the people, become the *creatures* of the people. Are you content that this should be your case? . . . Can we allow ourselves to preach smooth things and prophesy deceits? to make the way of life easy to the rich and indolent, and to bribe the humbler classes by excitements and strong intoxicating doctrine?"

There was a certain amount of rhetorical exaggeration about this. The servility of the Dissenter and the noble independence of the Churchman were neither of them as extreme as Newman would have had his readers think. But there was a core of substantial truth in what he wrote, so far as it relates to the tendency of the voluntary system; and it is a truth which has but gained in force and pertinence with the lapse of time. Since those days wealth has increased tremendously, and the owner of a large fortune has come to have, by that fact alone, a social and political importance vastly greater. Moreover, the main bulwark of the clergyman's position, behind which he could then securely stand and resent the tacit or overt aggressions of the rich pew-holder, has been almost obliterated. This was, the powerful tradition which marked him off as distinctively the educated man of the community, and the reverence for his office which had been inherited from former times. But as the prestige of wealth, as such, has increased, the prestige of the clerical profession, as such, has declined. With less than ever before to rely upon in indifference to the jingle of the guinea, with the standard of "success" and "acceptability" as a minister coming more and more to be identified with the amount of pew-rents, it is not strange that the bearing of a clergyman towards the rich should have come to be one of the severest tests of his character.

That many of the ministry fail miserably under it is clear enough. It is not often that they are so openly made tools of as they were in the early floating of the Northern Pacific Railroad's bonds, nor can we suppose that such unblushing worship of the golden calf as was indulged in a few nights ago by a company of Presbyterian ministers at the house of Jay Gould is a matter of common occurrence; but in less conspicuous and offensive ways the subservience of some among the clergy to men of wealth is as indisputable as it is unfortunate. We are perfectly aware that this subservience is frequently unconscious. A minister will go on accepting great personal favors from rich men, and according them a deference beyond the deserts of their character or attainments, without seeing how, on the one hand, he is degrading himself to the position of their steward, or, on the other, is for ever shutting his mouth against their shortcomings. And we know, too, how commendable, or apparently so, are the motives which often lead clergymen to honor the rich above other men. They sometimes do it in resentment of a false idea that the millionaire may not be a man for a' that. They are aware, as the public is not, of the immense amount of good done in an unassuming way by men who make their wealth a servant, not a master. Then they often say that it is idle to deny the fact that money wields an enormous power in the world, and that they are not to be blamed for trying to turn that power to the worthiest uses. They have a comfortable sense of being on an easy footing with men who wield the greatest forces of modern society, and easily transmute that feeling into an assurance that the Church and the cause of religion are made so much the stronger thereby.

We have not the slightest disposition to make out ministers sinners above all other men in this particular. In this they but share the tendencies of their time. If we were to be strict to mark iniquity in this matter, what college president would stand? The late J. G. Holland had in one of his stories a vulgar man of great but dubiously acquired wealth, who was long hunted and harried by searchers after educational endowments. The fellow took it all as a part of the mammon-worship he was accustomed to, but finally aspired to higher things, and confided to a friend that he was fairly pining for a theological seminary to endow. The satire is too close to the truth to be pleasant for some institutions. But the state of things satirized is to be found in no one class in the community: we are all in danger of giving in to the blind worship of wealth.

But while we cheerfully admit this to be true, we still maintain that the clergyman ought to be more jealous than other men of anything that would put him into com-

promising relations with the rich, because he is almost the only man in the modern world who can make an effective protest against the vulgarization of society and the demoralization of character which come from making wealth the sole and sufficient standard. He is about the only man who can, if he will, attack the excessive claims of riches, in things social, political, and religious, without falling under suspicion of insincerity. When the Anarchist raves against great accumulations of money in one man's hands, it is commonly understood that he wants his share of the plunder. Certainly, the average newspaper editor, with his pen controlled in the counting-room, cannot pose as a lofty moralist on the subject. Those writers who are not thus hampered, and who, in a daily paper or magazine article or essay, can freely speak their minds, must yet rest under a certain suspicion that their contempt for wealth is only provisional, and subject to revision if they get on in the world.

But the minister of religion has, or should have, by virtue of his office, renounced getting on in the world. His is the only profession which expressly rules out great pecuniary gains. Its ideal is a service of humanity, with only an incidental livelihood as a material reward. A man in that profession, if he is circumspect, can speak to the most vital needs of modern society as no one else can. Personally beyond suspicion of crooking the hinges of the knee, in a place of teaching made reverend and authoritative by long tradition, it is in his power, as it is in that of no other mortal, to expose and combat and defeat the evils of a society rapidly becoming plutocratic. People talk of the decayed power of the pulpit, but here is its unrivalled opportunity. Not that it is to "reconcile the interests of capital and labor"—may a kind Heaven spare us further sermons on that subject—but let it, by precept and example, exalt manliness and simple virtue above great possessions; let it insist that vulgarity and folly remain vulgarity and folly though tricked out in diamonds; let it apply the Scripture rule of taking gifts for religious purposes only when the giver shall have first expressed his willingness to restore fourfold if he has wronged any man. It is because we thus appreciate the immense usefulness within the grasp of the ministry of to-day that we deplore the way so many of its members are throwing it away by approving where they should rebuke, by going with the crowd, and, worst of all, by making themselves, in Newman's phrase, the creatures of the very men whom it is their business to instruct in righteousness

MR. BALFOUR'S FAILURE.

THE most striking event in foreign politics during the past month has been the collapse of the constructive policy of the Tories in dealing with the Irish question. There have been six years of coercion in Ireland, attended, they say, with complete success in restoring order, but this confession has been unfortunate, as it forced them to attempt constructive remedial measures in the last days of the present Parliament, after they have lost ground a good deal with the constituencies in England. Accordingly, Mr. Balfour, as soon as the present session opened and he had assumed the leadership of the House on Mr. W. H. Smith's death, brought in a bill for the establishment of county councils in Ireland—that is, for the government of Irish counties by popular representative bodies. Irish counties are now governed in the main by grand juries composed of the local gentry and selected by the High Sheriff. There is no question that, during the last half-century at least, this grand-jury government has been on the whole both pure and efficient. There is no likelihood that an elective council would give the taxpayers better results for less money. The great objection to it is, that it is the government of a class separated in feelings, traditions, and opinions from the main body of the population, and that as long as it exists, therefore, the Irish cannot get even rudimentary lessons in the art of self-government. It is, in fact, the want of the political training at home which makes the Irish peasantry such an undesirable political element when they emigrate to countries in which they enjoy a full share in the management of local affairs. Moreover, the more they emigrate, the greater the discontent of those who remain behind, over their exclusion from all share in local administration. So that, in introducing his "Irish Local Government Bill," Mr. Balfour's object was not to give the Irish better local government so much as local government that would be more satisfactory to the people, and tend to abate the agitation for an Irish Parliament.

The occasion was a very critical one in Mr. Balfour's career, for probably nobody knows better than himself by this time how hollow is the greatness which his career as Irish Secretary during the past three years has thrust upon him. What has given him his great fame as the rising hope of the Tories and the idol of London society, is his sudden development of very remarkable debating talent, after sixteen years of obscurity in the House of Commons, and the cool and jaunty way in which he enforced the Irish Coercion Act and bore the Irish taunts and insults which had broken down Mr. Forster and Sir George Trevelyan. In fact, it may be said that it was the latter which really made his political future, in conjunction with his relationship to Lord Salisbury. But in enforcing the Irish Coercion Act he showed no qualities which may not be found in great abundance among the young men of the upper class in England. He belongs, in fact, to a very common aristocratic type, which once played a great part in politics, but is now mainly represented in the army, viz., the cool, plucky, unsentimental, fastidious man, animated with considerable contempt for Celts and colored people, and enjoying immensely the sharp, short methods of military government. The government which was put in Mr. Balfour's hands by the Irish Coercion Act was essentially military; and by a vigorous use of it—that is, by locking up the orators and hunting down the turbulent with soldiers (for the Irish police are soldiers), and following the suspected, in the old Austrian fashion, with spies—he produced in the course of a few years an appearance of external tranquillity. His praises in his own set were then sung as loudly as if there were not a thousand officers of the British Army who could have done the work as well, and as if Cavour had never said, "Anybody can govern with 'a state of siege.'"

Moreover—and this is the most curious thing in his career—his friends have talked as if the chief object of his Irish administration was to reveal his debating talents and his courage, and as if, this being accomplished, his success or failure in really pacifying Ireland by reconciling people to the English connection was an entirely secondary matter. So that it has been a not uncommon experience, in talking with his admirers about him, to be told that, although it was quite true that the Irish were no more reconciled to English rule now than when he began, nevertheless every one now recognizes the force that lay under his dilettante exterior, and the marvellous ability with which he met the Irish and the Gladstonians in debate, and, therefore, he must be considered a prodigious success and the coming Tory leader.

The probabilities are, however, that he was not himself deceived, except in the first year or two, by this absurd flattery, and knew that the time must come when he would have to give better proof of statesmanship than clapping the Irish into jail. The time has come, and he has produced his first really constructive and healing measure, the first measure which was to offer the Irish a real share in the government of their own country. The necessity was the greater because his great charity measure—the vote of $150,000,000 to be lent to the tenants to enable them to buy their holdings from the landlords—has proved a failure thus far. Mr. Jackson, his successor in the Irish Secretaryship, had to admit this in the opening debate on "the address." Of the $150,000,000, only about $1,000,000 has been called for by either landlords or tenants.

The scene in the House of Commons when Mr. Balfour introduced the Local-Government Bill is reported to have been very extraordinary. His exposition of its contents was very spiritless, because it is known to receive only half-hearted approval from his own party. By the Liberals and the Irish it was received with shouts of laughter, which followed him to the end. What called forth the most up-

roarious mirth, and furnished the weapon which will probably have most to do with killing the measure, is his plan for preventing the county councils from misbehaving. He said, as reported in the London *Times:*

"Under the bill, application may be made by twenty cess-payers to a judge of assize for leave to petition for the removal of councillors of counties or baronies [loud Opposition ironical cheers and laughter] on the ground that the council has been guilty of persistent disobedience of the law [renewed laughter], or of corruption [renewed laughter], or of malversation or of oppression [loud laughter]."

The debate after this was a scene of great merriment. The places of the councillors "found guilty" by the judges were to be filled by appointment of the Lord-Lieutenant. But the mirth reached its height when Mr. Chamberlain, who had been dubbed by Sir William Harcourt the secret "mother of the bill," rose to defend this plan of having legislators tried for bad legislation by two judges and punished by the loss of their seats. The distrust of the constituencies displayed in it was not less comical than the assumption that the judgments of the two judges on the character of their measures would be received by the voters with reverence and acquiescence. As a feature of local self-government, it was of course a delightful Irish bull, but it had to be put in to satisfy the Tory distrust of the Irish capacity for self-government, and that curious Tory expectation that the Irish would acknowledge, themselves, that this distrust was justifiable. So when Mr. Chamberlain asked the Liberals what they were laughing at, and said the Supreme Court of the United States exercised just the same supervision over the State Legislatures, the joke assumed monstrous proportions. Said he:

"As I understand, the main safeguard, and the one spoken of by honorable members below the gangway as an insult to Ireland, is a safeguard which the Americans, the most democratic and independent people on the face of the world, have actually introduced into their Constitution. [Hear, hear.] At the present time there is not in the United States of America a Legislature in any of these governing States which cannot, in the words of the right hon. gentleman—the absurd, the theatrical words of the member for Newcastle—be put into the dock and tried and judged by a judicial tribunal.

"Mr. J. Morley—And suppressed?

"Mr. J. Chamberlain—No, not suppressed. My right honorable friend will not get off in that way. I am coming to suppression directly. The charge of the right honorable gentleman against the Government was that they were going to put county councils in the dock. No matter what the penalty was to be if convicted, the insult was that they were going to put them in the dock. [Cheers.] I say, in exactly the same way as these councils would be put into the dock, the Legislature of every State in the United States of America may be brought before the Supreme Court and 'put into the dock' and their acts declared to be *ultra vires.*"

This brought Mr. Bryce to his feet, and there followed this curious colloquy:

"I should like to know what any ordinary American would have said to the right honorable gentleman's argument if he had had the good fortune to be sitting in the strangers' gallery. [Loud cheers.] That American would have realized that there was no country where American institutions were so little understood as the country from which so many of them were derived. [Cheers.] The right honorable gentleman stated that there was no Legislature in the United States which might not be put into the dock and tried by a tribunal in exactly the same way as it was proposed to treat the Irish county councils.

"Mr. J. Chamberlain—I did not say that the cases were exactly parallel, or were exactly the same; nor did I say that the consequences would be exactly the same. [Home-Rule cries of "Oh."]

"Mr. Bryce said that the right honorable gentleman had undoubtedly used the word 'exactly,' for he had taken it down at the time. [Cheers.] The House might be interested to know that there was absolutely no power whatever in any American court to arraign or deal with the action of any Legislature at all. [Loud cheers.] No American court had any power to do anything but administer the general law of the land. The highest law of the land was the Constitution of the United States. The next highest was that constituted by those statutes of Congress which had been made under the authority of the Constitution and in the scope of the Congressional powers; and if any act of a State Legislature transgressed the Constitution of the United States or a statute made by Congress, that act might, in a private case arising between parties, be judged to be in fact null and void [Ministerial cheers, and "Hear, hear," from Mr. J. Chamberlain]."

CONSTITUTIONAL REFORM IN BELGIUM.

PARIS, Feb. 12, 1892.

CHANGES in the Constitution of Belgium have been agitated for many years, and certain reforms have even served as war-cries for political parties, but hitherto in vain. Recently, however, the Chambers have taken up the matter so much in earnest that it may now be worth while to examine the questions at issue, and, while the Committee is considering the bill proposed by the Government, inquire into the changes which public sentiment is loudly demanding. That Parliament feels the pressure is evident from the attitude of all parties since the opening of the session in November, and the general feeling seems to have been expressed in the words of M. de Lantsheere, President of the Chamber of Deputies, who, in his speech accepting reëlection to the chair, declared that "the present session ought to be the session of revision, and it will be." The ministerial project was placed before the House a few days ago.

The charter under which Belgium has been living dates from the birth of the country as an independent monarchy, and has suffered no change since that time. Like all documents of its kind, it was the result of compromise between the various parties, and came out as none of its projectors expected. But the year 1831 was a trying time for Constitution-makers, for not only was the struggle for separation from Holland not definitely ended, but the breath of revolution was blowing from France upon a population at the same time highly inflammable and by instinct conservative. A form of government was finally evolved under which Belgium has, indeed, advanced and prospered, but which contained certain features by no means consistent with more modern notions of a parliamentary State. One of these features was the basis of suffrage, which rested on a property qualification. The right to vote for members of Parliament was limited to those who paid at least forty-two francs in direct taxes; and for participation in provincial and community affairs the payment of twenty and ten francs, respectively, was required. This was not a limitation which would have been felt as much at that time as at present, for not only was the population much smaller, but the lower classes had not begun to think so much for themselves. The disproportion between governors and governed was then not so apparent, but at the end of sixty years it has come to pass that, out of a population exceeding 6,000,000, only about 133,000 may vote for members of Parliament. According to a very low ratio of voters to population, there must be 600,000 men of mature age in Belgium who have nothing to say about national affairs, as they might have in the United States. The Radical party, led by Janson, demands the emancipation of this great body of citizens by the introduction of universal suffrage.

What form of the franchise will be finally voted is difficult to premise. Up to within a very short time, any extension of suffrage whatever was frowned upon in political circles. Even the Liberal party was suspicious of change, and the persistency of the Radical wing brought the matter to the front only at the expense of a decided party split and a victory lost to the Conservatives. The Ministry does not favor universal suffrage, but proposes to put it upon a household basis. A minority of the Centre demands a lowering of the property basis to that required for participation in provincial and community affairs, namely, a tax of ten to twenty francs. Hence the outlook for manhood suffrage is at present not very bright. Even Laveleye, whose last literary work was a series of articles on revision in the *Indépendance Belge*, expressed himself against it, saying that it would do very well for Switzerland, but that Belgium was too little accustomed to self-government to succeed well with the general franchise at present. The deprived working-classes are naturally in favor of the change. In 1890 a popular convention summoned to discuss the question brought together 50,000 workingmen, who, with deliberation and without any exhibition of disorder, formulated the demand for a voice in political affairs; but the ruling classes are almost to the last man Roman Catholic in faith and conservative by instinct, and at present the clerical element is in power after an overwhelming victory.

The articles of the Constitution which regulate the Parliamentary electorate are intimately connected with those which organize the Chambers, and certain changes are projected, also, in the latter. At present the Chamber of Deputies is elected by districts, several members being elected on the same list from each district, and the qualifications are the same as for voters, except that the representative must be at least twenty-five years of age. The Senators represent the nine provinces, but their number must always equal one-half the membership of the Chamber of Deputies, and they are apportioned to the provinces according to population. Deputies are elected for two years, and Senators for four, by the very same voters, the Senate coming directly from the people. There are no appointed Senators, as in most European Governments, the only exception being the Crown Prince, who becomes a member by right at the age of eighteen. But this upper house is chosen from a very limited body of citizens, for the Senator must be at least forty years of age, and pay about 2,000 francs annually in direct taxes. Every year lists are published for the edification of the proletariat, showing what persons are eligible to seats in the Senate, and if the actual number of those fully qualified is not sufficient properly to represent the province, enough more are added from citizens paying the highest taxes to make the proportion of possible candidates one to six thousand inhabitants.

We have here, indeed, a Senate which cannot be made the tool of the Executive or of the party in power, by increasing its numbers, but it is a chamber without particular weight, being simply another House of Deputies on a smaller scale. The choice of candidates is often so narrow that fitness has to be left out of the question, and the good expected from a representation of the large landed interests or money power of the country has never been realized. As compared with certain other clubs of millionaires, it has the redeeming feature that its members enter it by the acknowledged rights of wealth, not by the hidden effects of money. The revisionists, however, propose to abolish the property qualification, though they do not seem to change the principle of election. The range of choice will be greatly enlarged and the limitation of number to exactly one-half the other Chamber removed, so that whether the Senate remains a representation of class interests or is made simply another elective body as a guarantee of deliberation in law-making, its effectiveness will be increased.

Minor changes which the project desires to effect include a certain degree of minority representation which could be brought about by provinces constituting themselves, if they so desired, into single electoral districts. Another amendment removes the distinction between provincial representatives and deputies from the capital. The latter now receive no pay, while the former get something like 400 francs per month. The Ministry is inclined to grant the city residents at least half pay. Although the highest salary hardly removes the occupation from the class of gratuitous services, Senators receive no remuneration. It is further proposed to make not only the heir-presumptive a Senator by right, but to grant the same privilege to all the princes of the royal family. If it be well to educate the Crown Prince to the burdens of the throne, it is doubtless proper to give other possible heirs the same experience; but this might lead the royal family into unpleasant political entanglements, and vitiate the personal irresponsibility of the crown, whose burdens are now carried by a Ministry.

Vastly more far-reaching is the proposal to remove from the Chambers the power to verify the election of their own members. This is a reform not demanded by Belgium alone, for, with three or four exceptions, every parliamentary government in the world is suffering from the evils of partisan judgment in contested elections. Americans do not need to hear examples cited. France is equally tainted with the same disease, for committees on elections find justice confined to their own party there as much as in other republics. Hence this proposition to remove future election contests in Belgium from the elected body to a regular court of justice should be welcomed by all friends of good government, and should act as an incentive to fall into line with England and Canada in abolishing an abuse so flagrant. Exactly what form this amendment will take can be determined only later, for the Government simply expresses itself on the principle. It is interesting to note in passing that the very last efforts of Laveleye were given to the dictation of an article on the "Vérification des Pouvoirs," which was printed a few days after his death. The matter is very similar to the corresponding chapter in his book on 'Gouvernement dans la Démocratie,' but is applied to the case in hand. No stronger statement of the question than that given in that chapter (tome ii., ch. 8) is needed to show the evils of the present system. The proceedings of the Greek Parliament of 1890, there mentioned, recall the French congressional methods of a century before. "Purging" is not a lost art if it is still possible in Greece for the Opposition to come to the Chambers with forty-five adherents and be shortly reduced, by contested elections, to fifteen.

The territorial divisions of Belgium as now regulated are somewhat antiquated. The former relations of Luxembourg to the German Confederation no longer exist, and as for colonial connections, the Government desires that the civil status of the inhabitants of the Congo Free State be accurately defined. The succession to the throne is now by direct male succession in order of primogeniture. The party of the Centre proposed at first to add to this another limitation, to the effect that "no one is qualified to succeed to the constitutional office of chief of state who is not the issue of a marriage contracted with the consent of the legislative power." This proposition, however, was abandoned, and the project of the Ministry calls only for the consent of the King to such nuptials. In default of male heirs, the King may now appoint his successor with the consent of the Chambers, but as the wording of the article seems to confine this privilege to Leopold I., it is desirable to remove the ambiguity.

The most interesting amendment of all is the new form of veto which it is proposed to put into the hands of the King. At present the only recourse left for the chief executive, in case he does not favor a bill, is to dissolve one or both of the chambers and call a new Ministry. The royal veto final is as dead as it is in England, and a dissolution of Parliament is a step taken only after very serious consideration, and has occurred but four times in the history of the Belgian monarchy. The proposition is now made, however, to give the King the privilege of submitting a bill to popular vote, and to let him govern his signature by the result. This is not an executive act for which the Ministry is responsible, but a weapon with which to protect himself, or the people, against legislatures. It is a combination of the suspensive veto, as we know it, and the *referendum*. It is not like the *referendum* in Switzerland, for there the bill goes before the people, either by force of law, as provided for certain financial measures, or on petition, which may bring any project to popular vote. In Belgium this is left entirely to the judgment of the King, who may not use the privilege at all unless he desires.

The value of this measure from the democratic standpoint naturally depends on the legal conclusiveness of the plébiscite. In Switzerland the popular vote is final: the Legislature has nothing more to do with the law; it remains only for the Executive to declare the result of the election, which, if favorable, makes the bill a statute as soon as promulgated. If the Belgian plan simply gives the King an opportunity to test popular opinion, it becomes, indeed, a step in advance towards democracy, but not a long one. The effects will still depend on the personal qualities of the sovereign, and public opinion may or may not thus find an opportunity of expression. The details, however, await the discussion of the Chambers, and the chances may turn against the project altogether. Opinion is very much divided. The Government bill was not received with any great warmth in general when presented the other day, and the prospects are good for heated discussion. M. Woeste, the great leader of the Clerical party, was tempted into epigrams, and expressed the opinion that this "royal referendum is nothing but personal power tempered by plébiscites." But M. Woeste is not the dictator he once was. Others see in the measure a corrective for misrepresentation in the Legislature, and an opportunity to show changes in public opinion between the regular elections to Parliament. But the plan is so new that the chances for success on the merits of the question are narrow. Even the enlargement of the franchise has but just come to get a respectful hearing, and the Government is accused of heaping up new and untried measures in order to profit by the complexity of debate. It is to be hoped, however, that in time this combination of royalty and democracy will be tried. Belgium has on the whole presented a model of enlightened constitutional monarchy, and offers a good field for this new experiment.

The machinery of constitutional revision is comparatively simple. The Legislature has the right to declare that amendments are to be made to such and such articles, and after this statement the houses become legally dissolved. A new election must take place within forty days, and the new Parliament must assemble within two months after the dissolution. It is this body which finally enacts the amendments, and these become law when signed by the King. The present Legislature will, however, determine the general outline of changes at present in view, and make the great discussion of principles. The prospects for democracy are as yet uncertain. *Nous attendons.*

J. M. Vincent.

RENAN'S 'DETACHED LEAVES.'

Paris, February 18, 1892.

There is a great deal to be said, after all, for the doctrine of realism; nothing survives but what is real. A good book is a book which has, to use the modern language, *vécu*—lived. Who reads now the 'Natchez,' or 'The Last of the Abencerages,' or 'The Martyrs,' or 'The Genius of Christianity' of Chateaubriand? These books have become mere phantoms, while we are all capable of reading over the 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe.' Long, very long, is the list of the works published by Renan; how many of them will survive him? I was conversing some days ago on this very subject with some members of the French Academy; they all agreed that the book of Renan's which has the best chance of being read thirty or fifty years hence is 'Souvenirs d'Enfance et de Jeunesse.' The polemical, the exegetical works will be forgotten, or at least they will be as little read as some of Voltaire's attacks against the Church. Few books have produced in their time a greater sensation than the 'Vie de Jésus,' but the revolution produced by it in the public mind has, so to speak, already exhausted its effect. Ask Renan's publisher if the volumes which have followed the 'Vie de Jésus' sell as readily as this first volume, which was a declaration of war on Catholic dogmas.

Renan tells us himself that he had a visit from his publisher some time ago. They talked over the fourth volume of the 'History of the People of Israel.' Most people have quite enough of the people of Israel, and as this fourth volume could only be got ready for publication by the end of 1892, the publisher (who himself belongs to this famous people of Israel, as his name Lévy shows) said to Renan: "Could you not, meantime, give me a volume of miscellanies? What we want of you now" (I here cite textually the preface of Renan's new book) "is a volume in the style

of your 'Souvenirs,' interesting to all, simple, personal." Note this word *personal;* we do want to know all about persons who have made great names for themselves. Sandeau, who was a colleague of Renan's in the French Academy, told him many years ago: "The public will always be satisfied when you speak of yourself." The new volume is conceived in this spirit. It is called 'Detached Leaves,'* and is made out of the leavings of the volume of 'Souvenirs,' with the addition of a little after-dinner speechmaking, of lectures, newspaper articles, academical discourses, and sundry letters.

The preface, as usual in Renan's books, is written with much care and is very characteristic. It is full of the lukewarm, commonplace optimism which has of late years been growing in Renan's intellect—an optimism which is a singular mixture of good nature and contempt, of a mild enthusiasm and mild indifference. Some friends of his were once discussing Victor Hugo; he began to speak, and praised almost with eloquence the genius of Hugo, his extraordinary imagination, the richness of his invention. After a while, when the flow of eloquence was over, somebody said: "That's all very well; but do tell us what will survive of Hugo's immense production a hundred years from now?" "What will survive? Well, well—nothing." Renan has invented a new kind of scepticism, a satisfied scepticism, which at times assumes the language of faith. Among the many articles in the new volume is a sort of philosophical examination of conscience, written in 1888:

"I have not much modified since," writes Renan, "my way of looking at the universe. More and more clearly I perceive that we know very little of what we should like to know. In philosophy, we must have confidence in the infinite goodness and guard ourselves against vain eagerness. We gain nothing by importuning truth, by soliciting it every day. Truth is deaf and cold; our ardor does not touch it. *Die neue Philosophie—die neuere Philosophie—die neueste Philosophie*—Heavens! how youthful these bids are! Why do we dispute about priority in error? Let us learn how to wait; there is perhaps nothing at the end of it. . . . Who knows? Perhaps truth is sad. Do not let us be in such a hurry to learn it."

Renan is surprised to see so much agitation in our French youth; he thinks that youth ought to be serene. "Have these young men not read the history of philosophy, nor Ecclesiastes—'The thing that hath been, it is that which shall be'? Why should you, dear children, give yourselves such headaches merely in order to end by changing your error? Amuse yourselves, since you are only twenty years old, and work also." And why should they work? you may say. In order to study science; for if philosophy is barren, science is not. There is always a harvest to be made in that field. If I were tempted to be more of a Renan than Renan himself, I would tell him that science, after it has fed me, and clothed me, and warmed me, is nothing to me, after all, if it does not give me a philosophy. I am sure I could find a hundred pages in the works of Renan expressing the greatest contempt for a purely material civilization. In this very preface, I read: "We shall have evil days: moral stocks will fall, it is certain; already the spirit of sacrifice has nearly disappeared. We see the day coming when everything will be the object of a syndicate, when organized egotism will replace love and devotion. Our century has made more and more perfect material tools, without seeing that the use of these tools supposes a certain amount of morality, of conscience, of abnegation." "Never mind," he says, a moment afterwards; "the resources of humanity are infinite. Eternal works will be accomplished, and the spring of living force, always coming to the surface, will never become dry. Science especially will continue to astonish us by its revelations, which will put the infinite of space and time in the place of a creationism that satisfies no longer the imagination even of a child."

I can only compare this method and this style to the movement of a pendulum. All established religions are wrong, all dogmas are fallacies; but "as two parallels meet in the infinite, so does religion become true in the infinite." Here and there, there is a touch of humor: after having praised virtue, he adds: "If virtue were a good investment, business men, who are so sagacious, would long ago have remarked it; they would all be virtuous. No, in the finite order it is a bad investment; but, in the infinite, all contradictions efface themselves." Renan has of late years discovered that the greatest virtue, the greatest recompense of a good life, is gayety. In the little after-dinner speeches which he makes in some of the Breton clubs, he is never tired of praising gayety; he has discovered it in Brittany, which had always been represented to us as full of gloom and melancholy. A gay Gascon seems very natural, but a gay Breton—well, Renan will have it that his compatriots are naturally very gay. "N'est pas gai qui veut," he says. "In order to be gay, you must belong to an old race, not *blasée;* you must also be satisfied with your own life."

This satisfaction is complete in Renan; it is sincere, and it gives him a sort of clerical serenity which is at times agreeable and sometimes also irritating. "My life," he says, "has been what I wished, what I conceived as the best. If I had to begin it anew, I would not change it much. On the other hand, I have a little fear of the future. I shall have my biography and my legend." He amuses himself with making this legend, having had some experience of ecclesiastical writers. "The legends of the enemies of the official Church are all cast in the same mould. The end which the Acts attribute to Judas (*crepuit medius*) is the necessary foundation of them. For one part of the tradition I shall end thus, in a manner combined of Arius and of Voltaire. Heavens, how black I shall be!—all the blacker that the Church, when she feels she is lost, will end in malice; she will bite like a mad dog."

To speak frankly, this seems to me in very bad taste; these pleasantries are forced, and seem to me vulgar. Who can tell what figure he will make in the great "Todtentanz"? Renan seems to me to care more than he says about the pious correspondent he speaks of, who writes to him regularly every three months these words: "There is a hell." He writes, it is true:

"This person . . . does not frighten me as much as he believes. I should like to be sure that there is a hell. For I prefer the hypothesis of hell to that of nothingness. Many theologians think that for the damned it is better to be than not to be, and that these unfortunates are perhaps accessible to many a good thought. As for myself, I imagine that if the Eternal, in his severity, should send me first to that dreadful place, I should succeed in getting out of it. I would send up to my Creator a supplication which would make him smile. The reasonings which I would make in order to prove to him that it is by his fault that I am damned, would be so subtle that he would have some difficulty in answering me. Perhaps he would finally admit me into his holy paradise, which must be very tedious."

The preferences of Renan are for purgatory, for there you meet the amiable sinners—those who have walked, as he does himself, on the tight-rope between virtue and vice, between corruption and incorruption—those who have led pendulous lives. He would like to meet them in this purgatory, which he represents to himself as an immense park, under a polar light, full of dark shrubberies, "where are purified loves begun on earth. What delicious novels are there finished! how little people must be in a hurry to leave it, especially for a monotonous paradise!" When you read such lines you often ask yourself, Is the author serious? What does he really mean? Is he laughing more at himself or at us? What notion has he of the mission of a writer? The extraordinary fluidity of Renan's style is the outward expression of a fluidity of thought, of belief, of unbelief, which is truly extraordinary. I have only touched so far on the philosophical part of his new work; there is another part on which I must dilate at some length—I mean the social part, the views which Renan takes of the relations of morality. But I have no more space to-day to touch on these delicate questions.

* 'Recollections and Letters.' Translated by Isabel F. Hapgood. New York: Cassell Publishing Co.

Correspondence.

PARTIES AND THE NATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is very instructive to see the exultation of the Republican papers over the helplessness of the Democrats and their inability to make any progress with the public business. The argument is, in substance: "We are bad enough, but the other fellows are worse. You will have to come back to us." Is it not a pitiful thing for this great country that the question which the people are called upon to decide, is not which party is the best, but which is the worst? If anybody supposes that the Republican party, if it returns to power, will be merely what it has been, he is laboring under a grievous delusion. On the plea that its past action has been endorsed by the people, it will plunge into a fresh course of iniquities, and in its turn be displaced by a Democratic party still more helpless and disorganized. And so we shall go on, from bad to worse, till the country discovers that the root of the trouble is not in either party, but in the defective organization of the Government business. Meantime, the situation is a difficult one for the independent voter.

The matter cannot be better illustrated than by the state of the pension bills. As the *Evening Post* points out, neither party has the courage to offer the smallest opposition to this gigantic swindle. The reason of this is, that every member stands in direct awe of an active and influential minority of his local constituents, while he has personally nothing to hope or fear from the country at large. The Treasury, which is the real sufferer for the country, has no authorized representative or defender in Congress, while the impersonal and collective responsibility for its condition sits very lightly upon the members of either party, as compared with their relations to an eager group of political workers at home, especially when those relations are manipulated by a powerful and determined lobby.

Mr. Reed, in his article in the *North American*, says (and the sentence is an epitome of his whole argument), that the "billion-dollar"

Congress appropriated the money because the citizens of this country, who are the rulers of it, demanded it; upon which the inquiry at once arises, What citizens? If he means the citizens who pack caucuses and conventions and make members of Congress, the plea is no justification. If he means the 65,000,000 of inhabitants, minus the small percentage who benefit by pensions, the reply is that they have never been asked.

Suppose that Mr. David B. Hill were to succeed in packing the conventions of other States as he did that of New York, and were to persuade the country that, bad as he is, he is not as bad as the Republican candidate (and a case suggests itself in which even that argument might be maintained), would anybody dare to say that he was the choice of the people of the United States?

The truth is, that if this country is ever to redeem itself from the slough into which it is falling—if it is not to fail disastrously in its great mission as the champion and exponent of popular government before the world—some provision has got to be made for the expression of the will at least of the majority of the nation as a whole; and the only visible method is to give to the President and his Cabinet that share and voice in the guidance of legislation without which administration itself is nothing but an instrument for the intrigues and quarrels, the greed and the ambition, of contending factions. G. B.

Boston, March 5, 1892.

FREE COINAGE AND ITS CONSEQUENCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "Will the silver of Europe be thrown upon America when free coinage is established?" This is a question discussed by Mr. Leech and Mr. Bland in the March *Forum*. I think it will not, but upon grounds very different from those assigned by Mr. Bland. If free coinage, in the form of the Bland Bill, accompanied by certificates issued against bullion, comes at all, it will not be before June, 1894, and then only if the Democratic Convention nominate Hill or some Western man not pledged against such a measure. When the free-coinage bill becomes a law, its effect will have long been foreseen, and will *at once* come to pass in its full force. This effect will be simply that 371¼ grains of pure silver will be worth no more after the impress of the silver dollar is put upon them than before. Hence, no one in Germany, Austria, France, or Italy will have the least reason or motive for carrying his silver across the ocean to the United States.

I feel not at all sure that our gold coins will be exported. They will simply circulate at a premium. The necessities of the case will regulate the premium and keep them from fluctuating too wildly. It is very likely that ten-dollar gold pieces will come to pass, as a matter of course, as fourteen-dollar pieces. I recollect distinctly how in Prussia, in 1848, and for years before, Friedrich's-d'ors, nominally five-thaler pieces, were paid out at 5⅔ thalers, with as much regularity as if they had borne the inscription 5 thaler 20 groschen. We may thus have a truly bimetallic currency—though not in the sense in which some of the advocates of silver coinage predict, yet in the sense in which the rank and file of the silver party desire it, namely, that ten dollars' worth of either gold or silver, as measured by the present standard, will pay fourteen dollars of debt.

If there is to be a national bankrupt law, I think that between Torrey's bill and Bland's the latter is the most economical and simple. No clerk or register, no assignee or trustee, no marshal or messenger, no creditors' meetings, no suits to assail preferences, no opposition to discharges. Every man pays 70 cents on the dollar of what he owes, and gets his receipt in full. Solon tried the same relief measure in Attica 600 years B. C. In times nearer our own, such a measure worked itself out by the depreciation of the greenback. It may have its advantages. But let us freely admit that free coinage means this and nothing more.

Yours truly, L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., March 1, 1892.

[Mr. Leech discusses in the *Forum* the question, "Would free coinage bring European silver here?" He holds that it would, but his whole argument goes on the hypothesis that there would be some period of time, long or short, during which silver could be brought to this country and exchanged for gold, dollar for dollar—*i. e.*, 412½ grains of the former for 25.8 grains of the latter (both of standard fineness). Now, we do not think there would be any such time, even one minute. We think that there would be a run on the Treasury and a forced suspension of gold payments before any free-coinage law could get into operation. After a suspension of gold payments, the holders of silver could get gold only by buying it as they do now. They could cheat creditors, and they might sell silver to "the debtor class" for a while at something more than the preëxisting rate. Mr. Leech says: "The moment our currency reached a silver basis, when our legal-tender paper money could only be exchanged for silver dollars, the profit to the foreign silver-owner for the interchange of his silver for our gold would cease, and silver would be imported then only as an exchange matter, just as gold is now." Quite true. We think that that interchange would never have a chance to begin.—Ed. Nation.]

BOND-SELLING BY THE TREASURY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Statements like the following, from page 140 of your last issue, have frequently been made by writers on the subject, yet, as it seems to me, their erroneousness becomes apparent so soon as we follow to its practical operation the proposed remedy:

"Foreigners overlook the fact that the Secretary has the power, and is charged with the duty, of selling bonds if necessary to maintain gold payments. There is no reason to suppose that he would fail to apply this remedy in a crisis, *or that the remedy would prove inadequate.*"

I assume that you, in suggesting the selling of bonds, have in mind that by the conditions of the sale they are to be paid for in gold, since in a crisis the sale of them for any other kind of money would not help matters to any great extent. And by a "crisis" I assume that you mean a tendency to insist on the Government paying its greenbacks or other obligations in gold. However, even though you do not mean either of these things, they are what is meant and expressed by others who have with confidence used the same argument as yours, and may therefore seem worthy of consideration in your columns.

The idea is, then, that in order to get gold with which to meet the demands of those who present (say) greenbacks for redemption, the Government will replenish its supply of gold by selling its bonds for gold, refusing to accept greenbacks, Treasury notes, silver certificates, national-bank bills, or silver dollars.

Now, I claim that so long as the Treasury keeps these different kinds of money at a parity—and it is only to keep them at a parity that the sale of bonds is to be made—it will be impossible for it, in effect, to avoid taking in payment for such bonds money other than gold.

Suppose, for instance, that the Government does give notice of having bonds to sell for gold at the New York Sub-Treasury, and that a Wall Street banker possessed of $1,000,000 in greenbacks, but no gold, desires to invest it at the price at which the bonds are selling. All that he has to do is to go to the redemption department of the Sub-Treasury and exchange his greenbacks for gold, and then at once take this gold to the bond-selling department of the same building and hand it in in payment of his bond purchase. To say that the redemption department would not give the gold for the greenbacks, is to say that what we suppose the Government to be trying to avert is an accomplished fact.

Can any one doubt that should the Treasury ever, by the sale of bonds, advertise its precarious condition, the bonds would thus be purchased with its own gold withdrawn for that very purpose; and that the most that could thus be accomplished would be the withdrawal of some of the existing $346,000,000 of greenbacks? Any existing preference for gold over other money would by such action be increased rather than diminished, and the Treasury would probably have to pay out at one window more than it took in at the other.

If in like manner we follow through its practical workings the selling of our bonds abroad, it does not seem any more effective to accomplish the desired result, since the spot selected for making such sales has little influence in determining who are the real purchasers. The bonds would go to those willing to give the most for them, and such men care very little whether they send their bid to Wall or to Lombard Street. The Wall Street banker whom we before supposed to wish to invest $1,000,000 in them, would have the same wish in this latter case, and would proceed in much the same way to accomplish his end. As before, his greenbacks he would exchange at the Sub-Treasury for gold. Instead of at once returning this to the Sub-Treasury, however, he would take it to a dealer in foreign exchange, and, by means of the telegraph, inside of a few hours, if need be, the same weight of English sovereigns or gold bullion would be handed over to the London agent of our Government in purchase of the bonds. In fact, these elements of distance and time, which do not in the least interfere with the desire of the purchaser, might be very unfortunate for the Treasury. Its supply of gold might be very seriously lessened before the returns from the sale of its bonds could reach it.

In whatever way I look at the subject, it seems an absurdity for the Treasury, with a view to increasing its gold supply or restoring confidence, to discriminate against any kind of money in the sale of its bonds, and at the same

time continue to redeem in gold that same money. EDWARD F. SWEET.

CHICAGO, February 29, 1892.

[If the Government revenues were doubled, the silver crisis would be staved off indefinitely, because in that case the purchase of silver would not be an appreciable embarrassment. The silver notes put out would come back for redemption whenever they were in excess, but there would always be means to redeem them, and they would pile up in the Treasury. The law says that they "may be reissued," but there is no way to reissue them except in payment of Government debts; and under the hypothesis, the Government has sufficient money coming in to pay all its debts. The situation, therefore, would be simply a redundant revenue and the application of a portion of it to the purchase of silver bullion. It might be pig-iron, or pig-lead; the effects would be the same.

Now, the sale of bonds is, for all the purposes we are considering, the same thing as an addition to the revenues. It has the same effect upon the maintenance of gold payments. The fact that the bonds must be redeemed at maturity is a separate fact, interesting in itself, and having its own consequences, the most important of which is a probable increase of taxation to meet them. But for the present the effect of bond sales is simply an increase of Treasury receipts. If anybody can see how an increase derived from ordinary sources would stave off the silver crisis, he should be able to see how an increase derived from extraordinary sources would produce the same result.—ED. NATION.]

THE EDUCATION OF SOUTHERN YOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your paper of the 25th inst., now before me, I read, under the caption of "An Interesting Question," your comment upon the editorial of the St. Louis *Republic*, and on what the Buffalo *Courier* also had to say upon what, for us of the South at least, might be called a *painfully* interesting question. The comments of the three papers are correct; but as far as the causes that have led to this condition of things in the South are concerned, all has not been stated, and the most painful effects not even been hinted at.

As to the causes in the Southern States: after the war, bread was the first cry, followed by the insatiable appetite for money-getting, to enjoy once again after four years the mere comforts of life. This led fathers of families to take their half-educated sons into their stores and offices, that the salaries they must pay if employers, or earn if they were employees, might aid in the family support; and the girls, after the household duties were performed, were put to their books under the mother's charge as schoolmistress. Consequently, the proportion of girls and young women who were being educated largely exceeded the number of boys and young men. Then, too, be it remembered, there were comparatively few schools and colleges open in the South for a year or two after the close of the war. And still another cause must be mentioned — one that should not have existed, though easy for us of the Southern States to understand. So many half-grown boys, and war-grown young men, had either been in the active army, or in the reserves, or at posts and depots, or in charge of the planting or other business of the fathers and elder brothers in the field, that when the war was over, these youngsters, having proved themselves to be in deeds, felt that in fact they were, men; a few—very few—were willing to return to their books, and full parental control was hard to establish. Had these war-worn and almost despairing parents (for the mothers were perhaps more worn than the fathers) had the means and the moral strength to insist upon their sons' returning to their studies, the young women of to-day would not so frequently have to complain of the want of intellectuality of their male friends.

Then as to the effects: in ante-bellum times parental control in the South "went without saying," and children looked up in deference to their elders—though not in fear of them. Now this is largely changed; young men, still in their teens, do not expect to ask permission to leave their homes after tea for the theatre or billiard-room, nor to account for either the hour or the condition in which they return. A general want of deference is observable on the part of the young to the old: the lifting of the hat is almost obsolete, and the man of middle age is fortunate if his friend's pert son does not call him by his Christian or nickname. This state of things, in the providence of God and the influence of his handmaidens, the future mothers, will cure itself; but to hasten it, fathers who can afford it (even when, as is largely the case, those who can afford it nowadays in the South are so-called "self-made men") should force their sons to take an education, even if they keep them at grammar and high schools until they reach their majority; and, failing in this, should enforce the law parental, at least in the homestead, and, like the wise German fathers, consider the son's wages as due to the head of the family until the fatted calf is killed and the christening bottle of wine broached on the twenty-first birthday.—Respectfully,

JAMES G. HOLMES.

CHARLESTON, S. C., February 27, 1892.

IS INDUCTION AN INFERENCE?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the communication of Maxime Bôcher in the *Nation* of February 18, referring to the unsatisfactory condition of geometrical studies in our schools, he says:

"If we could lead the student first to see the truth of a proposition, and then, perhaps much later, to prove it, we might hope in time to have mathematicians in America. For every mathematical discovery is made in this way, let the mathematician conceal his footprints as he will; it must come as an intuition, and the man to whom it has thus come is its discoverer, even though he never succeed in finding a proof."

Is not this statement of general application? Is ever the boundary of knowledge advanced in any other way, whether in mathematical or physical science? Reasoning serves merely to verify and confirm the intuitions of genius by applying general principles to concrete cases; but *inference*, in any proper sense of the word, cannot *advance* knowledge—it cannot grasp more than is contained in the premise.

I know the common doctrine represents this as the province of induction. But induction is not reasoning; it is intuition, or happy guessing, if you like. Take any so-called inductive syllogism, and substitute for the major premise what is tacitly assumed, and it is converted at once into a strictly deductive argument. By no possible reasoning, or *inference* proper, could Newton have attained to the law of gravity. It was a happy guess, an inspiration of genius. It was based on wide knowledge, it is true; but it was not a necessary consequence of that knowledge. Assuming the law to be true, reasoning applied it, and the conclusions were found to agree with experience and observation. But the conception of the law was an intuition; it was not a *conclusion* involved in any known premises.

Take Whately's old school-book illustration of an inductive syllogism: "The ox, sheep, goat, deer, bison, etc., are a sample of the class 'horned animal,' or represent the class; the ox, sheep, etc., are ruminants, therefore all horned animals are ruminants." But what do you mean by "the ox, sheep, etc., are a sample, or represent the class 'horned animal'"? Evidently you mean that whatever is true of them is true of all horned animals. Unless this is true, your conclusion is worthless. But if you substitute this, which is tacitly assumed, the argument is deductive, not inductive. The same is true in every case of so-called inductive argument. The real induction—the advance in our bounds—is contained in the assumption that what is true in the cases we know will be found true in all cases having a certain other similarity to these. But this is not an inference, it is not reasoning, it is intuition.

J. McL. S.

DAYTON, O.

[It is plain that in no case of genuine induction is *everything* that is true of the sample true of the whole class; so, according to our correspondent, all inductions must be worthless. But he supports this position by nothing, nor does he notice a single one of the objections to it which have been urged from the days of Philodemus to our own, and are found in common American books, such as the 'Studies in Logic, by Members of Johns Hopkins University.' The main distinction between induction and statistical deduction (the only kind of deduction which bears much resemblance to induction) is that the prediction made by the deductive form of inference is applicable in many cases, and, while it may be false in any one, it will probably and approximately be true in the long run; but the inductive conclusion, on the other hand, may be false—only, if so, the further pursuit of the same method will in the long run probably and approximately *correct* it. The distinction is between getting confirmed in the long run and being corrected in the long run.

Our correspondent's proposition that induction is not inference will meet with less favor than it might do, owing to his use of the unfortunate word *inference*, which most people particularly appropriate to the designation of uncertain presumption, amounting to little more than conjecture. But in its philosophical sense inference is defined in the 'Century Dictionary' as "the formation of a belief or opinion, not as directly observed, but as constrained by observations made of other matters or by beliefs already adopted." For instance, we wish, let us suppose, to know whether

among negroes male births are more numerous than female births or not. This general proposition cannot be directly observed. We turn, then, to the compendium of the tenth census, and find a considerable excess of female over male births there recorded among negroes in this country for one year. This brings us to the belief that the same phenomenon would generally occur among large populations of negroes, and our proceeding is *inference* according to the received definition, as certainly as it is induction.

But the 'Century Dictionary' adds this remark: "The act of inference consists psychologically in constructing in the imagination a sort of diagram or skeleton image of the essentials of the state of things represented in the premises, in which, by mental manipulation and contemplation, relations which had not been noticed in constructing it are discovered." This recognizes an intuitive or perceptive element as an important part of reasoning itself—a doctrine which results from the study of the logic of relatives, where the perceptive element comes into great prominence. Proof believed to be conclusive has been offered of the truth of this view, which has been accepted by many philosophers. "J. McL. S." seems to offer no rational objection to it. He says, indeed, that Newton's discovery was "a happy guess, an inspiration of genius"—that is, it came directly from on high, or from the action of chance, and was not based upon any knowledge already in Newton's mind, or dependent from any luminous conception which he had carefully worked out. But the truth is, our correspondent seems to have taken his notion of reasoning from the 'Elements of Euclid,' which was written before logic was much understood, and from texts-books of logic inspired by theological doctors. If, as he says, "reasoning serves merely to verify [something] by applying general principles to particular cases," there is next to no reasoning in mathematics; for the *nodus* of a mathematical demonstration does not consist in the application of a general principle.

The original passage quoted has some truth in it. The mathematician usually sees a thing dimly before he sees it clearly. But between the processes of coming to see a mathematical truth as probable, and coming to see it as evident, there is no radical difference. It is all reasoning, and, as such, it is an act of perception—or, rather, of experiment, followed by observation.—Ed. Nation.]

"YOU WAS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. T. L. Kington Oliphant, in *The New English* (1886), vol. ii., p. 133, referring to Dr. Bentley's *Dissertation on the Epistles of Phalaris* (1699), writes: "The new use of *was*, just coming in, is seen in p. 299; 'when *you was* a boy.'" The fact, however, is, that the expression instanced was current at least ten years before Dr. Bentley was born, and all along in the latter half of the seventeenth century:

"But thus you will not have the same Indiuiduall Soul *you was* Christened with." Rev. Dr. Henry More, *The Second Lash of Alazonomastix* (1651), in *Enthusiasmus Triumphatus* (1656), p. 262. More has *you was* in his *Antidote against Idolatry* (1664), O 4 *v.*, *Divine Dialogues* (1668), vol. ii., p. 554, *Letters*, etc., also.

"Having known that *you was* there." "After *you was* departed from Valence." "*You was* about to marry the widow." Anon., Translation of *The History of Don Fenise* (1651), pp. 120, 240, 242.

"I have heard that *you*, Polymachus, *was* much offended when Aganacton was sick of this disease." Rev. Dr. Nathanael Ingelo, *Bentivolio and Urania* (1660), Part i., p. 108 (ed. 1682).

"What *was you* saying?" John Wilson (1664), *Works* (1874), p. 204.

"*You*, your self, *was* pleased particularly to shew me the place." Dr. Henry Stubbe (1670), *A Reply to a Letter of Dr. Henry More* (1671), p. 63.

"*You . . . was.*" Dryden and Lee, *Duke of Guise* (1682), Act IV.

"My sister told me *you was* pleased . . . to wonder I did so seldom write to you." Dean Swift (1692), *Letter to William Swift*, Nov. 29.

Other quotations could be given, as from Sir Aston Cokain (1658 and 1662), *Works* (ed. 1874), pp. 96, 297; and from Charles Cotton (1664), *Poetical Works* (ed. 1765), p. 62.

Mr. Barrett Wendell, in his *English Composition* (1891), p. 79, observes: "A slight examination of some of the best writers of the last century will show that, certainly as late as the time of Fielding, there was a great deal of good authority for *you was*, when the second person singular was intended." Fielding published from 1730 till 1754, the year of his death; and nearly all that he wrote was of the lighter cast of literature. But, as is shown below, in such literature, and more especially in familiar epistolary correspondence, *you was* continued to enjoy good repute long after his days:

"I find *you was* no more born for servitude than myself." Bp. William Warburton (1758), in *Letters from a Late Eminent Prelate* (ed. 1809), p. 263. In sixteen other passages in this volume, dated between 1749 and 1775, Warburton has *you was*.

"*You*, I was told, had been married, and *was* a widow." Mrs. Frances Sheridan, *Memoirs of Miss Sidney Bidulph* (1761), vol. iii., p. 119.

"*You was* the most lovely person in the world." "I learned, from Don Carlos, that *you was* resolved to go away with him." Oliver Goldsmith (*a.* 1774), Translation of Scarron's *Comic Romance* (1775), vol. i., p. 125; vol. ii., p. 83.

"As I told you, when *you was* here." "*You*, I think, *was* never a dabbler in rhyme." William Cowper (1780 and 1786), *Works* (1835–1837) vol. iv., p. 16; vol. vi., p. 17. Other instances of *you was* occur in vol. xv., pp. 33, 34, 45, 68.

"*You was* prevented, by Sir Joshua Reynolds, in your kind intentions of giving me the earliest notice of the honour you have done me." Bp. Jonathan Shipley (1780), in *Lord Teignmouth's Memoirs of Sir William Jones* (ed. 1806), p. 194.

"I am sorry *you was* disappointed of going to Vallombrosa." Horace Walpole (1791), in *The Journals and Correspondence of Miss Berry* (1865), vol. i., p. 367.

For *you was* could also be quoted: Dr. Hawkesworth (1773), in *The Private Correspondence of David Garrick* (1831, 1832), vol. i., p. 536; Miss Elizabeth Carter (1785), *Letters to Mrs. Montagu* (1817), vol. iii., p. 258, and often before; Richard Cumberland, *The Natural Son* (1786), *passim*; with many other writers between 1760 and 1800.

The quotations which follow are not without interest:

"*Was you* ever in Dovedale?" Lord Byron (1817), *Works* (1837-1840), vol. iii., p. 369.

"I understand that Pillans is to be succeeded by Carson, whom, if I am not mistaken, you saw while *you was* at Edinburgh." Professor Dugald Stewart (after 1819), in *Dr. Parr's Works* (1828), vol. vii., p. 552.

Byron, it may be surmised, picked up *was you* in Scotland, where, as I know from my own observation, it is still used by persons fairly well educated.

Writing of *was*, I am reminded of the barbarisms *I were* and *he were*, indicative; often heard, here in Suffolk, from rustics when, in addressing their superiors, instead of speaking naturally, they aim to speak elegantly. A neighbor of mine, a cottage-woman, giving her opinion of a clergyman, an Oxford graduate, who had lately visited her parochially, remarked that he could have had but little schooling. By way of a reason for this conclusion, she added that he had said, "I *was* there the other day." I asked whether she preferred "I *were*." "Of course," was her reply. The very elementary lesson in grammar which I thereupon ventured had, however, the effect, I perceived, of only convincing her that I was as great an ignoramus as the Oxonian cleric. This result was not wholly unexpected.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

Marlesford, England, Feb. 10, 1892.

AUGHT AND NAUGHT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Surely there can be no disputing Mr. Hempl's account of the misuse of *aught* for *naught;* but his conclusion, that it may be "about time to recognize usage" as justifiable, may be questioned. *Naught* means *nothing:* will even the use of *aught* one hundred times instead of ninety-nine make *aught* mean *nothing?* In *adder*, *apron*, *auger*, *umpire*, the dropping of the first letter has led to no confusion. Shall we use *aught* for *nothing*, and say of an empty argument, or an empty bottle, that there is *aught* in it?

You supply "one classical use of *aught.*" Why only one, if the spelling of Hosea Biglow is to be considered classical? There are four such classicalities in the two lines you quote: *wy* instead of *why*, *aught* for *naught*, *fredum* for *freedom*, and *'twuz* for *'twas*.

W. J. Linton.

New Haven, Conn., February 26, 1892.

[Though but lookers-on in this discussion, we may observe that *aught* and *naught* present no greater contradiction than *either* and *neither*. Yet when Defoe writes, "However, I do not tell you that this was all at once neither," and we rewrite "——all at once either," precisely the same sense is conveyed. So "I can but believe," "I cannot but believe," etc. Mr. Linton's other "classicalities" belong in the phonetic category, and do not call for notice in a dictionary of orthography and etymology.—Ed. Nation.]

TOLSTOI AUTOGRAPHS FOR STARVING RUSSIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have two autograph letters from Count L. N. Tolstoi, the famous author. Autographs of Count Tolstoi are rare, and I should like to sell these for the benefit of the starving Russian peasants.

Letter No. 1 is in English, with a few words of Russian. It refers to 'Robert Elsmere,' and to the Count's own 'Walk in the Light.'

Letter No. 2, which is longer, is also in English, with the exception of one Russian paragraph, which I will translate for the buyer. It expresses the great author's gratitude to America for her help and sympathy in Russia's present distress, and contains some characteristic remarks on the subject of autographs.

Both letters possess the advantage of giving specimens of the Count's English and Russian handwritings. I guarantee their genuineness.

I will receive bids for both these letters, separately, by number, until March 20, when I will award them to the persons who have offered the largest prices. In view of the object for which I consent to part with them, I hope the prices offered will be generous.

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

9 EAST TWENTY-SECOND STREET,
NEW YORK, March 2, 1892.

"MR. COLE'S ENGRAVINGS"—A NEW SERIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* for March 3 printed an interesting suggestion from Mr. William J. Stillman with regard to a subscription scheme for new examples of Mr. Cole's engravings from the old masters. Though the proposition seemed to be authoritative, it was written, evidently, without a knowledge of Mr. Cole's latest plans. While it is true that Mr. Cole has finished the series of engravings from the old Italian masters now being printed in the *Century Magazine*, and hereafter to be issued in book form, it will be a mistake to infer that the *Century* Company has withdrawn its support from Mr. Cole's preferred work among the art treasures of Europe. He has recently engaged to produce another series in a new field for the *Century Magazine*, and this will keep his burin fully occupied for a long time to come. We offer this correction because inquiries are coming to us in furtherance of Mr. Stillman's suggestion, based on the supposition that Mr. Cole was in need of support to continue his work. THE CENTURY CO.

NEW YORK, March 7.

[We have no knowledge of the facts beyond the above letter and Mr. Stillman's. To the latter's project we have received several adhesions. They should be sent directly to him, addressed simply Rome, Italy.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS announce 'Across the Plains, with Other Memories and Essays,' by Robert Louis Stevenson; 'Essays on German Literature,' by Prof. H. H. Boyesen; 'Potiphar's Wife, and Other Poems,' by Sir Edwin Arnold; and 'The Dead Nymph, and Other Poems,' by Charles Henry Lüders.

Macmillan & Co. have nearly ready 'Gossip of the Century'; 'The Three Fates,' a story of New York by F. Marion Crawford; and 'A Picture of Pauperism,' by Charles Booth.

'A Human Document,' by W. H. Mallock, is in the press of the Cassell Publishing Co.

Harper & Bros. will shortly issue 'Studies in American Architecture,' by Montgomery Schuyler; and 'Tributes to Shakspere,' mainly in verse, compiled by Mary R. Silsby.

A popular 'Life of Balzac,' by his translator, Miss Katherine Wormeley, is in preparation for publication by Roberts Bros., Boston.

The Messrs. Longman will publish 'The Spanish Story of the Armada, and Other Essays,' by J. A. Froude.

The fourth volume of Moltke's *Gesammelte Schriften*, now in press, will contain a biographical sketch of the Field-Marshal by an officer of the General Staff, with interesting reminiscences of his youth and his reasons for exchanging the Danish for the Prussian service in 1822, and thus taking the most important step in his career. Preparations are also being made for the speedy publication of Moltke's 'Militarische Werke,' which will include his correspondence on military affairs during the wars of 1864, 1866, and 1870-71, the records of his activity as Chief of the General Staff of the Army, and other writings on military matters, partly historical and partly technical or professional.

Mr. A. H. Bullen's admirable collection of 'Lyrics from Elizabethan Dramatists' (Scribners) has been reprinted in a smaller and cheaper edition. Some of the poems have been omitted, as being less adapted for a popular issue, and the original collection is supplemented by the poems of Greene and Lodge, extracted from the editor's 'Lyrics from Elizabethan Romances.' The volume as it stands therefore fully represents the lyric poetry of the age, and contains the best of it.

Two new volumes have recently been added to Dickens literature. The collection of the 'Letters of Charles Dickens to Wilkie Collins' (Harpers), under the conscientious editorship of Mr. Laurence Hutton, was noticed by us on their original publication in *Harper's Magazine*, and their appearance in book form calls for no further comment except to say that we have here one chapter of that life of the novelist which Forster did not succeed in writing, and which must be sought by lovers of Dickens in detached fragments like this. At the same time, one should add that Dickens does not take any rank among English authors as a letter-writer. He never achieved more than a "note," whether long or short.

The second volume is an account, by William R. Hughes, of a week's journey among the scenes associated with Dickens or his characters, under the title 'A Week's Tramp in Dickensland' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat). This is a large book for its title, and contains over four hundred pages of exceedingly fragmentary description, personal reminiscences of Dickens collected on the journey, apt extracts from the works, facsimiles of this, that, and the other, and more than a hundred illustrations, of which half are new and the remainder reproduced from other Dickens publications. The whole makes an abundant scrapbook of Dickensiana, and is everywhere pervaded by an intense loyalty to its hero, who is exalted to make a third with Shakspere and Scott; but this is the right tone for such a collector as the author.

Echoes of the strife at Oxford between the friends of literature and the adherents of philology, on the subject of the precise terms on which modern literature shall be established as a study at the University, are brought to us in J. Churton Collins's 'Study of English Literature: A Plea for its Recognition and Organization at the Universities' (Macmillan). The volume is made up largely of articles previously contributed to different English magazines, and is a long and vehement argument for the literary as opposed to the philological method of study. The question is treated too closely in connection with English conditions to be of great value to educational discussion here, but those who are interested in the methods of teaching literature (and the methods in American schools and colleges are mostly unsatisfactory or experimental) may derive some suggestions from the volume. In our judgment the author does not wholly succeed in avoiding the objection that vagueness of treatment is inherent in the literary method, and that consequently examination or any test of progress made or work done is difficult. Many of his suggested questions for examination exhibit this vagueness in an exaggerated form, particularly where he undertakes to deal with foreign sources and influences in English literature; and hence his cause suffers by overstatement. We do not mean to intimate a doubt as to the rightness of his cause; but the fact ought frankly to be admitted that the philologists have a developed method of teaching, definitely made out and long tested, by which they are reasonably sure of obtaining the results aimed at, while those who insist on the "literary" method have an experiment on their hands, and must be contented to leave some matters in question to the proof of time.

A new Life of Jane Austen, by Oscar Fay Adams (Chicago: McClurg), attests the hardy nature of the fame of the favorite female author of the beginning of the century, which lives and flourishes in the midst of the dense growth of the modern press, apparently little affected by time and change. The charm her novels exercise is one of the problems of criticism which are difficult because of their simplicity. Mr. Adams cannot be said to throw light on the matter, but he has written very conscientiously all he could find covering the character of his author and the circumstances of her quiet life, and the labor has been one of devotion.

'The Moral Crusader, William Lloyd Garrison' (Toronto: Williamson & Co.; New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co.), is the title of Mr. Goldwin Smith's abstract of the four-volume Life of the "Liberator." He properly terms it a biographical essay, and this constitutes its prime distinction in the little library of such abstracts published in the past four years. It has been undertaken as a labor of love, but from an independent point of view, with freedom to interpret, judge, and approve or disapprove—moreover, with an essayist's discursiveness; the thread of the narrative being dropped *ad libitum* to philosophize, as in the chapter devoted to slavery, ancient and modern. If Garrison's non-resistance is a stumbling-block to the present as to many other reviewers, his persistence in keeping his agitation purely moral and non-political is justified, and the clerical apologists for slavery will find scant comfort in Mr. Smith's pages. His selections from the larger annals are mostly fresh and always pertinent, and perhaps none more characteristic of the reformer, writer, and orator could be brought together in such small compass. As a literary production, it is needless to say that this essay, which can easily be read at a sitting, has the charm of the author's well-known style. A trifling error may be pointed out on p. 15. It was not the Newburyport *Herald*, but the *Essex Courant*, that Garrison took over and transformed into the *Free Press*.

Bourget's 'Sensations d'Italie,' of which our French correspondent gave an account last October, comes to us from Cassell, done into English by Mrs. Serrano, and entitled, possibly in accordance with a suggestion of our correspondent's, '*Impressions* of Italy.' The same translator is also responsible for the English version of Señora Bazán's latest novel, 'The Angular Stone' (Cassell). Why such a rendering of 'La Piedra Angular' should have been adopted for the cover, while the phrase

has been translated, the two or three times it occurs in the body of the book, into the less staggering English, "the corner-stone," we are at a loss to guess. The translation as a whole, while fairly adequate, betrays, in occasional slips and "angularities," the haste with which it was done.

Mr. John Robinson's 'Our Trees' (Salem Mass.: The Essex Institute) is a collection of sixteen letters which appeared in the Salem *Gazette* during the summer of 1891. The author says modestly that they were written for popular entertainment and instruction, and are not intended as botanical essays, and that he would not have them so considered by professional botanists. Neither did Thoreau write 'Walden' for professional botanists, and yet they can read both the writings of that philosopher and these letters of Mr. Robinson with interest and with profit. The letters are well written, and the constant reference to individual trees in the streets and gardens of Salem gives them a fine local coloring. His remark that "the fine row of sugar maples on Bridge Street, before the residence of Mr. Jas. P. Cook, have shown signs of failing within a few years, and it is quite probable that the sealing up of the roadway with block-pavement and the broad brick sidewalk prevent any considerable amount of moisture from reaching their roots," contains a hint which Superintendents of Streets generally would do well to consider. Mr. Robinson still refrains from telling the world just where in Essex County there still exists a swamp of the sweet-bay magnolia. Certainly all tree-lovers will thank him for his silence.

Prof. Walter Hempel, in addition to many other claims to recognition as a chemist of distinction, stands *facile princeps* on the very important subject of gas analysis. His treatise on 'Methods of Gas Analysis' has been translated from the second German edition by L. M. Dennis, and published by Macmillan. The scientific treatment of the subject began with Regnault in France and Bunsen in Germany. It has been developed by the labors of many chemists, and now presents a fairly complete special branch of analysis. Dr. Hempel divides his theme into a number of sections, and treats of each of them with perfect clearness. A large number of excellent woodcuts serve to make the various methods intelligible. Part i. deals with general, Part ii. with special methods; Part iii. with the practical applications of gas analysis. The work is very complete, and forms an extremely useful and valuable addition to the resources of the analyst. The translation is well executed, and had the advantage throughout of the personal coöperation of the author, who is himself familiar with the English language.

Just four years have elapsed since we noticed the apppearance of Part iii. of Toller's Bosworth's 'Anglo-Saxon Dictionary' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). The first section of Part iv. is now on our table, and carries on the vocabulary from Sár to Swídrian. We need not repeat our praise of this great improvement on the original work.

Prof. W. G. Hale's pamphlet on 'The *Cum*-constructions: their History and Functions' was issued four years ago, and, having gone abroad for scholarly recognition, now comes back in a German version by A. Neitzert (Leipzig: B. G. Teubner), and with a gracious preface by B. Delbrück—"ein paar Zeilen" of introduction to the German philological public. The volume is beautifully and most accurately printed.

The seventieth number of *Quellen und Forschungen zur Sprach- und Kulturgeschichte der Germanischen Völker* (Strassburg: Trübner) contains Dr. Emil Koeppel's studies in the history of the Italian novel in English literature of the sixteenth century, in which the author traces the sources of the plays of Shakspere and his contemporaries and the influence exerted upon them by Italian novels, their knowledge of which was derived chiefly from 'The Palace of Pleasure,' published in 1567–68 by William Painter, and recently reprinted in a sumptuous and expensive edition in England. Dr. Koeppel's "Studies" are only a preliminary survey of the field, but they are thoroughly scientific and in the right direction so far as they go. If for no other reason, they should be welcomed as a new departure in German Shakspere criticism from the elaborate and ingenious commentaries of Gervinus and the æsthetic-philosophical expositions of Kuno Fischer.

A fire in the printing-office of the *American Journal of Philology* has delayed for some weeks the appearance of the closing number of vol. xii. and perhaps also the first number of the new volume.

The *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* for January opens with a valuable article on Col. William Bradford's opposition to the landing of the tea in Philadelphia in 1773, by F. D. Stone. An etched portrait of the patriot printer and facsimiles of placards, etc., accompany the narrative. Mr. William S. Baker concludes his painstaking "Itinerary of Gen. Washington from June 15, 1775, to Dec. 23, 1783"; and now, we suppose, we may shortly look for it in a book.

Besides some "Recollections of Louisa May Alcott," profusely illustrated, a paper on "Harvard Clubs and Club Life," in which the *niaiseries* of D. K. E. are once more pictorially set forth, a more or less fresh instalment of "Negro Camp Melodies," and "Bryant's New England Home," attention will be drawn in the *New England Magazine* for March to Winfield S. Nevins's centenary "Stories of Salem Witchcraft." Many excellent views of houses, sites, and other antiquities are given in connection with the text.

Sun and Shade (N. Y. Photogravure Co.) for March is above the average in its collection of plates from nature and art. A capital portrait of Walt Whitman introduces the series.

The illustrated Italian fortnightly magazine *Natura ed Arte* (Milan: Francesco Vallardi) has improved steadily since its first number (the sixth is before us), and deserves to be examined by any reader of the Italian for pleasure. Each number has, besides many other embellishments, a photogravure portrait of some notability, as Verdi, Cialdini, Sardou, etc. In No. 5 the illustrious dead of 1891 are liberally pictured—George Bancroft among them; in No. 6, the leading actresses of the peninsula. Chronicles of news and finance, book and art reviews, and other standing departments, follow the entertaining papers which make up the body of the magazine.

In connection with the late historical exhibition illustrating the technical methods of the reproductive arts, with special reference to photo-mechanical processes, at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, a catalogue was issued which merits permanent preservation for its account of the several processes in question, with their infinite diversity of nomenclature.

In the annual summary of geographical literature given in the December issue of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, it is interesting to note the falling off in the number of publications, which in 1891 was 773 less than in 1889, and 286 less than in 1890. The greatest decrease has been in those relating to Europe, which fell from 1,172 in 1889 to 176 last year. The whole number for the year was 2,189, of which Africa has nearly a quarter, Asia and America following with almost equal numbers. Whether these figures are the result of greater discrimination in the selection of publications to be noticed, or show a real decrease in interest in geographical subjects, it is difficult to determine.

An entirely new map of Persia appears in the February Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society, compiled under the supervision of Mr. George Curzon, M.P., and accompanied by a memorandum by him upon it together with a list of ninety-five maps used in its construction. Though nominally only of Persia, it includes all Beluchistan, the greater part of Afghanistan, and that part of Turkistan traversed by the Trans-Caspian Railway. Copies of the map, it may be added, with an index of places will be issued separately. The principal paper of the number is a discussion of the question, "Why are the prairies treeless?" by Mr. Miller Christy, F.L.S. After a brief statement of the theory that the lacustrine formation of the soil is the sufficient cause, he endeavors to show that the principal agent in bringing about the present condition is fire. Among other arguments he refers to the absence on the prairies of earthworms as well as of most species of mammals except burrowing ones. Following this is a summary, by Mr. D. W. Freshfield, of the explorations in the Central Caucasus in 1890, accompanied by a map.

—Mr. Howells takes leave, in *Harper's*, of the "Christmas Boy" and all the small images of outlandish literary gods which month by month he has put up in rows on the walls of the "Study," not without frank fear of what may now happen to these polyglot idols of his "modernity"; but he takes the wiser, and, as is his wont, the handsomer course, and attacks the besom of destruction with compliments instead of prayers. It is pleasant to find him ending with good words and not too serious a vein. Excess of seriousness, excess of emphasis, was possibly the bitter drop in the editor's amiability, which gave him the unhappy experience (to which he refers with a still lingering overstress) of finding that other men had opinions also regarding the old faiths of literary man and the new heresies of decadent or half-barbaric civilizations embodied in books. Reformers must, of course, be very earnest, especially in showing how different they are from other men; but, in fact, agreement with their neighbors in the main and fundamental matters is a vital condition of their success, and mankind is seldom far behind its leaders. For this reason Mr. Howells's fears are perhaps as exaggerated as were his hopes. His solicitude for the continuance of "Altruria," for instance, is wholly needless. "Altruria" was not his discovery. It was in all our geographies, and it will remain there so long as there are children to be taught what their parents possibly don't practise. His own experience in the attempt to erase the "Pays du Tendre" from the map should teach him that the cartography of the human heart is not made by critics though housed in "Studies." Similarly with that long tourney in which he has been engaged, with a vigor and persistence that even in the Arthurian Romance would seem incredible, during his five years' "foigning and traversing" with those who ride the lists on Sidney's and Shelley's side, there was never a time when he might not have heard the words that knights of old were wont to use—"Surely our quarrel is not so great but that we can leave fighting"; yet we fancy there is to be even now no real cessation, only a pause before the

new encounter is cried. But the pause gives occasion and opportunity for an expression of regard for faith, endurance, and purpose, though opposed; and finding, indeed, in the excellent customs of Romance none more binding than this "gentle courtesy," as it used to be called, and none more delightful in the exercise, we salute the "editor" as he retires from his familiar place, and wish him soon back in the field.

—The *Century* gives a prominent place to Paderewski, celebrating him with two portraits, a poem, some criticism, and a biography. This is full measure, and, if not pressed down, is certainly running over. But none of these things, we fancy, will at all take the place or give the quality of one of his notes; they can at most indicate to others how he has fluttered the metropolitan bosom. The illustration of the number is further enriched by some effective views of St. Paul's, three unrivalled cuts of Cole after Giorgione, and several altogether vivid representations of the life of the deep sea. The paper which accompanies these last is upon the work of the United States Fish Commission, and is a most interesting account of the history, voyages, methods, and "finds" of that useful branch of the public service. The first of Mr. E. C. Stedman's lectures on the "Nature and Elements of Poetry," which he gave at Johns Hopkins University and repeated this winter before Columbia, deals with definitions and does no more than open the subject. Towards the end of the number we come upon another fine portrait after Sargent, and also on a strong and resonant poem of Aldrich's, in which he gives a poet's praise to Swinburne for the latter's poetic qualities, and proclaims him the real poet-laureate to be, in the world's eyes, whatever false crownings may be attempted by royalty on the throne.

—Quite the most important poetical contribution, however, is the prize of *Scribner's*, which gives us the last verses of Lowell—a strongly framed and finely felt poem on Grant. Unfortunately it is in an unfinished state; though complete in structure, it is rough in surface, and there are more defects in it than the editor cared to point out in his note or indicate in the printing: the last line of the fourth stanza, for example, is not an Alexandrine. But such imperfections the reader will doubtless observe. A more important matter is the omission of the necessary comma (or even dash) after the word "primeval" in the fifth stanza, for the line as printed gives confusion to the first half of the stanza. The entire poem is in Lowell's most compact and condensed style, both in thought and construction, and needs all the subsidiary aid that can be given to it. The truthfulness of the portrait will be approved by all, and gives a striking sincerity to its praise; many of the lines are felicitous, both in phrase and style, and some will stick in the memory of the people. It is an addition to the patriotic verse of the country, and it is fitting that it should be the last work of his hand. In the remainder of the number we notice only the papers upon railway speed as of conspicuous interest.

—In the last report of the Treasurer of Harvard College, it is stated that the cost of conducting admission examinations in 1891 was nearly $1,500. The Treasurer of Yale College, in his report for the same year, records an expenditure of $1,504.24 for "examinations." These two universities are the chief defenders of the principle that the only safe way of determining the fitness of candidates for admission to college is by college extrance examinations, as distinguished from school graduation examinations. Why should the admission examination system be so costly? Harvard is now advertising that she will hold admission examinations this summer simultaneously in twenty-three different places, extending from Bonn on the East, to Tokio on the West, and including most of the leading cities and school centres of this country. Officers of the University are in most cases detailed to conduct these examinations, and in no instances are the question papers confided to the schoolmasters or to local committees. Both Yale and Harvard state in their catalogues that they are ready to conduct admission examinations at any point not within easy reach of existing examination places, provided a reasonable number of candidates apply for an examiner. It sometimes happens that examiners from Harvard, Yale, and Princeton meet candidates in the same building at the same hours, and conduct examinations which differ only in details, and which, theoretically, should be identical. Here is where the unnecessary element in the expenditures is found. We know no reason why these colleges (or their alumni) might not combine to maintain local boards to take charge of such examinations, and bear the burden of cost of services and rental. Such an economy would tend also to what is still more desirable, unification of examination papers.

—The most noteworthy piece of academic news that has been heard for some time is the creation in the Collège de France of a chair of General History of the Sciences, and the appointment thereto of M. Pierre Lafitte, the recognized chief of the French Positivists. Hitherto the philosophy of Comte has had no university standing in France, and it is to be noted that it is now rather as a science than as a philosophy or a religion that it comes into a high place. About all that Comte was willing to leave of the old philosophies was the history of them; his own teaching was meant to be rigidly scientific. His religion was, of course, quite another sort of thing, and this (although we believe that M. Pierre Lafitte personally holds to it) will not come within the scope of the new chair. All the rest of Positivism will fairly be included: the whole history of the rise of the sciences, and their passage through the three Comtian stages, theological, metaphysical, positive; their natural order, their coördination and subordination, and all their manifold relations with each other. The new professor will, then, have a wide field in which to abound *suo sensu*, and his work in it will be followed with much interested curiosity. It is almost exactly fifty years ago that Auguste Comte desired such a chair as this for himself. Guizot was then Minister of Public Instruction, and he was making many changes, and had given high places to such scholars as Ampère, Jouffroy, Eugène Burnouf, and Rossi. Comte, almost unknown, called upon the Minister and urged the founding of a professorship of the history of the mathematical and physical sciences. Guizot tells the story of their interview in a well-known passage in his 'Mémoires.' He could not in the least understand Comte, although, in order to do so, he condescended with all his might. He could hardly avoid, he says, expressing his astonishment that a clever man should be so limited in mind as not to see the bearing and relations of the facts he was handling, or that a man of moral sentiments —"moraux malgré lui"—should not perceive the immoral falseness of the ideas he was putting forward. "He wrote me a long letter a little while afterwards," Guizot goes on to say, "renewing his request for the creation of the chair which seemed to him indispensable for science and society. Had I thought fit to establish it, I should certainly never have dreamed for a moment of giving it to him."

RODWAY'S BRITISH GUIANA.

History of British Guiana, from the year 1668 to the present time. By James Rodway, F.L.S. Volume I. 1668–1781. Georgetown, Demerara: J. Thomson. 1891.

GUIANA is that vast country which lies between the great Rivers Orinoco and Amazon, in the northeastern portion of South America. This extensive region is shared by various nations, so that one may hear from time to time something of Venezuelan Guiana, British Guiana, Dutch Guiana, French Guiana, and Brazilian Guiana. Dutch Guiana is more familiar to us by the name of the principal part of it, Surinam. Few people are aware of the interesting fact that the colony of New York became an English colony practically in exchange for the colony of Surinam, under the provisions of the Treaty of Breda. It was agreed in that treaty that the English and Dutch were to retain what places they had conquered during the war, as they possessed and enjoyed them on the 10th of May, 1667. The English had captured the Dutch colony of New Netherlands, and the Dutch had taken the English colony of Surinam, and had retaken Essequibo and its dependencies, which had been captured by the English in 1665. It is true that New York was subsequently retaken by the Dutch and restored to the English, but, the fact remains, until that colony developed into a State, the original title by which it was held by Great Britain was identically the same as that by which the Dutch held their possessions in Essequibo as well as in Surinam.

The name of Cayenne, again, is more familiar than is that of French Guiana, the territory of which it forms but a part. Lying between Venezuela and Dutch Guiana is British Guiana. This colony is divided from the Dutch possessions by the broad waters of the River Corentyn. Great Britain and Venezuela dispute its boundary line to the northwest. The British dominion now comprises the three countries of Demerara, Berbice, and Essequibo, which take their names from three considerable rivers, and the northwestern district, which borders upon Venezuela. The name of Demerara is associated with a very high standard of sugar-making, so that "Demerara crystals" have come to be appreciated the wide world over. The El-Dorado of Sir Walter Raleigh had its airy abode somewhere in the region between the upper waters of the Essequibo and those of the Orinoco.

In his message to Congress on the 9th of December last, President Harrison referred to the dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela regarding the northwestern boundary of British Guiana, in these terms:

"I should have been glad to announce some favorable disposition of the boundary dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela, touching the western frontier of British Guiana, but the friendly efforts of the United States in that direction have thus far been unavailing. This Government will continue to express its concern at any appearance of foreign encroachment on territories long under the administrative control of American States. The determination of a disputed boundary is easily attainable by amicable arbitration, where the rights of the respective parties rest, as here, on historic facts, readily ascertainable."

The present is, therefore, a very fitting time

for the publication of a History of British Guiana. Such a work has been undertaken by Mr. James Rodway, the Librarian of the Royal Agricultural and Commercial Societies, and the author of 'Annals of Guiana.' It is being published by Mr. James Thomson, the proprietor of the *Argosy* Press, in Georgetown, the capital of British Guiana. Mr. Thomson has done yeoman's service to the cause of literature by his enterprise in publishing various works, mostly upon West Indian subjects, which, but for his courageous undertaking, might not have seen the light.

The first volume only of Mr. Rodway's History is published. This treats of the history of the colony from 1668 to 1781, when what is now British Guiana formed part of Dutch Guiana. The Dutch West India Company were the lords of the soil, but their authority was but slight in Berbice, where a tributary company (latterly of the Van Hoorns) held sway. Even in Demerara and Essequibo, the West India Company were far from absolute proprietors, for they were often troubled by the claims of the Zeelanders who were the first traders and settlers on the Wild Coast, as the Dutch called Guiana. Mr. Rodway has given an interesting account of the small beginnings from which has been developed the considerable possession now owned by Great Britain. Much of the information given by the author must have been collected by arduous labor alone, seeing that the sources of his narrative are mostly in the Dutch language.

It is pleasing to find how careful the Dutch authorities were to enjoin upon their officers that the native Indians should be kindly treated. A full account is given of the slave insurrection in Berbice, in 1763 and 1764. Persons interested in the colony will find in this volume the beginnings of the Government, of the Church, and of the various agricultural industries; the origin of land grants, of taxes upon land, and of taxation in general. The building of forts, and the first coming of lawyers and the provision of law books are touched upon. What is called the Legislative Council in other British colonies is, in British Guiana, called the Court of Policy, the Dutch name which has been continued. The origin of this body and of the Courts of Justice will be found in Mr. Rodway's book.

Americans will note with interest the restrictions placed by the Dutch upon the trade of New England with these colonies. The colonists needed horses and mules. To get them they had to relax the restrictions in 1752 so that if a vessel brought a certain number of animals in proportion to its tonnage, then she would be admitted. If the horses died during the voyage, their heads, salted, were to be produced as evidence of good faith. It was illegal to export sugar or cotton by such vessels, but molasses and rum might be shipped by them. Every New England vessel was bound to bring six animals, or their heads, failing which no vessel could enter. The North American ships brought the Dutchmen, besides animals, salt meat, fish, and flour. Before clearing, the captains had to affirm, on oath, that they had no sugar on board. Mr. Rodway says, however, that "there was very little money in Essequibo and Demerara, and, as may be supposed, the masters of the light New England schooners were not too scrupulous to slip past the fort in Essequibo, or the Brandwaght in Demerara, during the night, and load a few hogsheads of sugar." This shows that, after all, New Englanders were very much like other people. The shock of the American Revolution made its vibrations felt even among the Dutch colonists in South America. In March, 1777, the Dutch West Indian Company prohibited the colonial authorities from honoring the flag of the revolted British colonies. In the following month the exporting of ammunition to North America was prohibited. In the early part of 1781, when England and Holland were at war, two American privateers visited Demerara. On the 27th of February, in the same year, the colonies surrendered to English vessels of war. Notwithstanding this, two American vessels were in the Upper Demerara shortly afterwards. The English commander, on learning the fact, rated the Council, or Court of Policy, roundly for permitting the vessels to come there, and he threatened to report the matter to the Admiral, the famous Rodney; which, says Mr. Rodway, "made the Council very uncomfortable, although they excused themselves in the best way they could."

Although the volume before us does not treat of the boundary dispute, it may not be amiss to refer to certain public facts within the power of every one to investigate. As has already been stated above, the Treaty of Breda, in 1667, arranged that the English and Dutch should retain their respective acquisitions. Now, in 1665, the English had possessed themselves of the Dutch settlements in Essequibo, which were subsequently retaken by the Dutch. By the Treaty of Breda, therefore, the Dutch held their possessions by as good a title as the English held New York. The commander of the English forces which captured the settlements in Essequibo subsequently wrote an account of Guiana, which is preserved in manuscript in the British Museum (Sloane MSS. 3662). In this account of Guiana, written, be it remembered, after the English had been turned out by the Dutch, the writer says respecting the year 1665:

> "This yeare the English could boast of the possession of all that part of Guiana abutting on the Atlantick Ocean, from Cayan on the South-East to Oronoque on the north-west (except a small Colonie in the River Berbishes), which is no lesse than six hundred English miles."

From this it is clear that, so far back as 1665, the English regarded the Orinoco as the boundary of the Dutch possessions on the coast of Guiana. The British, however, do not claim quite so far as this. They claim that the Amacura, a small stream next door to the Orinoco, is the dividing line on the coast. This is the division which is known as the *Schomburgk* line. Any one who would approach the boundary question with impartiality, may easily learn that the Amacura was regarded as the boundary long before Sir Robert Schomburgk was born or the Venezuelan Republic came into existence. Old charts show this over and over again. Take, for example, the map of South America by D'Anville and Bolton, published in 1755; that gives the Amacura as the boundary.

Now, having shown above that the Orinoco was regarded as the line of division in 1665, let us inquire what was considered to be the boundary in 1781, the year with which Mr. Rodway's first volume ends. In 1781 the colonies again fell into the hands of the English. In 1782 the French took them from the English. In 1783 the French restored them to the Dutch. When the colonies were in possession of the English in 1781, they were for a time governed by Capt. Thompson, the commander of a ship of war called the *Hycena*. In 1783, when the Dutch were again in possession, De la Rochelle published a chart of the coast of Guiana, from the Orinoco to the Amazon. In this chart the line of division is given at the Barima, the river which, after the Amacura, comes next to the Orinoco. While, however, putting the Barima where he should have put the Amacura, he has at the same time put the Amacura where the Barima ought to be—that is, within the Dutch area. This mistake is made by at least one other cartographer of the period. In either case it goes to show that the Dutch dominion extended to the Amacura.

It is, further, proper to distinguish carefully between mere shadowy claims and substantial rights of occupation and dominion. The Venezuelans claim that their boundary extends to the left bank of the Essequibo, where Dutchmen and Englishmen have for generations been born and buried. This, too, in despite of the fact that when the English were again in possession of the colonies, in 1797, a Spanish force was sent across from the left side of the Orinoco—the right bank being but little inhabited, and then only high up the river—to attack a part of the Essequibo coast known as Capoey, with the result that the Spanish force was there and then annihilated by Dutch troops which had consented to remain in the colony in the service of the English Government. The records of the colonial Legislature show that a pension was awarded to the children of Capt. Rochelle, who commanded the victorious Dutch soldiers, and who died from his wounds.

When President Harrison alluded to "encroachment on territories long under the administrative control of American States," he could hardly have referred to the northwestern territory of British Guiana. British subjects are settled within that territory, not Venezuelans. But what is the fact as regards the Venezuelan side of the Amacura? Just this, that about six years ago the Venezuelan Government appointed a commissary for this then desolate district, and, for want of inhabitants of its own, conferred the office upon a British subject named Robert Wells, who had gone over from British Guiana. For some time Don Roberto Wells, in a thatched shanty, and his family, were the representatives of Venezuelan population in the grandiloquently styled Manoa district. So far is this district from being peopled that at the present time a Venezuelan official is doing his utmost to induce persons living in Georgetown, the capital of British Guiana, and others in the country districts, to come and settle on the Venezuelan side of the Amacura. So great are the inducements offered that it is very likely a measure of success will attend this scheme of peopling a desolate region in Venezuela with settlers brought from British Guiana. There is something comical in such a procedure, especially when it is remembered that Great Britain is charged with making encroachments upon Venezuela.

The historical connection between Dutch and British dominion over the Dutch colonies now comprised in British Guiana can be very shortly stated. In 1796, the colonies surrendered to the British, who kept them until 1802, when, by the Treaty of Amiens, they were restored to the Dutch. In 1803 they were again surrendered to a British force. Finally, in 1814, they were ceded to Great Britain, in whose hands they have remained.

BUTLER'S BOOK.

Butler's Book. By Benj. F. Butler. A review of his legal, political, and military career. Illustrated with 125 engravings, maps, photogravures, etc. Boston: A. M. Thayer & Co. 8vo, pp. 1,154.

EXPECTED sensations are commonly disap-

pointments. They turn out to be much less thrilling than the hints and announcements led us to believe. Butler's book is no exception to the rule. It is probably less trenchant than it would have been if he had written it earlier. The position of certain great figures in the war-epoch has become so fixed that there is less temptation to hurtle against them. Those who remember the *on dits* of '65 can read between the lines the traces of griefs in regard to Lincoln, Grant, and Stanton, which have been almost though not quite obliterated in the lapse of nearly thirty years. Part of this is due to prudence, part, no doubt, to the softening effect of time and reflection, for even Butler shows occasionally a gleam of geniality and an old man's tendency to think kindly of the antagonists of his earlier life. The instances are not frequent enough to prove that he has lapsed into charity towards all mankind, for among those who could be said to come into rivalry or collision with him, few enough are they who escape the knife that has been long whetted for them. On this point, indeed, he avows his unrepentance, and insists that the "hard words" which he so freely uses "are the only ones which ought to be used."

The casual reader who has himself no personal recollection of the public events with which Butler deals, would be likely to find his first feeling, on reading the book, one of amazement that the country should not have thrown itself bodily into the hands of the consummate statesman and hero who alone of all his compatriots knew exactly what should be done in every crisis. But as he goes on, he discovers a cumulation of little slips which, though of no consequence separately, beget a growing uneasiness, and a diminishing faith in the omniscience he was disposed to rely on with comfortable assurance. Butler has exhibited his triumphs at every step, from the common school to the leadership of armies and the government of States; yet each victory—dare we say it?—rings a little false. Each sample of the harvest of honors shows, as Tennyson says, some "little pitted speck in garnered fruit."

In his schoolboy class in parsing, he was sent to the head for construing a couplet from Pope, though we have a torturing doubt that if the master had been more familiar with the poet's diction, he might have remained at the foot. As a geography exercise, he compares the relation between Washington and Annapolis to that between Paris and Havre. The "thirty odd miles" between our capital and the Chesapeake he finds "about the same distance" as between Paris and the port at the mouth of the Seine, though the maps have a queer way of making the latter, say, five times as great a distance, as the crow flies, or ten times as great if we follow the actual navigation of the river. In military history he makes a point of what Napoleon "told his men at Saragossa, when they were falling around him," while hitherto historians have omitted to record the presence of the Emperor at either of the two sieges of Saragossa which occurred in the Spanish war; though the opening words of his Majesty's remarks, "Never mind, boys!" might still be apposite.

In navigation Gen. Butler surely is strong, for no Essex County man could be otherwise than familiar with Bowditch. Yet, to our mystification, the ancient mariner now in command of the *America* tells a strange sea tale of his transport ship getting on the Frying-pan near Cape Hatteras. It looked for a time as if they were likely to get out of the Frying-pan into the fire of the rebels at Fort Macon, but the seamanship of Gen. Butler saved them. The ship, "drawing eighteen feet of water," ran upon the sandy shoal. The captain was a traitor or an imbecile. Butler assumed command, and ordered him to "get your deep-sea lead and come forward with me!" So the captain shouldered the hundred-weight of metal and ten-score fathoms of line and went forward. We put behind us the question what need of sounding, since they had the land aboard at a draft of eighteen feet. But why the deep-sea lead? The lightest of hand-leads, nay, a fishing-line and a sinker, might have sufficed. We admonish the doubting reader that though the Corinthians of Marblehead indulge in irreverent mirth, there lies therein a mystery of the deep sea.

In the politics of the country in the period before the war, who could be at home if not he who was a member of every Democratic Presidential Convention and had an active hand in every phase of his party's conflicts in Massachusetts? Butler tells us he was prominent in the coalition made between the Free-Soilers and Democrats in that State in 1849. He speaks, therefore, as one having authority when he defines the position of parties at that time. "The proposition of the Free-Soil party," he says, "as enunciated by Mr. William Lloyd Garrison, one of its leaders at that time, was that the Constitution was a covenant with hell and a league with death." This proves how much stranger truth is than fiction, and how the most curious inversions of fact have long passed current as the most solid of verities. The Free-Soil party actually pretended to revere the Constitution and to limit their anti-slavery purposes to the Territories, over which that Constitution gave full control. The hypocrites! And the good Butler was making a league and covenant with them at the time, for the purpose of dividing the offices.

Scarcely less novel and startling is the light he throws on the party struggles of 1860. He tells us he voted for Jefferson Davis in the Charleston Convention, "with intent to preserve the Union and ward off that very secession which Greeley long afterwards justified, advised, and did all that he could to incite." After reading this, one instinctively glances ahead to see whether the next paragraph will not reveal Stanton as the *de facto* Confederate Secretary of War. He does not say this, but, what is almost as interesting, he tells us that he himself left the Douglas Convention at Baltimore and went with the Breckinridge men, for one reason, "because I would no longer sit in a convention where the reopening of the African slave trade, made piracy by every law of God and man, was advocated and applauded." The epoch-making character of the book is sufficiently attested by these revelations. Comment could add nothing to their significance.

Next in value to the nuggets of pure gold in the form of hitherto unknown facts in history, are the characterizations of leading men with whom the author was in more or less intimate contact. Lincoln we learn to know as a good, easy man, fairly able to see a point when a competent mentor at his elbow instructs him with proper painstaking; but as soon as Butler is gone, he falls from grace and does "the evil he would not." Often acknowledging Butler's military and civil genius, he is led by designing men to remove from successive important commands him who should have been his mainstay. Stanton, also, is credited with good intentions, but is a warning example of the dangers of slipping into the place which is proverbially paved with them. Whether he did most to baffle the bad purposes of Butler's (and the country's) enemies, or they did most in making use of him to wrong the great man, is left an open question. Seward, "the man Seward," appears often on the scene as a Mephistopheles thwarting the patriotic purposes of the good man and the hero. He is "weak-kneed," one who "would instantly deny" the truth, intending "to aid the French Emperor in his attack on Mexico," sending "that secession spy and agent, Reverdy Johnson, to New Orleans" to help France, making a "cowardly and unjust administration of the State Department." All this is the more curious inasmuch as Napoleon III., Maximilian, and Marshal Bazaine all thought that Seward had defeated and ruined them. Chase is exposed in trying to corrupt the incorruptible Butler by sending to him one "who at the time controlled the means of enabling men to make fortunes greater in number and larger in amount than any other Treasury official has ever held." It seems that Lincoln and Chase each wanted Butler to be candidate for Vice-President on his ticket. Welles was a Secretary of the Navy "who thought cowardice excusable," and who was hoodwinked by the officers of the blockading squadrons, who discriminated in catching blockade-runners, preferring to let them run in and catch them running out, as prize-money was increased thereby.

Senator Wilson of Massachusetts appears to be a small, inconstant man, "afraid of Andrew," the Governor, and, through unworthy jealousy, defeating a bill to give Butler one of Twiggs's swords, by putting it "in one of his pigeon-holes, where it has ever since slept the sleep that knows no waking." Senator Sumner, in the matter of enlistments for the New Orleans expedition, "did everything he could to disturb me and to serve Andrew. Sumner had plenty of leisure for this sort of thing. Although he was in the Senate for more than a quarter of a century, ten lines of laws upon the statute books of the United States drawn by him are yet to be found." As for Governor Andrew, "he had the good quality of cultivating malignity as a parlor-plant." More is said of him, but what need of more?

If we turn to the military men in despair at finding civil affairs in the hands of the wicked, the revelations are not more reassuring. Winfield Scott is shown to have treated Butler with "studied unjust treatment," "as he has always treated those whom he knew would be effective if he gave them the means, retaining everything in his own power and under his own immediate control, so as to monopolize all the reputation to be made." This last quotation is from a letter to Butler which he adopts, and it has therefore the authority of the great man himself. He had bearded Scott in his den, had told him he "did not know what he was writing about," nor, in fact, anything else; he had repudiated Scott's authority, and had bowed himself out with a "Good-morning, General," without giving the old General-in-Chief the opportunity to slip in a word of reply edgeways. Who before had ever done this and escaped the bilboes? Yet the heaven-born to command did it, and Scott cooed him as gently as any sucking dove in the next interview, congratulating him on his assignment to Fortress Monroe, where "hog-fish have just come in." McClellan was made to hasten the expedition to the Mississippi by Butler's intimating that otherwise Lincoln would do violence to his modesty by putting him in command of the Army of the Potomac. Halleck he found to be his arch-enemy, and depicts his wickedness in

many passages full of "hard words," summing it up at last by saying, "to speak plainly," he was a "lying, treacherous, hypocritical scoundrel, with no moral sense."

The author's treatment of Grant deserves a fuller study and analysis than one brief paper can give. It would be easy to miss the subtle irony under the guise of hearty praise. As to military matters, it must suffice to say that, in the campaign on the James, Butler fulfilled his task and had done all that he agreed to do. Grant had done nothing that was planned, and the despatches from his headquarters were "in every substantial particular misleading and untrue." In the matter of the exchange of prisoners, he tells us that the lives of those who died "from cold, starvation, and pestilence in the prison pens" of the South, "were spent as a part of the system of attack upon the rebellion, devised by the wisdom of the general-in-chief of the armies to destroy it by depletion." He thinks "the loyal mourners" will "appreciate all the more highly the genius which conceived the plan."

The military men of less rank who, instigated by the devil, disobeyed or thwarted our hero, are flagellated without mercy. *Inter arma* mercy is silent. From Col. Lefferts and the Seventh New York at Annapolis in 1861, to Admiral Porter at Fort Fisher in December, 1864, no guilty one is allowed to escape. They are hanged, drawn, and quartered as a terror to like evil-doers in the future, that the path of the Butler of the next war may be made easier. Of these, however, Gens. Gillmore and W. F. Smith and Admiral Porter are *facile principes*, unless Halleck should be admitted to rivalry. The epithets explode as fast as the bombs from the mortar-boats in the Mississippi, and Butler assures us that they do greater execution. "Cowardice," "mendacity," "falsifier," "dastard," "villanous," "ridiculous in his cowardice as he was false in his statements," "reckless, consciousless [*sic*] and impudent liar," fly about in a way to bewilder the enemy; and last, and worse even than malodorous Chinese missile, he flings into a bomb-proof casemate a "MEPHITIS AMERICANA" in upper case! Of course the garrison must surrender at discretion.

What has been said may put the reader sufficiently in the personal point of view of the author to enable him to estimate, in some measure, the true value of the graver historical matters to be found in the pages of the book. It would be preposterous, within our limits, to attempt to deal with the tithe of them. An equal volume would be required. It is only due to such a statesman and hero, however, to put him on his guard against some of the plots to weaken his influence. He has shown that there was deep mining in the War Office in Halleck's time; but even he is not wholly aware how deep. Foreseeing, or perhaps foreordaining, the charge that he was then seeking one of the vacant major-generalships in the regular army, "which," as he says, "I never thought of or desired," his enemy has embodied in the Official Records, now published, a pretended letter to Lincoln, dated May 17, 1864, in which he is made to say: "Do you think I have done enough to entitle me to one of the vacant commissions in the army, to date from May 16, 1861?" Lincoln is made to answer on the next day, "As to the major-generalships in the regular army, I think I shall not dispose of another; at least, until the combined operations now in progress under the direction of Gen. Grant, and within which yourself and command are included, shall be terminated." Gen. Butler should, in justice to himself, see that these wicked interpolations are excluded, if the whole edition of the Records has to be recalled. Such a commission, dating from May, 1861, would have outranked Sherman, Sheridan, and Meade.

In his later political lucubrations there is also evidence of a mischievous hand at work, seeking to bring him into contempt. The plot may not go beyond the composing-room of his publishers, but it needs looking after. He is made to say that the authorized issue of the five-twenty bonds, in 1867, was "fifteen thousand millions." If figures had been used, they would hardly need to be noticed, but the words are spelt out in full. So he is made to talk wisely of "terminal annuities" in several places, and "courtileges" and the like. It may be well to watch even the printers. Some of them might be weak enough to think that nothing could be more nonsensical than his financial oration on fiat money, and may have amused themselves with adding to the jumble.

The Silva of North America. By Charles S. Sargent. Vol. III. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THIS volume contains fifty plates illustrating six species of *Anacardiaceæ* and thirty of *Leguminosæ*. The *Anacardiaceæ* are—*Cotinus Americanus*, a close congener of the well-known smoke-tree, or Venetian sumach; two of our common sumachs, *Rhus typhina* and *R. copallina;* the poisonous *R. Vernix*, or, as it has usually been named, *R. venenata;* the Floridian *R. Metopium*, nearly as poisonous, and the Californian *R. integrifolia*, locally called mahogany. The separation of *Cotinus* from *Rhus* seems to be based mainly on its production of the barren feathery pedicels which give its flower clusters the smoky look—a character which most systematists have not thought of generic importance, and which Bentham and Hooker have not even mentioned. *Cotinus* was proposed by Tournefort, and, though at first recognized by Linnæus, was later disregarded by him. In reviving it, Prof. Sargent has occasion to indulge in one of the vagaries of the modern school of priority-worshippers by using the double name of *Cotinus Cotinus* for the smoke-tree—a usage which finds its only parallel in such personal names as Cholmondeley-Cholmondeley or Jenkins-Jenkins. In the Northeastern States *Rhus glabra* is more nearly a tree than *R. copallina*, and would therefore seem better entitled to a place in this Silva, but, further south, the latter appears to attain a greater size, and to assume the true arboreal dignity.

Of the thirty trees here described which belong to the great order *Leguminosæ* (the pod-bearers), only one, *Gymnocladus dioicus*, the Kentucky coffee-tree, is native as far north as New York, having been found wild about some of the lakes in the central part of the State; but several other kinds have been long cultivated in the North and East—*Robinia Pseudacacia* and *R. viscosa*, the "locusts," *Gleditschia triacanthos*, the three-thorned acaci or honey-locust, *Cladrastis lutea*, the yellow-wood, often known as Virgilia, and the Judas-tree (*Cercis Canadensis*). The greater locust is indeed so abundant on Long Island as to be used for posts, fuel, etc., and has much the appearance of a native. Prof. Sargent suggests that it was often planted by the Indians for the sake of its elastic wood, one of the best for bows. He quotes from Catesby (*anno* 1763) the statement that the English in Virginia, "being obliged to run up with all the expedition possible such little houses as might serve them to dwell in, till they could find leisure to build larger and more convenient ones, they erected each of their little hovels on four only of these trees, pitched into the ground to support the four corners: many of these posts are yet standing, and not only the parts under ground, but likewise those above, are still perfectly sound." Large locusts and still larger honey-locusts are very common in New York and in the southern parts of New England, and, with their feathery foliage, often make a most graceful feature in the landscape.

The other twenty-five trees of this volume are Southern or Western. Perhaps the most interesting among them is the mesquite (*Prosopis juliflora*) of the far Southwest. It is a shrub, or at best a tree thirty or forty feet high, having feathery foliage like a locust, and bearing an abundant crop of long, somewhat jointed pods filled with a sweet spongy pulp. The Spanish settlers found the natives using these pods for food, and so they gave to the tree their own name (*Algarrobo*), for the old-world tree which produces the flat, blackish, edible pods commonly called St. John's bread. This name is evidently Arabic, *El karob*. Supposing the tree to be of an unnamed genus, Torrey and Gray called it *Algarobia glandulosa*. But De Candolle had already described it as *Prosopis juliflora* from specimens sent from Jamaica, whither it had been carried from the continent. The wood is heavy and hard and of a rich color: it is much used for parts of wagon-wheels, for furniture, sometimes for pavements, and is an excellent fuel. Moreover, the tree yields a gum much like gum arabic.

Mr. Faxon's drawings are as good as in the earlier volumes, and Prof. Sargent's descriptions and notes are rich and instructive. It is a great pity that he is under the influence of a perverse school of nomenclature. An instance of this unfortunate perversity in the present volume is the spelling *Gleditsia* for *Gleditschia*. *Gleditsia* is the original spelling of Linnæus, but as the genus was named in honor of *Gleditsch*, nearly all botanists have preferred the reformed orthography.

Mark Hopkins. By Franklin Carter, President of Williams College. [American Religious Leaders.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

IN length of identification with a single college, Dr. Hopkins's career was, and probably will remain, unique in American educational history: sixty-six years as student, tutor, professor, and president did he stand in his place in the Berkshire institution which he loved and served with all his strength. The college catalogue shows many a case of father and son sitting under his instruction, and might easily show, perhaps does show, a case of father, son, and grandson. For a generation his fame as a teacher was the riches of the college, long poor in buildings and equipment, and drew men, if not money, from all over the country. His success was that of a large and original nature. He was not a scholar, even according to the standard of fifty years ago. Most of his classes have heard from his own lips the naïve confession of his early but fruitless attempts to get a knowledge of German philosophy through English translations. He turned to books not for the material, but for the illustration and confirmation, of his native thought. His power as a teacher was that of stimulus, not information, and none of the long succession of his classes, down to the one he taught at eighty-

five, failed to catch the glow and enthusiasm of his ever youthful ardor. Nothing delighted him more than the gleam of mental awakening in his students, and away would go text-book and lecture that he might, with Socrates, "follow the argument." To the very end he made the impression of perfect frankness and zest for the truth as such, so that it could have been said of him, as it was said of Lewes by George Eliot, that he would stop short in the rush of an argument to admit that he was wrong—only, it was ordinarily the other disputant who had to do the admitting.

The first impression made by President Carter's biography is that it is surprisingly barren—that is, that it gives so little to mark and explain the becoming of this masterful man. We get meagre but perhaps sufficient details of his ancestry, which was right Puritan on both sides; but of his boyhood and youth, only a faint legend or two, of his student life little more than faded reminiscences. It is not even known whether a year of school-teaching which he did was spent in Massachusetts or Virginia. The biographer does not appear to be blameworthy for this disappointing vagueness and meagreness as respects Dr. Hopkins's early years. He lived to so great an age that it is now impossible to recover any memorials of his youth from his survivors; and diaries and letters, if there were any, all have vanished. Not even from his numerous children or his widow can anything be obtained to light up those blank years. We can only note this as a great misfortune, though in itself highly illustrative of the personal reserve which marked the man. He may have taken warning by the dreadful example of his brother Albert's published diaries and letters, and destroyed anything of the kind he himself had preserved.

For the too lifeless record of his prime and later years here given us, we cannot, however, free President Carter from the responsibility. It is not material, but judicious handling, that is lacking for that period. No critical analyses of Dr. Hopkins's various books, no formal estimates of him as "The Teacher," "The Administrator," "The Theologian"—analyses and estimates more in the tone of an article than a biography—can make good the absence of the man himself. One chapter is an exception—that entitled "The Friend." It consists of letters written by Dr. Hopkins to Ray Palmer in the course of twenty-five years. They are worth more than all the rest of the book, for in them the nature of the man is self-declared. Elsewhere the human touches are few, and in place of the man we are shown an idealized figure suited to a commemorative sermon. This cannot but prove disappointing to those who have come into contact with Dr. Hopkins's large humanity, and who look to this book for an adequate presentation of it. They will recall his immense native shrewdness, sharpened by long study of the genus college-student into something which was often very like guile, and will see with regret that this quality, with many others equally human, is almost entirely sublimed out of him in President Carter's pages. These give the go-by to many sides and aspects of his personality which a single glance at his portrait of about 1850 is enough to suggest. As a record of his external life—of the public positions he held and declined, the books and lectures with which he blazed his way, his religious and charitable activities, and the vicissitudes of Williams College during the years he knew it—nothing more could be asked; but as a biography it is certain to come to many as a pallid and etherialized representation of a thoroughly human personality.

General View of the Political History of Europe. By Ernest Lavisse, Professor at the Sorbonne. Translated by Charles Gross, Ph.D., of Harvard University. Longmans, Green & Co.

THIS is an admirable little book, and Dr. Gross, in selecting and translating it, has rendered good service to historical education. M. Lavisse, who is known by his recent work on the history of Prussia, brings to the difficult task here achieved accurate knowledge combined with a fine sense of proportion and value, and much skill in tracing the movements of great currents under the criss-cross play of local and momentary surface commotion. He writes for the most part quite simply and clearly, with a truly conversational ease, so that the reader comes to think the writing of philosophical history the easiest thing in the world; yet if any one will try to express in no more pages than suffice for M. Lavisse the nature of the Roman Empire, or the rise of Christianity, or the growth of Prussian power or French nationality, he may not be readily satisfied with the result. With all its ease the style has a nervous suggestiveness provocative of thought, so that the book is one of those that repay a second reading better than the first, and a third better than the second. If Prof. Lavisse lectures thus, his hearers must be accounted fortunate.

The author finds the interest of history to lie in watching the action of human nature in the gross, with its capacity for modification and its inherent unchangeableness, its practicality and its love of the ideal, in contest with geographical and ethnographical conditions, with the ever-growing pressure of greater numbers and new political entities, with the influence of an ever-growing past of experience and thought. The resultant is the development of nations out of races, and the appearance of conscious national individuality, self-centred and self-assertive. He closes the book with a balancing of causes that make for peace and for war, and his prognostications will seem to some readers too gloomy. We incline to admit their force as regards the immediate future, but the removal of the time-limit would probably bring some forces into the field which M. Lavisse has not here considered. The author claims, justly, we think, a reasonable, but not a denationalized impartiality, nor would we ask for more. Allowance can be made for perspective when the standpoint is known; it is the observer who has cut loose from earth who is dangerous.

Finally, it should be noted that this book is not an epitome of history; it gives few dates and but little narrative. It is a digestive to aid the assimilation of facts, and should be taken after, not before, a course of history as ordinarily written. One of its best uses will be in the hands of teachers who are leading classes through the common text-books of European history. The translation adheres closely to the original, which it represents in style as well as in meaning.

The Original Mother Goose's Melody, as issued by John Newbery of London, *circa* 1760; Isaiah Thomas of Worcester, Mass., *circa* 1785; and Munroe & Francis of Boston, *circa* 1825. Reproduced in facsimile, from the first Worcester edition, with introductory notes by William H. Whitmore, etc., etc. Boston: Damrell & Upham. 1892.

THIS bibliography already furnishes material itself to bibliography. We have before us first the Thomas facsimile alone (Albany: Munsell, 1889); next, the facsimile with Mr. Whitmore's introductory notes (same publisher and date); and now this cloth-bound work of 117 pages, enlarged by the 'Fairy Tales of Mother Goose' translated from Perrault by R. Samber, as found in the New York edition of 1795, together with a sketch of Perrault's life by Mr. Whitmore. If more is to come, it ought to be from English and French antiquarians incited by this industrious American example.

His researches during the past three years have necessitated comparatively little change in Mr. Whitmore's notes to the 'Melody.' He has discovered in the Boston *News-Letter* of 1739 evidence that Puritan children then counted among their recreations "The House that Jack Built"—accounted "a vulgar [*i. e.*, familiar] Play Song." He can also point to American reprints *à la* Newbery in 1768 and 1771, but not bearing the name of Mother Goose. He has come upon an English book of 1808 giving the name of "Mother Goose's Tales" to Perrault's collection. Of Thomas's edition of the 'Melody' he now knows a third edition, and produces a facsimile of the title-page with other particulars. From this date, 1799, there are no examples till the Munroe & Francis edition of 1825. Mr. Whitmore concludes this topic with a complete refutation of the "absurd claim" that the original Mother Goose was a Bostonian, "Mrs. Vergoose or Goose."

Next comes the 'Tales of Passed Times by Mother Goose, with Morals. Written in French by M. Perrault, and Englished by R. S. Gent. . . . The Seventh Edition, Corrected, and Adorned with fine Cuts. New-York: Printed for J. Rivington, Bookseller and Stationer, No. 56, Pearl-Street. 1795.' Mr. Whitmore identifies "R. S., gentleman," with Robert Samber, a hack writer of the second quarter of the eighteenth century, who did his work in this instance very well, if we may judge from Mr. Whitmore's annotations, following the French, for he has no errors to point out. Under "Little Thumb" he remarks that he cannot tell when the change to Tom Thumb ("an old personage in English nursery literature") took place, but leaves it to be inferred that it was possibly after 1808. Under "Riquet with the Tuft," he observes: "It is a coincidence that M. Riquet figures in Perrault's autobiography as an engineer whose ignorance he exposed on an important occasion."

The brief memoir of Perrault is entertainingly written from the rather meagre sources. He was a member of the French Academy, filling the twenty-third seat, in which he was succeeded by Gaston, Cardinal de Rohan, and which is now occupied by M. Mézières. From him dates the custom of public receptions at the Academy, with the new member's eulogy of his predecessor; and the practice of choice by ballot. He maintained the superiority of modern over ancient authors in a famous controversy. Perrault's 'Contes de ma mère l'Oye' have done more to make him remembered than his two splendid folio volumes of portraits, 'Les Hommes Illustres qui ont paru en France pendant ce siècle' (1696, 1700), from which Mr. Whitmore has transferred the frontispiece portrait of the author to the corresponding place in the present volume. Among other embellishments pertaining to the same person, we should mention the frontispiece of Perrault's rare first edition of the 'Contes,' and a curious engraving illustrating the taking of the French Academy under Louis XIV.'s protection, in which the Immortals are grouped on inscribed leaves of a laurel wreath cut by medallions of the former protectors, Richelieu and Séguier.

This entertaining monograph, which we could describe thoroughly only by repeating what we have said regarding the previous editions, is of course mainly for adult readers; but Mr. Whitmore recommends substituting the Samber version of the prose tales for the later forms now current.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ask Mamma. [The "Jorrocks" Edition.] Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.25.
Ayer, Harriet H. My Lady's Dressing Room. Cassell. $1.50.
Ballou, M. M. Equatorial America. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Bazán, Emilia P. The Angular Stone. Cassell. 50 cents.
Bendall, H., and Laurence, C. E. Graduated Passages for First-Sight Translation. Part II. Moderately Easy. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Bourget, Paul. Impressions of Italy. Cassell. $1.50.
Caine, Hall. The Scapegoat. U. S. Book Co. 50 cents.
Cassell's Complete Pocket Guide to Europe. Revised and enlarged. Cassell. $1.50.
Craig, Mrs. Alethe L. Women of the World, with a Search Light of Epigram. Baltimore: H. W. Diek & Co. $1.
Crawford, F. M. Zoroaster. Macmillan. $1.
Dargenty, G. Antoine Watteau. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] New York: Macmillan.
Day, L. F. Nature in Ornament. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $4.50.
De Rousiers, Paul. American Life. Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
De Vogüé, E. M. Regards Historiques et Littéraires. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Dickinson, Evelyn. A Vicar's Wife. London: Methuen & Co.
Ellinwood, Rev. F. F. Oriental Religions and Christianity. Scribners. $1.75.
Fowler, W. W. Julius Cæsar and the Foundation of the Roman Imperial System. Putnams. $1.50.
Gardiner, S. R. A Student's History of England from the Earliest Times to 1885. Longmans, Green & Co.
Goodyear, W. H. The Grammar of the Lotus. Dodd, Mead & Co. $15.
Gummere, Prof. F. B. Germanic Origins: A Study in Primitive Culture. Scribners. $2.
Hanslick, Prof. Eduard. The Beautiful in Music. London and New York: Novello, Ewer & Co.
Harper, C. G. English Pen Artists of To-Day. Macmillan. $20.
Hatton, Joseph. The Princess Mazaroff; a Romance of the Day. John W. Lovell Co. $1.
Hervey, M. H. The Trade Policy of Imperial Federation. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Horine, Rev. M. C. Practical Reflections on the Book of Ruth. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. 50 cents.
Kip, Rev. W. I. The Early Days of My Episcopate. Whittaker. $1.50.
Ludlow, Rev. J. M. That Angelic Woman. Harpers.
Malot, Hector. Conscience. Worthington Co.
Peacock, T. L. Maid Marian. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Pike, G. H. Charles Haddon Spurgeon. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.
Rollins, G. W. Erckmann-Chatrian's Madame Thérèse. Boston: Ginn & Co. 70 cents.
Sinnett, A. P. The Rationale of Mesmerism. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Thein, Rev. John. Christian Anthropology. Cincinnati: Benziger Bros. $2.50.
Theuriet, A. Jules Bastien-Lepage and his Art. Macmillan. $3.50.
The Tarot of the Bohemians. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribners. $3.
Thompson, Maurice. Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Toller, Prof. T. N. An Anglo-Saxon Dictionary. Part IV., Section I. Sár—Swídrian. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Trent, W. P. William Gilmore Simms. [American Men of Letters.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Valabrègue, Antony. Abraham Bosse. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] New York: Macmillan.
Verity, A. W. Milton's Samson Agonistes. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Verity, J. B. Electricity up to Date. F. Warne & Co.
Walkley, A. B. Playhouse Impressions. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. The History of David Grieve. 2 vols. Macmillan. $3.
Warren, Cornelia. Miss Wilton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Whitney, Prof. W. D. Max Müller and the Science of Language. Appletons.
Whiton-Stone, Cara G. Sonnets, Songs, Laments. Boston: J. G. Cupples. $1.25.
Wilkins, Mary E. The Pot of Gold, and Other Stories. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Wilkins, W. H. The Alien Invasion. London: Methuen & Co.
Wilkinson, J. F. Pensions and Pauperism. London: Methuen & Co.
Woolley, Celia P. Roger Hunt. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Wright, W. A. The Works of William Shakspere. Vol. V. Macmillan & Co. $3.

MARCH
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 17, 1892.

The Week.

AMONG the various methods of meeting the emergency caused by Lord Salisbury's refusal to prolong the *modus vivendi* in Bering Sea, the most fantastic is that proposed by Senator Morgan of Alabama. His plan is to go on and ratify the treaty of arbitration, but to "retaliate" by suspending the privilege of bonded transportation of Canadian goods over our territory. This would be cutting off our own nose to spite our face. It is an advantage to American railroads to carry Canadian goods from the seaboard to inland Canadian points. All that we can do is to drive such business away from New York, Boston, and Portland to Halifax. Goods landed at New York destined for Manitoba may pay freight money to American railroads for eighteen hundred miles. If destined for British Columbia, they may pay for a correspondingly larger distance. There was a time when such a threat as that now proposed would have been less puerile: that was before Canada had a transcontinental railway of her own. But what, it may be asked, are we to "retaliate" for? According to the hypothesis, we are ratifying a treaty of arbitration. A treaty always implies amity and reconciliation. Are these to be promoted by turning around and scowling at the other party? The idea is unworthy of serious attention. The political capital, if any, to be made out of retaliation will accrue to the party which has charge of its execution. There is always some Democrat willing to run ahead and clear the road for a Republican victory. Mr. Bland has performed this office in the House. Mr. Morgan seems eager to do the same in the Senate.

Ex-Secretary Bayard has added his voice to the chorus of warning to the Democrats in Congress touching the Bland Silver Bill. "I don't pretend," he says, "to read between the lines of the late votes and action in the House of Representatives—if it means shrewd and cunning finesse, the strategy of concealed motive, I can only say it is playing with fire and is treating a question of the gravest public import in an unworthy manner; but if the votes mean what they say on the printed face, then I say the hour has struck for the Democratic masses to arouse themselves and examine their individual consciences and sense of duty to the country." That hour is fast approaching. It is set for the 22d, 23d, and 24th days of March, and the place is the House of Representatives. The Southern Democrats have the decision of it mostly in their own hands. They say that there is a demon in their rear, called the Farmers' Alliance, which is driving them onward whether they will or no. There is another demon in the rear of both, called negro supremacy, and it is our belief that if the Silver Bill passes the House, whatever may be its subsequent fate in the Senate or elsewhere, the last state of that man will be worse than the first. The Northern Democrats will be disabled, the Republicans will return to power in all branches of the Government, and will pass their Force Bill, with whatever accessories may be needed to carry it into effect, and the public sentiment of the North will acquiesce, saying: "Negro supremacy cannot give us anything worse than a dishonest dollar any way."

The Bar Association has done its duty to the public and the profession by adopting by a large majority a resolution to appoint a committee to inquire into Judge Maynard's connection with the "taking of an election return from the office of the Comptroller of this State." This was introduced by Mr. Carter in a grave and temperate speech, of which the most pregnant sentence, as regards Judge Maynard, was this:

> "There appears to be very strong *primâ-facie* evidence, but for all we know there may be some answer or explanation. If there be, how welcome it would be to all of us. But it is time it was given."

That is to say, although this *primâ-facie* evidence has been before the public for three months, and has been causing much shame and scandal, Judge Maynard has not thought fit to take the slightest notice of it, while drawing a salary for a place for which the very first qualification is the possession of public confidence and respect. The opposition to Mr. Carter's resolution came from Mr. Delos McCurdy, whose facts were disputed successfully by Mr. E. P. Wheeler, and whose argument was in the main that he (McCurdy) would in Judge Maynard's place have done the same thing himself; which Mr. Coudert disposed of neatly by observing that in that case Mr. McCurdy also would be investigated. The noblest Roman of all Judge Maynard's friends was, however, Mr. Roger Foster, who made the old-fashioned objection to "throwing mud" and making "political capital," but was forgiven unanimously, on the suggestion of Mr. Coudert, on account of his "youthful innocence and impetuosity." On the whole, the proceedings were marked by a very healthy tone, and the usual apologists for rascality were conspicuous by their absence.

There was a peculiar fitness in the presence of Mr. Nelson Smith, the Chairman of the Tammany General Committee, at the Bar Association meeting (just referred to), to oppose even an inquiry into Judge Maynard's case. The objects of his Committee are three in number: (1) public plunder; (2) the proper distribution of the plunder; (3) the provision of means of escape from justice, of the plunderers. It is, therefore, in a certain sense the *duty* of the Chairman to attend all gatherings having for their object the improvement of the machinery for the detection of crime, and, as they say in England, "watch the case," even if the bearing of the proceedings on the work of the Committee be only indirect or remote. In nothing has Tammany in this city displayed more interest during the past thirty years than the impurity of the bench. Its good nominations for the judicial offices have all been extorted from the organization by threats, and even then have been made only for a valuable consideration in money. The better the candidate, the more it makes him pay in cash for the permission to run, knowing that the better he is the more hurtful to the Society he may prove if elected. There is probably no more odious phrase in Tammany even to-day than "an upright and fearless judiciary." Mr. Smith, therefore, showed himself a faithful officer in appearing in such a crowd as the Bar Association, and letting at least one manly voice be heard in favor of judicial rascality.

The Hon. Bourke Cockran's views on national politics are always instructive, furnishing as they do the best attainable exhibit of the condition of the Tammany mind on questions of high public interest. If the Custos Mores is not a thinker on such questions, there is none in the wigwam. Mr. Cockran says that in his belief the "Democratic party is stronger than any issue that political emergency or expediency may suggest," that the "Democratic party will outlive free silver, free trade, or tariff reform, and will win the greatest triumph in its history in the coming election," that "Senator Hill, or some other equally as good Democrat, will be nominated, and the ticket will sweep the country," and that as for the "silver question, it is not a political issue," and as to Hill's attitude towards it, he does not believe from Hill's veto record as Governor he "would veto any measure, were he President of the United States, which had the endorsement and approval of a majority of his party." Taking the usual amount of Cockran wind out of this statement, it amounts to saying that free silver is not a political issue, but if it is, Hill is on that side of it which has the most votes. That silver is a political issue, both Hill and Cockran will discover if they try to carry New York State with a candidate or platform suspected even of doubt on the question of free coinage.

The first Republican State Convention to choose delegates to the National Con-

vention was held in the President's own State Thursday, and it instructed its representatives to give Harrison "their earnest and unswerving support by working and voting for his renomination so long as his name is before the Convention." The spectacular effect of this declaration in favor of "Indiana's favorite son" was sadly marred by the bitter opposition of the delegation from Allen County (Fort Wayne and vicinity), whose leader, ex-Congressman White, made a virulent attack on the President and declared that, if he should be nominated, he would be beaten in his own State by 35,000 majority. The office-holders who ran the Convention almost drowned White's voice, and such disjointed utterances as were audible did not indicate that the anti-Harrison movement was based upon any principle. Indeed, it is notorious that the whole secret of White's opposition, and of his chief backer, a millionaire electric-light man named McDonald, is Harrison's refusal to let them control the patronage of the Fort Wayne district. McDonald contributed liberally to the Harrison campaign fund in 1888, and his friends say that he was promised the privilege of naming the Postmaster of Fort Wayne, but that Harrison did not keep the promise when he reached the White House. White ran for reëlection to Congress in 1888, and was beaten, but claimed that his services and sacrifices gave him the right to name the postmasters in the district under a Republican President—a claim which Harrison refused to recognize. Neither of them, therefore, has any right to expect a particle of sympathy in their present attitude. There is no room to doubt that the overwhelming majority of Indiana Republicans favor Harrison's renomination, though in his own State, as everywhere else, there is an almost entire lack of anything like enthusiasm in his favor.

The opening of the annual State campaign in Rhode Island must turn public attention to an electoral system in that Commonwealth the anomalies of which are even now very inadequately realized, and which surpass those of any State, not excepting Connecticut. From the King Charles charter, granted in 1663 and in force until 1842, Rhode Island inherited both the "town rule" idea and a majority law, each of which is still pushed to extremes. Thus in her Senate, under the last census, 8,000 people in the small towns have the same number of members as 250,000 in the larger towns, and in the lower house 220,000 people have 32 members, while 124,000 people have 40 members. Last spring, although the Democratic candidate for Governor had a plurality of 1,254 on the popular vote, he lost his election because the Legislature, in a total membership of 109, had a Republican majority of 51 on joint ballot. Alone, of all the States of the Union, Rhode Island still applies the majority law to the election of Congressmen and of State Senators and Representatives. For example, in the large city of Providence, at great cost and trouble, the election machinery must be started up over and over again so long as a single candidate for the Legislature obtains a mere plurality. One curious outworking of this system is that the "Machine" politicians of Rhode Island often strive to prevent a majority at the first pollings, so as to "tire out" the better class of voters by repeated elections, and let the poorest candidates get a majority at the last. A very striking commentary is this "survival of the unfittest" on the theory of the Puritan originators of New England majority laws, which was that by secondary and repeated elections bad candidates would be weeded out and only the fittest survive. In the State Senate, where Providence, with a population of 132,146, is equalized with Jamestown, which has a population of 707, the Republicans always have a majority and resist obstinately any change in the Constitution.

Mr. J. S. Clarkson is suffering from what is technically known as "a bad case of big head." For three years he has been hungering for a place in the Cabinet, and now he has concluded that he ought to have the Presidency. Congressman Dolliver of Iowa, who is his great admirer, declares that "he is the best available Presidential timber." Mr. Clarkson's strength at home is shown by the fact that he has "bossed" the Republican party of Iowa for a good many years, taking it in hand when it used to carry the State by from 50,000 to 75,000, and that the last two elections for Governor have resulted in the choice of Democrats. His strength with the independent voters in the doubtful States of the East may be judged from the fact that he has just had published a eulogy of Quay as "the greatest political general that the first century of partisan American politics has developed." Of course the idea of Mr. Clarkson's candidacy is too ridiculous for consideration, but the fact that he himself takes it seriously shows what a fool a long course of "practical politics" will make of a man.

The recent municipal election in Portland, Maine, is of interest to all who are watching the drift of public sentiment regarding prohibition. For the first time in more than twenty years, the Democrats swept the city, electing not only their candidate for Mayor, as they have done twice before since 1869, but also a majority of the City Council, which disposes of a host of minor offices. Under the Republican incumbent there has been of late a vigorous attempt to enforce the prohibitory law, and this was the chief issue in the campaign. The *Press*, the leading Republican newspaper of the city, says that there can be no doubt as to the meaning of this verdict, which it says will strengthen the movement to make the repeal of the amendment a leading issue in State elections. Many of the Democratic leaders have favored this policy for years, but others have denounced the suggestion as almost suicidal. It is true enough that three or four years ago it did not look as though there were any chance of making headway against prohibition in Maine, but it is also true that six or eight years ago it looked as though the Republicans of Iowa had done a very shrewd thing in making prohibition a party principle. Since then the Democrats have twice elected a Governor who ran on a platform calling for the repeal of the law, and many shrewd Republicans say that their party can never hope to carry the State again until they unload prohibition. The change would be no greater if we should find Maine carried on a repealing platform within three or four years. Many of the loudest advocates of prohibition in public are Republican politicians who do not practise it in private, and who would stop preaching it the moment they became convinced that there were "no votes in it."

It is fitting that we should take notice that a bill is pending and under debate in the House to put wool on the free list and to make important reductions in the duties on woollen goods. Under ordinary circumstances such a measure would command universal attention, but the truth is that the vote taken in the House the other day on the Bland Silver Bill has completely extinguished the public interest in the wool bill and all other tariff bills. We said very soon after the present session began that if the silver question were an issue at all in the campaign of the present year, it would be the sole issue, and that it would be impossible to make it a half-issue. It is possible that President Harrison may get up a foreign disturbance which will serve to shelve both silver and the tariff, but if the campaign goes forward as it has begun, and if the House passes the Bland Bill, the tariff question will disappear as completely from this contest as though it had never been an issue in American politics. The silver question will take its place, with an election law, adapted to the exigencies of the Southern States, in the background.

The sayings of the tin-plate liar have not been much noticed of late, but he has been as busy and as unscrupulous as ever. The evil spirit entered into Mr. Cronemeyer again and caused him to write a letter to the Western Canned Goods Association, which letter was published in the Chicago *Grocer* a short time ago. In this communication Mr. Cronemeyer said:

> "Two years ago the duty was only 1 cent per pound, or $1.08 per box, and a box of coke tin plate cost in New York $5.20; to-day the duty is 2 2-10 cents per pound, or $2.37 per box, and the price of coke in New York is $5.35 per box; increase the duty $1.30 per box, increase the price only 15 cents per box."

This letter was passed over by the Association in silence. Probably the members,

being themselves purchasers of tin plate, were struck dumb. The price of coke plate "two years ago" was $4.45 to $4.50 per box, as published in the *Iron Age* of that date, not $5.20, as Mr. Cronemeyer put it. The present price, $5.35, as given by Cronemeyer, shows an advance of nearly $1.00 per box. The *Tariff League Bulletin* so far improved upon Mr. Cronemeyer that in its issue of February 26 it quoted Cronemeyer's letter as a resolution of the Association to which it was addressed. The *National Provisioner* of March 12 exposes this misrepresentation. It should be added that Mr. Cronemeyer is the man who published and distributed a circular before the passage of the McKinley Tariff, saying that he could make tin plate in this country at a profit under the old rate of duty of one cent per pound, and that he could prove it to any intelligent spectator.

The *Sun* produced Tuesday the military record of Gen. Russell A. Alger in so far as relates to his exit from the military service of the United States. From this it appears that Gen. Custer on the 16th September, 1864, reported Col. R. A. Alger, Fifth Michigan Cavalry, absent without leave since August 28. He had applied for leave of absence, which had been refused. He had done so two or three times before. "I have now authentic information," writes Gen. Custer, "that he is staying at one of the hotels in Washington, and that he has been placed on duty in the latter city as the member of a general court-martial." This paper was forwarded to Brig.-Gen. Wesley Merritt, commanding the First Cavalry Division, who endorsed it in this way:

> "The case mentioned within is the third in which Col. Alger has absented himself from the command without proper authority since the commencement of the present year's campaign. Severe measures should be taken to prevent a recurrence of this evil."

The paper went to Maj.-Gen. Torbert, Chief of Cavalry of the Middle Military Division, who recommended that Alger be "dismissed from the service for absence without leave, subject to the approval of the President." The paper was received by Gen. Sheridan September 18, who wrote as follows:

> "Respectfully forwarded. I understand that Col. Alger is on some duty in Washington, but it is evident that he has left his command without authority, and it appears that he has done so before. I have always considered Col. Alger a good officer, but cannot excuse his conduct or withhold my approval of the recommendation of his immediate commanders.
>
> "(Signed)
> "P. H. SHERIDAN, Major-General."

Two days later (September 20) Alger sent in his resignation, and it was accepted. It appears, therefore, that he was not actually discharged the service for absence without leave, but that such a recommendation had been sent through the regular channel to Washington, subject to the approval of the President. Such approval was anticipated by Alger's resignation.

Mercier's withdrawal from Quebec politics by resigning the seat to which he was chosen in the election which has resulted in so positive a condemnation of his administration, leaves only his trial in a criminal court to complete the disgraceful story of his career. A Tweed in the boldness and effrontery of his methods, he is in a fair way to receive a Tweed's punishment. The result of the Canadian election is a cause for general congratulation, because it affords another proof of the fact that, however corrupt powerful leaders may become, a large majority of the people may always be depended on to rebuke them when the issue is squarely presented. Mercier hoped confidently for success at the polls because he could appeal to the strong national feeling of his French-speaking constituents and to his religious affiliations, pointing to the Queen's representative, who necessarily was prominent in the proceedings against him, as English-speaking and Protestant. It is worth noting, too, that in Canada, as in the United States, appeals to party fealty have been the most powerful means of preventing an earlier reform of political abuses. Just as the *Tribune* has assisted the baser element by urging support of a straight Republican ticket in this city instead of a general union against Tammany, and of a straight (although perfectly hopeless) Republican ticket in Louisiana instead of a union of all the elements opposed to the lottery, so appeals to party (combined with race and religious) feeling in Canada sufficed to give Mercier power long enough to line his pockets. It is curious in the light of to-day to recall the fact that last summer, when the official investigation of Mercier began, the *Tribune*, an anti-Tory newspaper (outside of its London bureau), levelled a powerful leader at the Tory antagonists of the Quebec Premier, calling him "possibly the ablest and certainly one of the most successful of the Liberal leaders," and characterizing the steps taken by the Lieutenant-Governor to oust him as "tyranny."

The reception accorded Emperor William's Brandenburgh speech by the German press is highly significant. Most of the papers printed his remarks in full without any comment. A few ventured to print in full-faced type its more startling words and sentences, while others reprinted William's foregoing "suprema lex regis voluntas" and "sic volo sic jubeo," as if they were the best commentary on his latest deliverance. Some journals printed alongside his intimation that those who did not agree with him should leave the country, the twenty-seventh article of the Prussian Constitution, which says: "Every Prussian has the right to give free expression to his ideas by word of mouth, writing, printing, or pictorial representation." The *Vorwärts*, the organ of the Social Democratic party, took in especially bad part the Emperor's suggestion that his opponents should go into exile, and said: "One does not carry his country along on his shoe-soles." A courageous editorial in *Die Nation* gave utterance to the feelings of German Liberals, and we should hope of all educated Germans, in saying:

> "The belief that princes have been endowed by heaven with extraordinary wisdom has no longer any depth of root in our time. To us of the incredulous present, monarchs appear as but men like other mortals. Their high and influential position binds them, it is true, to do great things, but they are as much exposed to the danger of making mistakes as any other man."

The article closed with words which we should suppose would have called for an immediate visit from the police:

> "Whoever orders us to follow him blindly through thick and thin, lays upon us the duty of answering, clearly and plainly, no!"

However, it does not become us in this country to condemn the Emperor for insisting that there shall be no murmur of opposition to his public policy. The same claim is made by our rulers, or at least in their behalf. Saturday's *Tribune* asserted that "it is removed from actual treason only in degree" for a newspaper to venture to differ with the Administration in regard to the demand for a *modus vivendi* in Bering Sea, or to insinuate that political considerations may enter into the problem both here and in Eugland. What is this but the stark absolutism and assumption of infallibility of the German Emperor?

The harm done Brazilian credit by the political chaos of the country during the past two years is well seen in the quotations of the 4 per cent. Brazilian bonds on the London market. The overthrow of Dom Pedro in November, 1889, had but a slight effect upon those securities, which were then quoted at 71, and in all of the year 1890 never sank below 73, at one time being as high as 85. But the irresponsible goings on of Fonseca drove them lower and lower, and when he finally dissolved Congress and assumed supreme power, they fell to 49. They have now recovered to about 59, but are not likely to go much higher for the present. A very bad impression has been made in London financial circles by the revised estimates for 1892, which betoken a deficit of no less than $50,000,000. This is a good deal of a drop from the boastful surplus of $30,000,000 which Baron Lucena was announcing, through the Brazilian consulates in Europe, just before he went down in the final smash with Fonseca. Still, the foreign indebtedness of Brazil does not exceed $150,000,000. Most of it has a long term to run, and the resources of the country ought to make it a perfectly safe investment. But political demoralization counts for a great deal in the judgment of financiers, and it will take Brazil many years of peaceable and orderly government to get back her good credit of three years ago.

A TEST OF THE PEOPLE.

IT is a happy coincidence that Mr. Cleveland's letter consenting to the use of his name as a candidate for the Presidency appears the same week that Mr. Hill makes his electioneering trip through the South. The circumstance brings into vivid contrast the characters and the methods of the two men who are most talked of for the leadership of the Democratic party. As that party numbers half of the voters in the country, the decision which it is to make is of far more than partisan concern; it will prove, in a sense, a test of the American people.

Mr. Cleveland writes that, if he were to consider only his personal desires, and his individual ease and comfort, his response would be promptly made, and without the least reservation or difficulty; but that he recognizes his obligations to the country and his party as making such private and personal considerations entirely irrelevant. He proceeds to state his views as to the proper attitude for a citizen to occupy towards the Presidential office, as follows:

"I cannot bring myself to regard a candidacy for the place as something to be won by personal strife and active self-assertion. I have also an idea that the Presidency is preeminently the people's office, and I have been sincere in my constant advocacy of the effective participation in political affairs on the part of all our citizens; consequently I believe the people should be heard in the choice of their party candidates, and that they themselves should make nominations as directly as is consistent with open, fair, and full party organization and methods. I speak of these things solely for the purpose of advising you that my conception of the nature of the Presidential office, and my earnest conviction that all the voters of our party should be wholly free in the selection of their candidates, preclude the possibility of my leading and pushing a self-seeking canvass for the Presidential nomination, even if I had a desire to be again a candidate."

After expressing his earnest anxiety for the success of the party, as meaning increased national prosperity and the increased happiness of the people, Mr. Cleveland closes with a warning as to the peril of the party. "I am confident," he says, "success is still within our reach, but I believe this is a time for Democratic thoughtfulness and deliberation, not only as to candidates, but concerning party action upon questions of immense interest to the patriotic and intelligent voters of the land, who watch for an assurance of safety as the price of their confidence and support."

Mr. Hill is also giving the people his measure as a public man. He is the first Democrat to hold a commission in the Senate from New York, for ten years. His term of service began with last December, but he did not occupy his seat at all during that month. After being sworn in early in January, he absented himself for nearly two months in order to pull wires for a midwinter convention in his State, and see that his machine ground out a Hill delegation to the National Convention. He is hardly warm in his seat in March before he again abandons his post to go South and try to "work up a Hill boom" in that part of the country. Up to this time nobody knows his attitude as to the burning issue of the day. His first day's speeches show that the country is not to learn anything from them. They are full of rhodomontade about the brilliant prospects of "the grand old organization," and the wonderful record of the grand old organization as "the party that has maintained the right of habeas corpus," etc., etc., but say no word as to what its position is, or ought to be, regarding the fundamental question of honest money. The reason for Mr. Hill's silence regarding the overshadowing issue was frankly stated the other day by his warm admirer, the Washington correspondent of the Atlanta (Ga.) *Constitution*, who wrote that journal:

"Senator Hill will show his hand plainly when the Silver Bill is considered by the Senate. He is not the man to dodge an issue, though, *in view of the division of sentiment in the country, he would perhaps prefer not to have to vote right now*, but when he does, his vote will be for free coinage."

Here we have photographs of the two men—the one boldly announcing his position on the silver question, when time-servers predicted that such frankness would ruin him; the other telling the representative of a New York newspaper, while the issue is pending before Congress, that he "will not cross that bridge until he gets to it," and hoping that, "in view of the division of sentiment in the country," he may not have to declare his position at all. The one telling his party that it has already been guilty of such folly that the best which can be said is that "success is still within our reach," but only on condition that it gives the patriotic and intelligent voters of the land "an assurance of safety as the price of their confidence and support"; the other telling it that it can win under a leadership which aims to avoid taking sides on the chief issue, though, if compelled to a decision, it will choose the wrong side, and trust to "organization" to win. The one regarding a nomination for the Presidency not as "something to be won by personal strife and active self-assertion," but as an honor to be awarded by the people, through "open, fair, and full party organizations and methods"; the other convening snap conventions in midwinter, and "running his own canvass."

The Democrats of the country are to decide between these two men and their respective attitudes towards the Presidency. The personal aspect of the case is of the least consequence. The really important question is whether what Cleveland represents and stands for, or what Hill represents and stands for, commands the support of a party which contains half of the voters in the country. The issue is thus a test of the American people—whether, after a century's experience of our form of government, they prefer for their highest office a self-seeking shuffler, who works for the Presidency as a ward politician works for the place of Alderman, or an honest man who always has the courage to state his position on any question, and who leaves the people entirely free to accept or reject him.

THE BERING SEA CORRESPONDENCE.

THE text of the Bering Sea treaty now before the Senate provides for the arbitration of all the points in dispute, and also of one point not in dispute. The latter, which is found in clause 4 of article 6, submits to the tribunal of arbitration the question, "Did not all the rights of Russia, as to jurisdiction and as to the seal fisheries in Bering Sea east of the water boundary, in the treaty between the United States and Russia of the 30th of March, 1867, pass unimpaired to the United States under that treaty?" In the correspondence published last year Lord Salisbury said that he was prepared to concede that point without arbitration. Why it should be included now, we do not quite understand. Perhaps it is put in to give some éclat to Mr. Blaine for his learned arguments in support of the position that we took by the treaty of cession all that Russia had to give.

If the treaty should be ratified as it now stands, the question of renewing the *modus vivendi* of last year would be left open. The arbitration would go forward to its conclusion with or without such renewal. The question of present moment, therefore, is whether such damage is likely to result to seal life, or to the seal monopoly, or to both, during the present year, by the non-renewal of the *modus vivendi* that the five or six years of accomplished work looking to a settlement of this question ought to be thrown overboard. In answering this question there is another which inevitably comes up, viz.: What will be the consequences to seal life of no settlement at all? Here we must take account of the petition presented by Senator Squire the other day, of which the *Congressional Record* has the following note:

"Mr. Squire—I present a petition of the Chamber of Commerce of the city of Port Townsend, respectfully setting forth that the present status of the Bering Sea fishery works a grievous hardship to our fishermen by depriving them of rights and privileges which they enjoy in the North Atlantic Ocean, in which they are encouraged and protected by the Government of the United States. Therefore, the Chamber of Commerce respectfully asks in this petition that some action be taken by Congress by which the same laws which are now in operation on the North Atlantic regarding fisheries shall be extended to the waters of the North Pacific, Bering Sea, and the Arctic Ocean, and all waters bordering upon American territory; that the products of the open sea be declared free and open to all, and that American fishermen have the same rights in the waters of the North Pacific that they now enjoy in the North Atlantic Ocean."

A petition asking, in behalf of Pacific Coast fishermen, the same rights as those enjoyed by Atlantic Coast fishermen, can hardly be denied. That we should prolong indefinitely a controversy which carries with it a denial of such rights to our own people would be a grievance not to be defended in the forum of politics or of morals.

Touching this *modus vivendi*, the correspondence shows that, before the arbitration was agreed upon, Sir Julian Pauncefote notified Mr. Blaine that the *modus vivendi* would not be renewed. This is

perhaps the most important new fact disclosed by the correspondence. In his despatch of March 7, 1892, Sir Julian says:

"In the course of the correspondence which then took place, it was distinctly notified to your Government that the *modus vivendi* would not be renewed for the following season. You will find that, at the close of the memorandum enclosed in my note to Mr. Wharton of June 6, 1891, I stated, under instructions from my Government, that 'the suspension of sealing was not a measure which they could repeat another year.' "

A notification given in writing nine months ago cannot be taken as a surprise now.

Moreover, suppose the owner of an American ship should enter Bering Sea this season and proceed to catch seals three miles from shore and should be seized by an American cruiser, or prevented from exercising his trade, and should incur loss thereby, would he, or would he not, have an action for damages against the captain of the vessel so seizing or preventing him? Could that officer plead any orders of the Treasury Department or of the President of the United States as a justification, unless those orders were in consonance with law? What are the laws applicable to the subject? We find them, together with a compendium of the diplomatic correspondence, in a small volume just published, entitled 'The Bering Sea Controversy,' by Stephen Berrien Stanton, Ph.D., of the New York bar. The law touching the supposed case is section 1956, Revised Statutes, in these words:

"No person shall kill any otter, mink, marten, sable, or fur seal, or other fur-bearing animal within the limits of Alaska Territory or the waters thereof."

In 1889 this subject was brought again to the attention of Congress. There was pending in the House, on the 28th of February, a bill which had originated in the Senate relating to salmon fisheries in Alaska. An amendment was offered by Mr. Dunn of Arkansas, reciting "that section 1956 of the Revised Statutes of the United States was intended to include and apply to all the waters of Bering Sea in Alaska embraced within the boundary-lines mentioned and described in the treaty with Russia dated March 30, 1867, by which the Territory of Alaska was ceded to the United States." This amendment was adopted without a division. The bill was returned to the Senate and referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations. It was reported back on the 1st of March with a recommendation that the amendment be not concurred in. Senators Sherman and Morgan spoke briefly on it, saying that the subject was of too serious and important a character to be passed upon at the close of a session and without time for deliberation. The House amendment was rejected without a division. A conference committee was appointed on the bill, which reported, in place of the House amendment, a proviso "that section 1956 of the Revised Statutes of the United States is hereby declared to include and apply to all the dominion of the United States in the waters of Bering Sea." Appended to this conference report in the House was the following statement in writing:

"The effect of the amendment is to leave out of the House amendment the words that are descriptive of the boundaries of the waters of Alaska.

"POINDEXTER DUNN,
"BENTON MCMILLIN,
"C. N. FELTON,
"Managers on the part of the House."

Therefore, section 1956, Revised Statutes, remains unchanged in meaning, although the words "dominion of the United States" were added.

Last year the executive branch of the Government entered into an agreement with the executive branch of the Government of Great Britain that both would prohibit the taking of seals in Bering Sea, and would authorize the seizing and detaining of vessels offending against the prohibition. When the *modus vivendi* was broached last year, Lord Salisbury applied to Parliament for authority to enter into it. Such authority was given by an act (54 Vic., c. 19), which empowers her Majesty, by Order in Council, to prohibit the taking of seals by British ships in any part of Bering Sea defined by the order. No such authorization was asked by our Executive from Congress, for the obvious reason that the asking would have been a confession that it did not then exist, whereas the contention has been that legislative authority was already conferred by section 1956, Revised Statutes. That a doubt has hung over the question, however, was made very clear by the trepidation caused by the *Sayward* case in the Supreme Court. It is needless to say that the assumption of power by the executive branch to prohibit American seamen from taking seals in Bering Sea beyond the three-mile limit covers nobody with a shield.

Although Lord Salisbury did not exceed his authority when he entered into the *modus vivendi* last year, the probability is that President Harrison exceeded his authority when he entered into it. Perhaps there would be difficulties in the way of enforcing American sailors' rights in the premises, but those rights are none the less clear. They are whatever Congress has made them. They cannot be abridged by mere act of the Executive. Any officer enforcing an order not sanctioned by law does so at his peril. The Supreme Court has declined at present to consider the question whether our jurisdiction extends beyond the three-mile limit or not. But it would undoubtedly consider the question at a time when it was no longer in controversy with a foreign Government, and where the property of American citizens was alone involved.

The work of Mr. Stanton to which we have made reference furnishes a quotation from the last edition (1891) of Woolsey's celebrated work on International Law, with which this article may be fitly closed:

"The recent controversy between Great Britain and the United States, involving the right of British subjects to catch seals in North Pacific waters, appears to be an attempted revival of these old claims to jurisdiction over broad stretches of sea. That an international agreement establishing a rational close season for the fur seal is wise and necessary, no one will dispute. But to prevent foreigners from sealing on the high seas, or within the Kamtchatkan Sea (which is not even enclosed by American territory, its west and northwest shores being Russian), is as unwarranted as if England should warn fishermen of other nationalities off the Newfoundland Banks."

THE INTER-STATE LAW AT THE WEST.

THE Chicago *Tribune* publishes two pages of facts and opinions upon the workings of the Inter-State Commerce Law. All persons interviewed state that the act to regulate commerce is very unsatisfactory in its actual effects upon business in the West; yet, as might be expected, they do not agree among themselves as to the things about which complaint should be made, or as to the best remedy. In short, while dissatisfaction is evident, there yet remains no consensus of opinion as to what the railroad problem really is.

Ex-Gov. Anthony of Kansas says flatly: "If we could haul our wheat from Kansas fields to Liverpool markets at one dollar a ton, that wheat would not bring a cent more to the Kansas farmer than now. When rates go down, it is the consumer, not the producer, who gets the advantage"—a statement which, if true, would take the ground from under all the Western demands for low tariffs eastward. On the other hand, the Secretary of the Kansas State Board believes that "discrimination is the last thing the West ought to kick about. It is discrimination that has brought the Nebraska farmer into competition with the Massachusetts farmer and driven the latter out of business." Gov. Boyd of Nebraska is reported as saying: "The man who ships 100 cars a day should have a better rate than the man who ships only one"—the very principle complained of by the majority of those quoted. The *Tribune* thinks that rebates are paid by every Western road, and that the Inter-State Act in this particular is a complete failure. The names of the Chicago grain-dealers who have these cut rates are given for each road. One grain-buyer at Lincoln, Neb., gives the following example: "Reynolds Bros. of Toledo, in connection with their New York correspondents, Milmine, Bodman & Co., are able to control buying for the New York market. The corn must be shipped to them in care of the Wabash Railway at Chapin, Ill. If this corn which they are paying me 37 cents for at Chapin is sent to New York at tariff rates, it will show a loss of 3.76 cents on every bushel." As a milling firm in Wichita expressed it, "one man's business ability is put up against another man's cut rate, and the result is exceedingly unsatisfactory to the man who hasn't the inside railroad arrangement." Of one prominent Western road it is stated that the amount of the rebates reached such proportions last year that the Auditor was at a loss to know how to handle the account, and a special meeting of the Board

of Directors had to be called to devise some way of absorbing the cash rebates.

But the fact that payments of drawbacks were made to favored shippers has long been known. To find a remedy is not so easy. The general opinion, as gathered by the *Tribune*, was that pooling must be permitted. Just as unequal taxation is worse than high taxation, so discrimination demoralizes trade and upsets all values. Various forms of pooling were suggested, one plan even going so far as to provide for putting all earnings into the hands of a commission in which Government officers should have a majority, and the railway men only a minority. It was felt by all that unrestricted competition between the carriers was mainly responsible for unequal rates, and that something ought to be done about it. The State Commissioners of Iowa and Minnesota reported peace within their respective boundaries.

Mr. Anthony went into the general question of railway rates, displaying some decided opinions on the situation and the causes of the present complaints. He stated that the law and the Commission had started in to do too much. "As it is to-day, the Commission assumes to superintend the general management of railways. I want to see an Inter-State Commerce Commission—not an inter-State railway superintendence. If we could pull up 1,500 miles of road in Kansas, we could make better rates." Then, as if to show that after all each man looks at the general railway problem from the point of view of his own local interests, the ex-Governor made an elaborate argument to prove that only those cities which are on navigable waters should be made basing or rerating points. The object, of course, was to show that Kansas City (a city in Missouri) had no good ground for claiming control of the jobbing and grain business of interior Kansas, and hence that the Kansas Board was right in ordering rate reductions for the benefit of Kansas towns which had the ambition to become trade centres.

So, apparently, the Chicago *Tribune* has confirmed the opinion that things are not as they should be, though as to the remedy, the only suggestion of any value is that of permitting some form of pooling or other kind of good understanding among the carriers. This is advocated on the ground that to cure the disease—unjust discrimination—we must remove the cause; anything short of that would prove a mere palliative. On the general question the Kansas ex-Governor also had something to say: "At the heart of this railway question are two widely opposite views as to the form of power of the people in the regulation of the affairs of railway corporations, and these are held by equally high authority. Judge Brewer of the United States Supreme Court has held that rates could not be lawfully reduced below a point of earnings equal to the cost of operation, maintenance, payment of interest on debt, and a reasonable dividend on capital stock. Stated in this broad manner, this principle puts a premium on fraud by encouraging fictitious stock issues. As opposed to this view, Judge Bradley holds that a railway company is the trustee of the State, and has no right to raise questions about bondholders or stockholders. The State, being the creator of the corporation, has the power to destroy all that it created, the power to tax it out of existence by low rates. Under that view this State could confiscate the ownership of all roads in Kansas, with no appeal to any part of the law. It seems to me that neither of these views is just and reasonable. Law is sense. Law is reason. The father and mother control their child, but if they were to exercise their power by depriving the child of liberty and life they would become amenable to the great natural law. The charter of a corporation creates obligations of reasonableness and just treatment on the part of the State. The fundamental disagreement as to the form of power, illustrated in these opinions of Judge Brewer and Judge Bradley, must be reconciled before great progress can be made." After the reconciliation of theories must come the difficulties inherent in the attempt at application to practical affairs.

THE BOSTON PRESS.

THERE is no city in the United States in which the condition of the newspaper press presents more interesting problems than Boston. It is, we think we may say, the only city in the Union except New York which has had since the war a newspaper intended especially for the more educated and fastidious class, and edited with special reference to their tastes and ideas. This place was filled for many years by the Boston *Advertiser*, but within a few years the *Advertiser* somehow lost its hold on its old constituency, and ceased to receive its former welcome from the dwellers on Beacon Hill and "the new land" on the Back Bay. It was not in its best days a powerful organ of any variety of opinion, but it was eminently safe and respectable. The editorial articles were generally such as none but the really base and wicked would try to controvert; they offended no one's susceptibilities, and the news was decent, wholesome, and full. By what turn in human affairs, owing to what foreign treason, or malice domestic, the *Advertiser* lost the proud place of the true Bostonian's "vade mecum," and "unum necessarium," which followed him in his peregrination or rustication all over the country, we are not here, as the orators say, to explain. The fact is, however, that about seven years ago, if we remember rightly, it was repudiated by the old real Bostonians, and became a rattling party organ, under the management of Mr. Cabot Lodge as the "directing Director" of a proprietary corporation.

Its old subscribers then transferred their affections to the *Boston Post*, which suddenly rose from the position of an old "Hunker" and "doughface" sheet into that of the favorite paper of the Beacon Street and Cambridge people, the cultivated, particular, and especially the Mugwump class. Of this class, in fact, we may say, under new proprietors it became the organ. It was filled with their hatred of good men of the Republican persuasion, like Blaine and Clarkson and Quay and Wanamaker, and gave free expression to the frightful economical and historical errors of the Mugwump heresy. It, too, like the old *Advertiser*, was eminently respectable. No priest, as they used to say of the good soldiers of the seventeenth century, hesitated to mention it in his prayers, no woman to associate it in her mind with honor, no father feared to leave it on his parlor table, or allow it to go down to the kitchen when the family had done with it. But it had a struggling existence. It was able, honest, and pure, but it soon began to appear that the public to which it appealed was no longer able to support a journal of that description. Either the constituency had grown smaller or had grown more exacting in the matter of news than the readers of the old *Advertiser* had been. This last explanation was probably the true one. The *Post* was not "newsy," and was not "breezy," and to succeed now a newspaper must be either newsy or breezy, or both. Consequently, after a gallant struggle, and the expenditure of much money, the *Post* was transferred to a "bright young journalist" of the Pulitzer school, who soon made the unfortunate sheet the terror of the various neighborhoods in which it once had been a welcome guest. Its old readers no longer recognized their quondam friend in the battered, red-nosed, buttonless-waistcoated, and jocular blackguard who now sought admission to their breakfast table, and promptly kicked him out of their houses.

These unfortunates have now gone over to the *Herald*, which really is an excellent newspaper in most respects. It has all the important news; the editorial articles are ably written, well-informed, and advocate the opinions in politics which most Americans of the educated Boston type hold. But there is one respect in which it is not excellent, and this is, to the class of which we speak, the most important of all. It gives a large space to murders, suicides, seductions, trials of ministers for immorality, elopements, adulteries, and scandals of every description, and illustrates these events with the hideous pictures with which all newspaper readers are now familiar. Consequently, it is not a family paper in any true sense of that term. It is a paper which fathers and mothers have to hide when they have finished reading it, or have to examine carefully before they let the boys and girls get a chance at it.

Even when it is at its purest, the pictures make it an odious sight on a library or parlor table in a respectable household. It seems a daily lesson in vulgarity and ugliness. The editor, we are informed, has been remonstrated with by these unhappy parents, but his answer is that he makes his paper to sell, and leaves the moral training of the young to the clergy, or words to that effect.

Under these circumstances, what is old Puritan, cultured Boston to do? We offer, as an answer to this question, a suggestion which we think has merit. Let it get the proprietor of the *Herald* to agree to put all his required crimes and scandals on one detached or detachable sheet, and make up the rest of his paper for family reading. Let him then offer to the public a distinctly marked "Indecent Edition," containing everything, or a "Decent Edition," without the scandal sheet. Let subscribers, at the office or through the newsdealers, indicate which edition they desire, and have no other served to them at their houses. Would not this solve the problem, and might the plan not be adopted in other cities which have no decent public large enough to support a newspaper of their own?

A CROSS-SECTION THROUGH NORTH CAROLINA.

EDENTON, February 17, 1892.

FORTY years ago, Frederick Law Olmsted visited North Carolina and summed up his judgment of the State as follows: "Industry is almost entirely rural, and there is little communication or concert of action among the small and scattered proprietors of capital."

The impressions of a less observant traveller, who is spending a few days in going over the country roads on foot, seem to show that the State has not greatly changed. As soon as one gets off the main commercial arteries of the Richmond and Danville and Seaboard Air-Line Railroads, and follows the old east-and-west highway to the coast, he finds himself not simply in the middle of this century, but in the end of the eighteenth century. As in colonial times, the islands outside Albemarle and Pamlico Sounds confine the State on the east, and the mountains on the west. There is not an important seaport in the State, nor a considerable manufacturing town, nor very productive mines, nor a great city. Wilmington, the largest place, has but 20,000 people. The ancestors of almost all the inhabitants were in the State a century ago; probably no State in the Union so closely adheres to the social and political traditions of the pre-Revolutionary period. North Carolina is the type of the natural development of an American community, much influenced by slavery, but little influenced by coal and iron, foreign immigration, commerce, or Northern capital.

To the Northern man, and particularly to the pedestrian, the winter climate of central North Carolina seems perfect. An occasional boisterous day is offset by half-a-dozen of bright sunshine, with the clear, invigorating air of a New England October. In the midst of the brown leaves of last year, hardy flowers start up; on the coast the palmetto is seen. The western third of the State I know only by hearsay; but in the central rolling region, twelve easy hours from Washington, are hundreds of sites for people who would like to find winter sunshine north of Florida. A New York capitalist is just contracting to build a hotel at Chapel Hill, and it is safe to predict that many others will follow. The views are charming, the country-side interesting, and the shooting good. On the coast there are surface indications of a less favorable climate. One suspects evil when he hears a bride confide to her husband that "in Plymouth she had regular chills every other day till Christmas"; or when a voice in the corridor of the hotel asks an invisible person whether he "has taken his quinine yet."

The beautiful midwinter weather hardens the roads. The picturesque troughs worn by two centuries of travel in the hills must sometimes be full of mud. Even in winter, driving is not easy: many of the streams have waited for bridges since Carteret's time. Nor are the roads likely to improve, now that cross-country railroads are penetrating the whole State. There is a delightful flavor of stage and steamboat travel about these new roads: the signal to the engineer is a yodel from the lungs of a negro, inspired by the order: "Holler 'im back!" and the reason for the delay of a train is stated to be: "Slow captain on board." Along the roads are grouped, at rather frequent intervals, the farm-houses—the word plantation is hardly used. The inquisitive traveller finds little to detain him: a group of children gathered about the fire of "fat pine" in the open chimney; rude and worn furniture; two or three women thoughtfully rubbing their gums with the snuff-stick. The prevailing type of farm-house has an outside chimney on each end, no veranda, and half-a-dozen little squalid outbuildings about it. Only in or near the towns do more elaborate mansions appear.

Most of the towns are unpleasing. Hillsboro is apparently much the same that it was when Cornwallis left it—a collection of shabby houses rich in the traditions of great men. Here I found the tombstone of the Signer of the Declaration of Independence, "Hon. William Hooper, Esq., eldest son of the Rev. William Hooper, late Rector of Trinity Church in Boston, New England . . . Educated at Cambridge College." Here are the quaint records of the courts, with the uproarious addenda of the Regulators of 1770: "THOMAS RICHARDS vs. ROBINSON YARD. General issue *not but Plea of Abatement. Plaintiff pays all & gets his Body Scourgd for Blasphemy.*" The river towns, like Tarboro and Plymouth, have all the original ugliness of a Western prairie county-seat, with the accumulation of the dirt of a hundred years.

In striking contrast to these towns is the beautiful place from which I write. A row of handsome square houses stands on an attractive water-front. The court-house of 1716 is elegant in proportions and finish. The interior carving of the Bond mansion (1758) and its furniture are hardly to be surpassed in New England. St. Paul's is a colonial church and has the colonial silver and well-kept records, including a ringing declaration of the vestrymen of June 19, 1776. Outside the town, but visible from my window, is "Hayes," a beautiful mansion upon the grounds of which lie Justices Johnson and Iredell of the United States Supreme Court. The house contains many interesting portraits, including a characteristic head of Clay, and a fine old library. With its stately architecture, its magnificent trees, and its surrounding negro quarters, it is that typical Southern mansion which we have all expected some time to see. This lovely coast, but four hours and a half south of Old Point Comfort, seems destined to become a winter resort.

Such mansions as Hayes are rare in North Carolina because, from colonial times down, there has been little wealth. The dominant element in the State is, as one of the number expresses it, "all poor together." Poverty, however, means a dearth of ready money, but not of substantial comfort, or of a wholesome old-fashioned culture based on Shakspere and Gibbon. All people of "family" throughout the State appear to know all the other people of family, and they know also the ramifications of marriage and relationship. The Northerner fortunate enough to be admitted to the privileges of this great club finds it very delightful. The University town of Chapel Hill is especially attractive, both from its unusual neatness and from its being the most intellectual place in the State. With very scanty means the University is upholding a high standard of education, and has adopted a broad and modern system which cannot fail to make it a power in the State. There are other promising colleges, especially Trinity, which has found an avenue to the liberality of a tobacco king. Secondary education is very defective, and a gentleman who has made an address in each of the ninety-six county-seats of the State advocating an increase of the State appropriation for common schools, says that it is impossible to secure money enough to keep them open three months in the year.

Before going to North Carolina, three preconceptions as to the condition of the South had gained lodgment in my mind: that the negroes were improving; that the relations between the races were working themselves out satisfactorily; and that the white people were doing all that could be expected of them. All three ideas have been much disturbed. There is a small class of cultivated negroes, a sprinkling of black professional men, and a very few who have a little money; but the greater part of the race moves in a nether world of great ignorance and of greater degradation. No one who has not seen them can appreciate the slowness of their advance. The race is picturesque: from the town negro coachman, in tall hat, flashy jacket, and checked trousers, a fashion-plate for a minstrel troupe, to the wood-chopper working for six dollars a month for Johns Johnson, and courting one of his girls—all are cheerful and polite. At one of the railroad stations, day before yesterday, I was approached by a prepossessing black, who gave me to understand that he was "looking for a nice man to take him South and set him to work." "What are your wages?" "Kain't git more'n thirteen dollars around here." "But I'm not going South; I'm going North—going to Boston." "I'd just like to find a nice man to take me to Boston." Farm labor is the chief employment of the negroes. The owner of the largest cotton mills in the State says that he employs only one negro, a drayman. More of them work in tobacco factories, and there are some negro mechanics and even brakemen. Black Johns Johnson says that "a nigger can't make another nigger work: he'd like to give his boys a thrashing every morning before they went out to work." "The trouble with the nigger," said one black to me, "is that the nigger is a coward. The nigger wants to be well controlled." The complaint is general that even white men cannot control their hands, and that they are very irregular in their work: one gentleman makes it a practice, when he has a load of wood, to engage three or

four to cut it: possibly *one* may come when he agrees. Steady six days' work is almost unknown. There is much intemperance, and even among sober men no habits of saving. Land is not dear: tracts of bottom land on the coast once worth fifteen dollars an acre now go begging at a dollar and a quarter; but for the last twenty years the negroes have bought little or no land. They have not gained much in common-school education since 1870; they are not gathering property, and, above all, the race seems morally to stand about where it did in reconstruction times.

"It is hard," says a white lady plaintively, "to get on with servants who have no honesty and no virtue." Even among the thriving and prosperous country and village negroes, the standards of conduct are unspeakable. Let one example suffice. Two neighbors, both Northern ladies, in a very intelligent town, arrange for their two cooks to live in one little house: with those two black women live their four illegitimate children. To dismiss the servants is not worth while, because there is every reason to expect that the successors would be of the same character. Among such creatures are brought up the children of white families. The girls, by some miracle, grow up as fresh and pure as though there were no such contamination; but it is demoralizing to the boys. The starting-point of self-respect and admiration for a high character seems lacking among the negroes. The preachers, who are almost the only leaders, are justly distrusted. Mahone is said to have made it a principle to buy up the preachers in Virginia. A returned convict feels no sense of disgrace among his own people. The long continuance of slavery is not wholly responsible for this degradation; it is a defect in the character of the race. Yet upon this partially civilized substratum rests the economic development of the State. A fair type of the labor system is a scene witnessed at a station the other day: in the foreground four white men superintended the switching of some cars; in the background a negro with a mule team furnished the raw material. The baggagemaster touches the trunk, the black porter lifts it. Without negro labor the State would starve.

In such a condition of mutual dependence, one would expect at least friendly relations between the races. Outward good nature there is, but almost no confidence. An ingenious professor in the University is trying to find out what the negroes think about by a series of categories propounded by a barber. If he succeeds, he will learn what no one else seems to have found out. The negroes live a separate life, with their own rumors and alarms. A servant who had probably heard some reference to the Chilian imbroglio, the other day inquired anxiously whether "it was true that there was gwine to be another wa' and Miss June 'll have to come home from up North." There are graceful amenities between old slaves and former owners, but the races distrust and dislike each other. I have heard an ardent North Carolina Republican say, before a black servant: "When I see a nigger driving a mule, I always wonder why the mule, as the superior animal, does not drive the nigger." I have seen a black boy plant himself squarely in the track of a procession of school-girls on their way to church. The white man has little confidence in the character of his black neighbor, and the negro little regard for the opinion of his white neighbor. Nowhere is this absolute distrust so manifest as in politics. The negro vote is not suppressed—it is in a minority in the State at large; but in the black counties it is simply not counted. The State Legislature elects most of the county officers. The white people are literally in terror lest somehow, by their divisions, the negroes should get such political power as they had in reconstruction times. "We dare not divide," says a native North Carolinian; "we dare not divide even on the question of improving our roads." The mechanism of political development is stopped.

It is now impossible to say how far slavery accounts for the deplorable failure of the State to work out of the present social and political deadlock. The conviction borne in upon my own mind, against its preconceptions, is that the white race is not doing its duty. The State is poor: the little money spent on schools is chiefly paid by whites, and is fairly divided among white and black children. But the people have no heart in negro education; they are passively hostile to the schools kept up by Northern philanthropy; they make little distinction between educated and ignorant blacks. The remark made to me by a public man of great intelligence is a vigorous, but not an exaggerated, view of the temper of the whites. "We don't want the negroes to get educated or to get rich," said he; "the more educated they are and the richer they are, the worse it is for us. It is a big stick in their hands." In other words, education suggests to the North Carolinian organization, combined force, negro supremacy, some vague kind of social equality. The Southern people are fond of talking of "two civilizations"; they seem to set the negro out of their moral world; they feel no responsibility for his degraded state, and no impulse to help him to raise himself out of it. His most demoralizing vices are accepted as unavoidable evils, like mosquitoes and ticks. The whites suffer from the low standard of negro character more than the negroes themselves, for they have more to lose.

When the question of remedy arises, no one seems able to suggest. A former North Carolinian and ardent Republican thinks something may be done by "files of soldiers"; that has been tried, and has altered for the better the character of neither race. The division of the negro vote, which seems so potent to outsiders, is deprecated by the best men in the State, as likely to bring in an era of wholesale bribery. There is no movement of population, like that in Alabama, whereby the black counties get blacker and the white counties whiter. The establishment of educational qualifications and acceptance of the lessening of representation in Congress cannot command a popular vote. The despair of the question is shown by the solution proposed by an able lawyer and jurist: he thinks the only hope is to colonize the great body of the blacks in Mexico; with a spirit of candor he adds that at present each county is entitled to a license fee of one thousand dollars from every person who, within its limits, persuades another person to emigrate from the State. The negro problem and the race problem are unsolved; education might not solve, but would certainly palliate them; and education is "a big stick in their hands." Truly, "the fathers have eaten sour grapes, and the children's teeth are set on edge."

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

THE EXHIBITION OF PALERMO.

PALERMO, February 14, 1892.

OF exhibitions there is no end, say many, and the fact cannot be denied. The collection, classification, and exposition of the products of modern art, science, invention, industry, and agriculture is a feature of the second half of the nineteenth century, and a very beneficial one it seems to us. This of Palermo is especially interesting because so little is known of the island, even on the Italian continent, that whatever tends to place the facts and figures, the progress and amelioration, of the islanders in evidence, is a gain to themselves and a factor in the general advancement of the nation.

The exhibition, from an artistic, industrial, and social point of view, is a very decided success. I fear the same cannot be said from the financial side of the question, as visitors from Italy are few. England and Germany are fairly represented, but very few Americans appear on the visitors' list. Yet if it were only known how perfect is the climate, how delightful the sojourn, how perfect the service of the hotels, the carriage, tram, and omnibus service; the facilities for travel by land and sea, the charming excursions to be made with no fatigue in the neighborhood of the Golden Shell, the genial hospitality of the inhabitants—Palermitans and resident English, who fraternize even more than at Rome—it is probable that for American travellers Palermo would soon become a favorite resort. The steamers come from Naples to Palermo in twelve hours. You go on board at Naples about six, dine well, sleep comfortably, and wake up in the harbor of Palermo in time to land and breakfast; the conductor of the hotel that you may have chosen coming on board to take you and your luggage off without any trouble or fatigue. During the last three months this service has considerably improved, while the railway service is, if slow, sure. Those who dislike a sea voyage even of twelve hours, by going up to Reggio, Calabria, from Naples, can cross over to Messina in an hour, and thence go by express to Palermo, via Catania, a city well worth a visit if only to get a perfect view of Etna, now snow-crowned and verdure-clad. Taking train at half-past two, you arrive in Palermo at nine, without once changing carriages.

Public security is perfect in the city, where you are not pestered with beggars, and where the streets are clean and well lighted, and the theatres—from the magnificent Politeamo, or Grand Garibaldi Theatre, where all the best operas are performed, to the little Garibaldi Theatre, where the famous Mafiusi are now represented—equal to any on the Continent. There is no better way of getting a general idea of Palermo and the Golden Shell than to ascend the tower of the Exposition, enter the elegant elevator, and in a brief minute you reach the platform, forty metres above the level of the gardens, and feast your eyes on a panorama unrivalled in the world. Palermo, nestled in her shell of green and gold, girt by valleys, sheltered by mountains mirrored in the azure sea, canopied by her sunlit sky, appears in all her splendor, her gentle fascinating beauty. Even the rugged, massive Monte Pellegrino presents its kindest aspect; verdant slopes, stretches of cornland, pine trees, and orange groves, with villas sprinkled in their shelter—there the tip of Monte Cuccia, here Monreale; in the plain and on the slopes of Montepellegrino and Billiemi the villages of Mondello, Partanna, Pallavicino in their olive groves and lemon terraces. The port below is crowded with shipping, flags of every nation floating in the breeze. In front, the boundless sea stretches to the horizon, and on the right Cape Zaffarano rises a very sapphire from the waves. Here again, Bagheria on the heights, Ficarazzi, whose fertile surroundings

you will admire every time you take the train along the north of the island, and there isolated and immortal Gibilrossa, echoing still Garibaldi's exulting words to Bixio: "Nino! Tomorrow in Palermo!"

Looking down on the Palermo that the Duce entered on that morrow and rescued, you have the whole building of the Exposition at your feet, with its cupolas and towers, its gardens and fountains, the huge stone pines, the Abyssinian village and Russian mountains, and you feel that it is time to descend and see the treasures that the great galleries and separate edifices contain. There are plenty of plans of and guides to the Exposition, but, alas! as yet no catalogue save for the art and sculpture galleries; but as you enter by the chief ingress to the magnificent *Sala delle feste*, which is used as a ball-room or concert-hall or skating-rink, as the case may be, you can select any one of the twelve divisions which are subdivided into sixty-five classes and again into 173 categories. Foreigners generally make at once for the Gallery of Monumental Sicily, which is a novelty as far as Italy is concerned. This gallery is devoted to models of the ancient monuments of the island; to fragments, facsimiles, designs, pictures, and plans thereof. One of the most admirable is the Temple of Segesta, that monument of Greek art which forms such a notable feature in the landscape as you stand on the Pianto dei Romani, retracing the battlefield of the not less wonderful victory of Calatafimi. The temple is roofless, its thirty-six columns intact but incomplete, for the inhabitants of Segesta never finished their temple, owing, some say, to the invasion of the Carthaginians, 409 B. C.; later, to the sack of the city by Agathocles, 307 B. C., when the city was almost destroyed, but the temple spared. Of the theatre there is only a splendid photograph. Another interesting model is that of the Arabo-Byzantine Castle of Salemi, where Garibaldi, on the 12th of May, 1860, planted the Italian tricolor; and there is the Porta di Garibaldi through which he entered Marsala. One of the Gigantes from the great temple of Jupiter at Girgenti is erect, showing its original function as column to support the roof of the temple. The sepulchre of Antonino Grignano at the Carmine of Marsala, two capitals from the Duomo of Cefalu, the tribune of Gagini in the Church of S. Maria in Nicosia, and the baptismal fount of the Duomo, are among the treasures represented. A visit to the Monumental Gallery will assuredly inspire travellers to see the monuments in their original homes.

Near to this gallery is the Sala dei Ricordi Patria, not as complete as that of Turin, perhaps, but affording a perfect history of Sicilian revolutionary history and the numberless failures resulting in the final success; the portraits of martyrs and heroes, the chains they wore, the tattered flags, the red shirts pierced with bullets or torn by bayonets, and (a relic that is shameful to behold) the *bersagliere* rifle-ball that pierced Garibaldi's foot on the Bitter Mount, laming the Liberator for life. Here the student of Italian may pass hours with delight, for there is a perfect library of revolutionary lore, pamphlets, proclamations of the committees, popular songs in vernacular, while the curtain in the background is that very same one painted on the 28th of May, 1860—representing Garibaldi, calm and beautiful, giving his orders to the officers by the side of the fountain (*pretoria*) while the bombs were falling right and left—which has served as the *sipario* of the Garibaldi Theatre, the delight of the Picciotti and red shirts then as now. Students of popular customs, traditions, costumes, and superstitions will delight in the ethnographic exposition arranged with infinite care, intelligence, and expense by the genial patriotic folk-lorist, Prof. Luigi Pitrè, a doctor who lives among the people, author of the 'Library of Popular Traditions in Sicily,' 'The Sicilian Vespers according to Popular Tradition,' 'Popular Songs,' etc., etc. In the centre of the room is the *caretu*, the common cart so characteristic of every Sicilian city, painted with the history of the troubadours, or of Garibaldian battles, or of saints and martyrs, Madonnas and pagan gods. The mule, with its splendid harness and trappings, was carefully prepared in the University of Palermo. There is the *coffa*, or basket used for pressing the grapes; all the terracotta utensils, some really beautiful, most curious *gottu*, the drinking-glasses of the peasants, and costumes innumerable. Two from the Piana dei Greci are gorgeous in silk and gold, the *piddèmi*, the common dress of the women, and the ordinary peasant costume of the men about the country of Scicli and Modica, where, by the way, the peasants still live chiefly in grottoes hewn in the rock—palatial residences if compared with the caves and cellars of Caltanissetta. The collection of amulets or charms against the evil eye, accidents on land and on sea, against convulsions in children, to secure easy teething, etc., is very curious. Significant is the collection of knives, long and slender, some opening suddenly by merely throwing out the hand, others by touching a spring—formidable all; such as, if it were possible to sequestrate at one fell swoop, would vastly diminish the woundings and murders in the mining districts. There is a formidable *pecoraio*, or goatherd, dressed in black goat-skin trousers and white kid jacket—another class too apt to use the fatal knife to defend their own flocks or to steal those of their neighbors. But they serve this class to better purpose also, for to the *vistiamari*, herdsmen in general, *i.e.*, of cattle, pigs, goats, and sheep, belongs an exquisite collection of musical instruments—the *zufolo*, the *piva*, and the *nacchere*—which they manufacture themselves in their long solitary hours, learning the songs and tunes from their fathers and transmitting them to their children. They are famous, too, for their sculptures and etching. A bit of wood and a heated needle, and your herdsman or boy designs exquisite figures and arabesques. A *zufolo* work of Giuseppe Navarra, some peasant unknown to fame, is a perfect art treasure. With his knife, a piece of wood, or the horn of his cattle, he forms his drinking-cups, his knives and forks, his presents to his betrothed of needle cases, purse, vase for holy water—for himself snuffbox, flasks, saltcellars, etc. Some of the figures graven on the pumpkin bowls, wine and water flasks are really exquisite, as are some of the figures and arabesques of the *pilligrinu* flasks of terracotta. The bottoms of the bottles and glasses of horn are made of cork and perfectly fitted—dovetailed, as the peasants use neither glue nor nails, still less screws. The rapidity with which they work is remarkable: they seem to work always. Sitting, watching, or walking with their flocks, you see them graving on a cross (the crucifix is one of their favorite productions); when you stop them on the mountain to speak to them, they answer, but do not cease from their work. And even as their ornamental objects, so the tables, chairs, and peculiar stools of their own manufacture. Among the specimens is a wonderful cow collar whereon are graven the figures of Garibaldi and Victor Emanuel with groups of angels bearing tricolor wreaths and crowns; the Castle of Salemi, with the national banner floating, and the battlefield of Calatafimi, with the Bourbons in full flight. This is the work of a peasant, Giuseppe Sala of Santa Ninfa, wrought by him after his liberation from the galleys of Favignano in 1860. The muleteers are also artists in their own line. These *Burdunari* make the harness and trappings of their mules out of pieces of cloth, velvet and silk of divers colors, working in arabesques figures of animals with exquisite taste.

Curiously characteristic of the Sicilian peasant is the wall dedicated to the votive offerings, to the pictures of miracles performed and recorded in fulfilment of the vow made in the hour of peril. There is a rough picture of the battle of Dogali—peaks crowned with Abyssinians, the Italians fighting and falling on the slopes; a boat sailing in the clouds contains the *anime dei decollati*, the popular belief in the efficacy of the prayers of "beheaded victims" being general. A soldier of Dogali in the thickest of the fight made a vow that he would present an offering to their church if they brought him safely out of the battle; he was one of the few who did escape, and this picture is his ex-voto, and his name is signed "Girimina Giovanni of the Twentieth Infantry Regiment, January 26, 1887." Another, dedicated to the same "souls," bears the name of a *picciotto* saved by their intercession from the hoofs of the Bourbon soldiery. Others are dedicated, "Viva Maria Santissima dei Miracoli."

Side by side with these expressions of the religious sentiments of the populace are their favorite theatres of marionettes, showing the feats of "Orlando and Rinaldo in Babylon," "The Death of Morgante." Their favorite books are all on these subjects. There are popular editions as late as 1887 of the 'History of the Paladins of France from King Pepin up to the battle of Roncesvalles,' "this being the sequel to the death of Carlo Magno." Above the glass case containing the earliest editions are the signs most in use in the country: "Bonu vinu senza viulinu" (Good wine without poison—the *u* is always substituted for the *o* in popular lingo), "Casa grande di loeri con acqua corrente" (A big house to let with running water—a great desideratum in Sicily). Even of this interesting collection there is no catalogue, but the diligent Pitrè is preparing one, and it will form one of the chief posts of interest for the lovers of folk-lore and popular manners and customs.

Another distinctive feature of Sicily is the section devoted to mines and mining operations. The able head of the College of Mining Directors has actually excavated sufficient soil to create a mine where you descend and see all the operations and material, while on the walls and tables are charts and plans of the chief mines, models of the machinery used for the extraction of the mineral, its fusion by the various processes, etc. Here, too, you have sulphur in the rough, refined and purified, with pictures of the pits (but not of the *carusi!*). So for the marbles in which Sicily abounds.

Highly satisfactory is the department devoted to the work done in the various charitable and industrial schools, especially those of the orphan asylum of Naples, "Ecco Homo," where the lace work in imitation of every stitch known is perfect. The work of the blind school "Prince of Naples," directed by Maruscelli, is so varied and perfect that if I had not often seen it done there, I should doubt the fact of the workers being blind. Casanova's Insti-

tute for the street Arabs of Naples makes a capital figure. The works in bronze and silver, the ebony and ivory cabinets, the exquisite jewelry and cameos, besides some excellent articles of furniture, agricultural implements, show the progress made by the boys who live at home and attend the schools only during the day. The artistic and industrial schools of Sicily also show great progress, while the work of the prisoners in the penitentiaries and reformatories is only too multiform and abundant. "See," said a workingman who was taking me over some of the industrial sections, "how the prison work undersells us. That bed in iron and gilt-bronze is sold at 150 lire; it can't be turned out by an honest craftsman for 250 lire, and so on to the end of the chapter. The prisoners are well housed, fairly fed and clothed; we starve in hovels, often don't get a decent meal a day, are at times a week or more without work, so that the temptation presents itself to commit some crime and be taken in and cared for!" Of all questions the social question is the most complicated, and every day is growing more so. "Of what use is it to produce and perfect our productions?" said a large wine-grower and maker. "Look at the new tariffs now sanctioned in France: the duties on the fifteen principal articles of Italian importation into France are increased 800 per cent. on the old general tariff, 600 per cent. on the conventional tariff, and many of these articles are the chief products of Sicily. Even their pistache, used for ices and the preparation of brawn and pork, is raised 900 per cent. without any apparent motive, as the pistachio nut does not grow in France." "And now," said another proprietor, "the manufacturers of the north of Italy are going to sacrifice us southerners, whose only resource is agriculture, in the negotiations with Switzerland."

Such lamentations dampen delight in the manifest progress which this exhibition demonstrates, yet the fact remains, and progress is progress after all. Alas that space compels me to close without a word on Florio's pavilion, where, besides the grand show of wines and wine casks, the whole history and mystery of tunny fisheries is revealed—a mimic fishery modelled on the gigantic *tonnara* of Favignana occupying half the room, the basin containing the various departments, the nets, the very fish. Every operation is shown, while the actual tunny is in tin boxes of a few ounces or fifty kilos containing the delicate morsels which are now sold at such low prices as to form one of the staple articles of food all over Italy. But Florio, the father of Sicilian commerce, stands alone and must be treated with special honor.

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

"PRISONS OF AIR."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For the first time in my life I am compelled to remonstrate against a criticism. As a rationalist, not as an author, I must ask of your justice relief from an implication, in your paragraph concerning 'Prisons of Air,' that it sanctions notions of "dooms and weirds." The book contains no "woful doom of the Redleghs extending through nine generations in fulfilment of a gypsy's prophecy." The doom is transmitted solely by a youth's weakness in crediting a fortune-teller's silly prediction, which gradually saps his courage. My serious study of the operation of a trivial superstition on a strong character, and its far-reaching results, being ignored, I am placed by your authority with those who believe, or cater to, the vulgar superstitions which I have shown based on nothing, but turned by credulity into prisons.

Moncure D. Conway.

New York, March 3, 1892.

[Our account was wholly with Mr. Con way as author. Readers of his book must judge between us.—Ed. Nation.]

WITCHCRAFT, ETC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As was to be expected, comments unfavorable to us, as a nation, have been elicited from the British press by Dr. Buckley's revelation that "witchcraft is, at the present time, believed in by a majority of the citizens of the United States." Yet who can maintain, with the least well-grounded positiveness, that any particular section of Christendom has a distinguishable advantage over its other sections, as regards freedom from credulity? Here in England, what an old author calls mateologues are, certainly, full as numerous as almost anywhere else. Having lived for five and twenty years in the country, during which time I have mixed freely with rustics of all classes, I have come to doubt seriously whether the people about me are not quite as much enslaved to silly beliefs as the gratuitously commiserated idolaters with whom I rubbed shoulders so long in the East. Parenthetically, I also doubt whether, in all points of honesty, in humanity, and in right conduct generally, there is a pin to choose between the two social wholes.

As to London, the existence of the Thirteen Club is, assuredly, significant. But, more especially, one is to take account of the wide diffusion, in Great Britain, of such inanities and insanities as spiritualism and theosophy, and of the legion who put faith in astrological almanacs, dream-books, ghosts, omens, charms, the evil eye, and what not of like character.

I have actually known an old lady, the wife of a General in the Army, who would never venture out for a day's shopping in case she saw anything in "Zadkiel" seeming to indicate that she had better stay at home. Again, a farmer near by lately confessed, in court, that he had entrusted five sovereigns to a gypsy, on her engaging to convert them into five hundred, to be found under a specified stone. Once more, only three miles from me, an ancient widow, decrepit and imbecile, recently fell under the suspicion of being a witch, and barely escaped with her life from an infuriated mob. A baby died suddenly; the crone had, shortly before, been heard to mutter something angrily to the baby's mother, who had insulted her; and the opinion, once expressed, was forthwith popularly accepted, that she had caused the death of the little one by incantations. Analogous local instances of childish folly, worthy of the darkest ages, that have fallen under my observation, I could produce in abundance. But I shall content myself with mentioning two.

One autumn I went to a cottage-woman to buy some honey. On her telling me that she had none, I inquired whether she had given up keeping bees. She replied that she had, and went on to give the reason. When her bees last swarmed, a hive of them alighted on the dead bough of a tree; and her husband died a few months later. It was the wicked behavior of the bees that killed him; and she had served the wretches in kind. I knew that she had six or eight hives; and why did she do away with all? She expressed her surprise at so thoughtless a question. Was not it likely that, if she had spared any of the bees, they might have taken it into their malicious heads to send her to join her husband? It weighed nothing, with her, that, when he died, he was well on past seventy, in spite of heart disease, and though, for half a century, he had governed his practice as if he thought the chief end of man was the consumption of gin and beer.

I now pass to a gentleman of liberal education, of more than ordinary ability in his profession, and conspicuously religious. Conversing with him, one day, I was led, by something, to remark that, by good fortune, I grew up among persons wholly untainted with superstition, adding that I was, myself, similarly untainted. "But are you quite certain," he asked, "that you have nothing of what you so lightly call superstition?" A repeated "quite certain" drew from my interlocutor the demand, addressed with a searching look, "Do you mean to say you would plant ivy?" "Why," I replied, "eight years ago I planted ivy all along one side of this house, and already it has climbed some fifteen feet." "Well," returned my ultrafidian friend, "nothing could induce me to do as you have done. If I were to plant ivy, I am confident that I should soon after hear of the death of some relative or friend." Argument being, under the circumstances, manifestly in vain, I did not waste a word in attempting it. An English gentleman may, then, still be such that, in a brain well furnished with languages, living and dead, and half a dozen ologies besides, he has a corner for the most fatuous of absurdities.

In somewhat closer connexion with the subject of witchcraft, I come to the seventy-second Canon of the Church of England, which, as will be seen, with true charity, or false, constructively exempts Ahriman and his imps from all ecclesiastical molestation save episcopal. The Canon, under the sanction of which, it may be noted, recourse has been had to exorcism within the last hundred years, is headed, "Ministers not . . . to exorcise but by authority," and is, in part, as follows:

"No Minister or Ministers shall, without the licence and direction of the Bishop of the diocese first obtained, and had under his hand and seal, . . . attempt, upon any pretence whatsoever, either of possession or obsession, by fasting and prayer, to cast out any Devil or Devils, under pain of the imputation of imposture or cosenage, and deposition from the ministry."

By this Canon, which is still unrepealed, the "discerning of spirits," at least in one sense, is confined to Bishops. Theologians may be able to account for this restriction; and to them the justification of it must be remitted. It is explicit, however, that the faculty of infallibly distinguishing the presence of an emissary of Satan is an exclusive privilege of the episcopally consecrated. But, since these sacrosanctities are credited, by the anointed insight of James I., with having at their command the most potent of specifics for the abounding diabolism of their Christian fellow-subjects, why, in the interest of the community, do they and their subordinates neglect to resort to its employment?

Your obedient servant, F. H.

Marlesford, England, Feb. 22, 1892.

PSYCHOLOGY IN AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Recent discussion in the *Nation* concerning science in America leads me to call attention to the part taken by this country in the advance in psychology. The newly issued works by Prof. James are the most important contributions to psychology since the publication of Prof. Wundt's 'Physiologische Psychologie' in 1874. The two volumes by Prof. Ladd on 'Physiological Psychology' are standard works in England as well as here. The text-books by Murray, Dewey and Baldwin are (with perhaps the exception of that by Sully) the best recently written in English. The *American Journal of Psychology* was the first special journal of the kind, and the only one until the establishment, two years ago, of the *Zeitschrift für Psychologie*. There are four philosophical journals published in America, all of which give much space to psychology. *Mind* is the only philosophical journal published in Great Britain, and it has been largely supported by American contributions. The retiring editor, Prof. Robertson, wrote in his valedictory last October: "The later volumes of *Mind* have included a good proportion of experimental research; but it can hardly have escaped attention that it has been contributed mostly from without, by American hands—the same hands that have been or are now organizing psychological laboratories over all the breadth of their own land."

It is a fact that our leading colleges and universities have psychological laboratories fitted up both for research and for instruction. The first courses of psychological instruction in which students worked in a laboratory (as in chemistry or biology) were given in America. The first professorships of psychology, distinguished from philosophy, were established in American universities, and there are now a large number of these. Psychology is a required study in most of our colleges, and advanced elective courses are usually offered. These courses are followed by many students and with interest. Recently at the University of Cambridge, with over 3,000 students, there were only three attending courses in psychology, and one of these was an American. At Oxford the study of psychology seemed to stop with Aristotle. The general interest in psychology in this country is shown by the numerous articles in the popular journals and by well-attended lectures. This winter at Columbia College Prof. James addressed an audience of perhaps 500, and Prof. Thompson, on a subject so technical as "Materialism and the Physiology of the Nervous System," had an audience of perhaps 200. This would scarcely occur in any foreign city.

America has during the past ten years contributed more to pyschology than any country except Germany, and it is rivalling Germany. I think, indeed, that America does its fair share of work in physics and biology, and more than its share in political economy and sociology. Psychology was the last philosophic discipline to become a natural science. It was needful that physics should prepare the way for biology, and biology for psychology. During the first part of this century the most important scientific advances were made by physics, afterwards the greatest progress was made in biology; now it seems likely that the mental and social sciences will become leading. In view of this, the important part taken by America in the advancement of these science sseems significant.—Yours truly,

J. McK. Cattell.

Columbia College, N. Y., March 8, 1892.

EXPERIMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your review of Prof. Lombroso's book, 'The Man of Genius,' in the *Nation* of February 25, shows, I think, that his method of inquiry is of very little value. His first induction (in reference to the connection between genius and stature) more especially seems open to various objections, and though much labor must have been bestowed upon the subject, how many great names are omitted, and how many obscure names are brought in seemingly because some account of stature was accessible! Your statement of the case at once brought to mind Lotze, who was a remarkably small man, and who, in his lectures on psychology, would mention as a notable fact that excellence in mental powers, also culture and refinement, were usually accompanied by smallness of stature. His listeners smiled, perhaps, and the small men in the audience felt "big" for the time being; but no further signs of mirth were perceptible, the Professor being much honored.

Of all the subjects of study concerning our own nature there is none that we would pursue more eagerly, if some sort of success seemed attainable, than the nature of the human mind, its forces, aptitudes, capabilities, and the conditions favoring their development. But it must be confessed that all this study is still in its infancy, and that only lately some attempts are being made at an experimental psychology. We were wont to treat psychology about as Seneca treats physics in his 'Naturales Quaestiones,' namely, by philosophizing about it. And this method, indeed, has its advantages, for the less we know of a thing, the easier it is to philosophize about it; the generalities flow more easily when not hampered by awkward facts, and these fine generalities are just indefinite enough to allow each reader to accommodate his own notions to the author's learned-sounding phrases.

The most valuable power of a scientific mind is the power to draw correct inferences from given premises, and scientific geniuses are superior to other minds chiefly in this logical power. Let us here make a useful distinction. He who can see a remote and difficult inference is *tiefsinnig* (deep); whereas he who perceives all the premises that must be taken into ac count as bearing upon the conclusion in question, is *scharfsinnig* (acute). Now it is true that no measurements of judgment exist, and it seems tacitly understood that they cannot be made. Nevertheless, judgment is that faculty which more readily than any other lends itself to grading, if not to numerical measurement. The problems often given in the text-books of logic suggest something of the kind. It must be possible to arrange sets of questions that can serve to test the judgment of people; and I may add that I have gradually collected a number of such questions which I have employed with this result, that by repeated trials their relative difficulty was pretty well ascertained and the questions could be arranged accordingly in a rising scale. If any one should here interpose the question, But whom do you find willing thus to have his measure taken at the risk of being put down as a dunce in the first or second degree? the answer is that young people in the class-room commonly enjoy the sport very much. Of course they are not told about the grading of the questions.

One of the earliest questions I used arose out of the following incident, of which I have personal knowledge. In a small town in Illinois a boy was bitten by a dog and it was feared that the dog was mad and would soon show signs of hydrophobia. A lively discussion arose. It was said by some that the dog must be killed, for if the dog got the hydrophobia, so would the boy. "Useless," said others; "the killing of the dog could do the boy no good after he has been bitten." "Of course it would," retorted the others, "for it is quite sure that if the dog gets mad, so will the boy." Simple as this thing appears, the village was actually divided into two contending parties, so that finally a deputation of two men was sent to this city to inquire of a renowned surgeon whether or not the dog should be killed. "You had better kill the dog," was the doctor's reply. Now, how great was the percentage of the people in the village unable to arrive at the correct conclusion? Suppose it was 30 per cent., how should this question be graded upon a scale of 10? By a scale of 10 I mean this: imagine all possible questions arranged according to their difficulty into ten degrees, No. 1 being so easy that any adult not an idiot will solve it, and No. 10 so difficult that only the highest intellect will solve it.

Now, before presenting further examples, I must premise an important consideration in the choice of questions. They should be so chosen that the subject-matter is practically equally well known to all concerned, as it was in the above dog incident, the question not hinging upon the nature of the poison or any scientific matter. I will now select the following example: I have two spiral springs similar to those used upon the trucks of railway-cars. I place the two springs upon the floor side by side, and, putting weights upon them, find that each spring is pressed all the way down by a weight of 100 pounds. Now I place the one spring on the top of the other and again apply weights. The question is what weight will press *both* springs all the way down. Simple as the solution may seem to many, the question is not answered correctly by more than 40 per cent., and is analyzed correctly by less than 20 per cent., according to a number of trials made.

Let me present another example. We have a steam-boiler filled with cold water. The boiler is tightly closed, but has a pipe fitted in, which is also filled with water communicating freely with the water in the boiler. This pipe at the other end is connected with a force-pump. We work the pump and produce a certain pressure in the boiler. Now, while the pressure lasts, we close a valve between the boiler and the pump. What now about the pressure in the boiler? Is it still there or not? This question is answered by a considerably smaller number than the one about the two springs. But upon substituting a rubber bag for the iron boiler, it becomes at once very much easier.

Here is a neat little question: A life-insurance agent from one of the larger towns of Illinois caught many people of my acquaintance in one of the smaller towns by the following simple talk: Our company, said he, is a mutual company and it has about ten times as many members as any other company. The consequence is, that when a member dies and an assessment has to be made to pay the loss, there falls to each of the surviving members a much smaller sum to be paid than would be the case in a smaller company.

These few examples will suffice to show the method of procedure. Now it would be desirable to bring together more material than can be collected by one person. If several persons who will take an interest in the matter

would join, there might be made a valuable collection.

One remark as to those persons who are most apt to solve these logical questions. It is not the scholars commonly called "quick," nor is it the slow, nor those who excel in arithmetic or algebra. But a rule that seldom fails is this, that a scholar who is good in geometry will prove good also in all sorts of logical questions, so that observation agrees with what we should expect according to Plato.

Respectfully, WERNER A. STILLE.

ST. LOUIS, March 2, 1892.

ARMY OFFICERS FOR INDIAN AGENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of the frequent allusions to the subject in and out of Congress, might it not be well to diffuse generally the information that the President may, under section 2062, Revised Statutes, detail an army officer to execute the duties of Indian agent whenever it may seem expedient to the chief Executive? It may, or may not, be advisable to transfer the Indian Bureau to the War Department. The immediate management and control of all Indians may be transferred to army officers without necessity for any legislation, and such control would, in the opinion of many wise men, be an unmixed blessing to all concerned—saving and except, possibly, the army officers.

An opinion is very prevalent that some new laws are required before a change can be made in the present methods.

Very respectfully, S. A.

AMILTON, O., March 3, 1892.

GERRY, NOT MORTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your review of Mr. Hale's so-called 'Story of Massachusetts' is on the whole so commendable that it is sad to see it conclude with so serious a lapse as the transfer to Governor Morton and some nameless Whig clergyman of the racy old anecdote of the Federalist Parson Osgood of Medford, and the first Thanksgiving Proclamation of Elbridge Gerry, the Jeffersonian Governor. Of course errors about matters of oral tradition are to be dealt with leniently, but they ought to be pointed out before they crystallize into the "lies agreed upon" which Mr. Wendell Phillips says constitute what we call history. *

CAMBRIDGE, March 8, 1892.

Notes.

MARBOT'S Memoirs are to be published in English by the Messrs. Longman, and at once.

It is said that M. Alfred Maury, who died in Paris on the 12th of February, has left behind him for publication some memoirs of more than ordinary interest. M. Maury was some time director of the National Archives and librarian of the Tuileries, and had been a member of the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-lettres since 1857. He was one of the most erudite scholars of our time, a doctor in letters, of law, of mathematical sciences, and interested in all knowledge. It was he who said of modern languages that the first ten gave a student some trouble, but that afterwards it was all plain sailing. He was a great teller of stories literary and political.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce 'A Manual of Musical History,' by James E. Matthews, with illustrations; an illustrated 'Pronouncing Handbook Dictionary'; 'The Art of Golf,' by Sir W. G. Simpson; and 'Earth-Burial and Cremation,' by Augustus G. Cobb.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have in press 'A Day at Laguerre's, and Other Days,' sketches by F. Hopkinson Smith; 'The Unseen Friend,' by Lucy Larcom; 'San Salvador,' by Mary Agnes Tincker; 'A Fellowe and his Wife,' by Blanche Willis Howard and William Sharp; and 'Favorite Flies and Their History,' an illustrated book for anglers by Mary Orvis Marbury.

A selection of ten sermons made by the late Mr. Spurgeon will be issued by E. P. Dutton & Co. under the title, 'Messages and Multitudes.'

Frederick Warne & Co. will add to their "Chandos Classics" Mme. D'Arblay's Diary and Letters, annotated, and prefaced by Macaulay's essay.

Mrs. Sutherland Orr's compact 'Handbook to the Works of Robert Browning' (London: Geo. Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan) has reached a sixth edition—the second since the poet's death. Its chief distinction from its immediate predecessors lies in the fact that the references have been conformed to the latest issue of Browning's works, of which the volume closes with a chronological bibliography and an alphabetical list. There can hardly be any need of another revision of this conscientious performance.

The latest volume in the companionable little "Stott Library" (Macmillan) is Wordsworth's Lyrics and Sonnets edited by Clement King Shorter. It bears on the title-page a vignette of the poet, and shows Dove Cottage as a frontispiece. A brief Wordsworth chronology is another feature, with a list of the significant editions of his works, and mention of his biographers, editors, and critics. Mr. Shorter would have excluded 6 of the 164 poems from Matthew Arnold's selection, and he admits to his own several which Arnold's taste rejected, and is able, by expiration of copyright, to make use of Wordsworth's later "improvements" (rightly or otherwise so called). His arrangement is his own and is reasonable; the sonnets are not massed except when related among themselves in point of subject or of time. To each poem its date is affixed.

Mr. Keltie adds twenty pages to his 'Statesman's Year-book' for 1892 (Macmillan), partly to be accounted for by two new introductory tables, viz., of the World's Money and the Forest Area of Europe. For his tables he borrows from Wagner and Supan's 'Bevölkerung der Erde' the estimated population of the earth in comparison with Mr. Ravenstein's, the two agreeing within twelve millions. New to this edition are also four maps, two of which (political Africa and the Pamir frontier) relate to important international questions. The present volume is further enriched by the censuses of the leading countries of the world.

Prof. George Bruce Halsted, whose valuable translation of Lobatchevsky's 'Non-Euclidian Geometry' we noticed the other day, has now published a translation of Bolyai's celebrated work on the same subject. The translator says in his introduction: "This strange Hungarian flower was saved for the world, after more than thirty-five years of oblivion, by the rare erudition of Prof. Richard Baltzer. In the second edition of his 'Elemente der Mathematik,' in 1867, Dr. Baltzer called attention to this remaking of geometry, and the name Bolyai was at last given its place in the history of science. Before that, the father, Wolfgang Bolyai, seems to have been the only person who really appreciated the work of his son John Bolyai." We are told that "Bolyai, when in garrison with cavalry officers, was challenged by thirteen of them at once. He accepted all, stipulating only that between each two successive duels he might play a bit on his violin. He was victor thirteen times." He left a manuscript of a thousand pages which has never been examined by a competent mathematician. The work now translated will be seen by most of those who are specially interested in the subject, for the first time. It is historically of the deepest interest, but, as an introduction to the subject, is inferior to the work of Lobatchevsky. Prof. Halsted's publication confers, however, an even greater boon upon mathematicians than his other translation.

A welcome contribution to the history of North German architecture is 'Das Mittelalterliche Riga,' written by W. Neumann and issued by the Historical and Antiquarian Society of the Russian Baltic provinces. It is a folio volume with frontispiece, twenty-six plates, and numerous woodcuts, and costs twenty marks. It is printed by Julius Springer in Berlin.

The manual of 'The Roman and Italic Printing Types in the Printing House of Theodore L. De Vinne & Co.' not only answers its end of displaying the typographical resources of the leading establishment in this city, including the presswork (here put to the test by numerous illuminated initial letters in many tints), but, by its preliminary discourse to the would-be bookmaker, and by its happy selections, conveys a great deal of information, practical and bibliolatrous. It is, in fact, a readable book.

From Longmans, Green & Co. we have the first number of a new quarterly, the *Investor's Review*, of which the purpose is well indicated by its title, though one must go further than the cover to get an idea of its able and vigorous editing. The objects of the magazine are full and frank discussion of current questions of finance, analysis of company balance-sheets, and classification of public securities—all done in the interests of buyers of securities, not of sellers. To prevent any suspicion of bias in favor of the latter, the editor, Mr. A. J. Wilson, announces that no financial advertisement of any kind will be received; and explains the somewhat high price of the *Review*—$6 a year—by the fact that he thus cuts himself off from an important source of income. We should say that it would be cheap at any price to the English investor, since it would prevent him from again blindly throwing away his savings in the Argentine Republic and elsewhere. We have nowhere seen a more trenchant exposure of the crazy and criminal methods of Argentine finance than that in this first number, which also has noteworthy articles on "Spain and her Debts," "Mr. Goschen's Currency Proposals," with many instructive examinations of mining companies, brewing corporations, etc.

Liebhaberkünste is the title of a new bimonthly journal of decorative art, the first number of which has just been issued by R. Oldenbourg (Munich and Leipzig). It is rich in illustrations and patterns for embroidery and all sorts of ornamental work on wood and porcelain, and promises to furnish the newest information on these subjects. The subscription price is three marks quarterly.

The Cambridge *Tribune* published a "Lowell memorial number" on February 20. This contains the latest portrait of Mr. Lowell, together with a number of views of Elmwood, both within and without the house, and por-

traits of the poet's father and of his first wife. The text of the number is by various hands, and is of various degrees of interest and value. Perhaps some of the brief sketches signed by names unknown beyond the limits of Cambridge have as much biographical freshness as any of the rest. Prof. Norton's contribution, however, may be excepted from this remark. He says, we observe, of the rough draught of Lowell's "An Indian Summer Reverie," that it contains "some verses which, so far as I know, have never been printed, but which . . . deserve to be known, and are sure to be prized alike for their personal and local interest:

"'Propt on the marsh (a dwelling now) I see
The humble school-house of my A B C,' etc."

The greater part of these verses appeared in the introduction to the first series of the "Biglow Papers."

A late number of the Levant *Herald* gives some account of a ceremony and custom which, though they appear to be of yearly recurrence in the Holy Anatolian Church, may yet be little known to Western ritualists. On the Feast of the Epiphany, after divine service, the clergy, accompanied by the congregation, leave the church and proceed to the shore of the Bosphorus, where, after certain prayers, a silver cross is thrown into the water, symbolizing the Baptism of Christ. Hardly has the cross disappeared in the sea when a crowd of divers, who have held themselves ready, plunge in after it, and usually, after a brief scramble, some one of them brings it up. The lucky diver who secures it has the right to keep it throughout the day, and goes about with a companion or two through the town, showing it, and receiving in return the coppers of the faithful. We believe that there is nothing like this ceremony in the West, though the wedding of the Adriatic by the doges, and the feeing of the Christmas waits and the customs of boxing-day in England, seem to present some points of approach to it.

Appalachia for January (Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.) has an article on the Middlesex Fells, with a new map of that romantic region, which wise laws and public spirit seem likely to secure as an ultimate addition to the metropolitan park system, already without a peer in this country, if in any. And as the winter is passing, we may as well repair an omission to speak of the July number, with its topographical map of Mt. Monadnock, and its beautiful view of the San Antonio Mountain in Southern California.

Two articles in the *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for February give a permanent value to the number. One is Gen. A. W. Greely's observations on Bering's first voyage, in connection with its cartography, illustrated by a reproduction of De l'Isle's *Carte Générale* of 1752. This paper usefully supplements Mr. W. H. Dall's studies concerning the same navigator, and gives copious extracts from the itinerary of a Russian officer familiar with both Bering and De l'Isle. The other paper, by Israel C. Russell, has to do with the height and position of Mt. St. Elias, which is claimed as United States territory and "practically a corner monument of our national domain."

The prenasal fossa is discussed by Dr. Thomas Dwight, Parkman Professor at Harvard, in an eight-page reprint from the February number of the *American Journal of the Medical Sciences*. Skulls exhibiting the feature in question are described and figured, and it is shown to occur only in man and the seal, a distinction being made between the fossa and the gutter (occupying a similar position) in the apes and other mammals. The fossa is of frequent occurrence in the Pacific islands, and especially so in Java. In a locality in Bavaria, Ebrach, it is said to reach a percentage of thirty-two. To the author it is indicative of lowness of race. Absent in the anthropoids, he says, it cannot be due to reversion or atavism, and its presence in animals so far apart as men and seals cannot be accounted for by similarity of external conditions. He further says: "The occurrence of the fossa prenasalis in man and seal implies a relation between distant animals other than that of heredity. It must be due to a law which we can grasp but vaguely, resting on a common plan, and, to some extent, on common tendencies." We should prefer to account for the occurrence of the fossa in the two cases by means of common tendencies resulting from similarity in effort and usage, rather than by supposing the existence of a law not at present recognized; and we should expect the peoples in which the fossa appears to have possessed habits—possibly of grasping, holding, or tearing with the front teeth—in a measure similar to some obtaining among the seals.

The Boston Museum of Fine Arts is exhibiting the Hermes of Praxiteles and the Venus Genetrix, colored by Joseph Lindon Smith in the light of our archæological knowledge and of his own instinct as a painter. An explanation of this experiment, by Mr. Edward Robinson, Curator of Classical Antiquities in the same institution, has been published by the Museum and will be found to possess exceptional interest.

Westermann & Co. send us the second part of Vogel's grand map of the German Empire published by Perthes at Gotha. Its two plates represent Schleswig and the Strassburg section, stretching east and west from Metz to Mannheim.

At the February meeting of the Royal Geographical Society, Mr. J. Theodore Bent gave an account of his explorations among the ruins in Mashonaland, South Africa. Those known as the Zimbabwe are the most extensive, covering a vast area of which the centre is a circular building "which is a perfect specimen of an ancient phallic temple," with massive walls, monoliths, three entrances, and "marvellous interior arrangements." Upon a hill above it was a fortress of extraordinary strength, within which was another temple with an altar built of small granite blocks; near this were found quantities of soapstone *phalli*. Its semicircular outer wall was decorated with pedestals five or six feet high, bearing carved birds resembling a vulture. Buried in the earth were iron bells, fine barbed copper spearheads, fragments of pottery of excellent glaze and workmanship, pieces of Persian and Celadon china, and soapstone bowls carved with representations of hunting scenes, processions, animals, geometrical patterns, and one inscription. Not far off stood a "gold-smelting furnace made of very hard cement," crucibles of the same material, tools for extracting gold from the furnaces, burnishers, and crushers. There were also heaps of "quartz casings from which the gold-bearing quartz had been extracted prior to crushing." As the ruins are far from any gold reef, it is evident that the people who mined the gold chose this place for their capital because of its peculiar defensive advantages. Who these were is not yet clear, though Mr. Bent does not hesitate to say that they were of Arabian origin. As to the time in which they lived, one thing only is certain, that it was before the days of Mahomet.

"E. S. S." writes to us from Ann Arbor:

"The reference in a recent criticism of Mr. Hale's 'History of Massachusetts' to his principle of not going further than the war of 1812, reminds me of an amusing error that appears annually in the catalogue of the University of Michigan. In the requirements for admission to the course for A.B., one of the items is 'History: the History of the United States as far as the close of the Revolutionary War.' Whether the Faculty perpetuate it as a mild joke, or allow it to remain through oversight, I do not know."

Mr. George William Curtis succeeds James Russell Lowell as honorary Vice-President of the Egypt Exploration Fund. The Rev. Dr. W. C. Winslow will continue to act as honorary Secretary for America, in coöperation with forty-two local secretaries.

—A correspondent writes to us from Oxford:

"The Oxford University Dramatic Society gave on February 24, at the New Theatre, the first of a series of eight performances, 'reviving' the 'Frogs' of Aristophanes. The performance was uncommonly entertaining, although nearly two-fifths of the great original were, for one reason or another, omitted. It was wise to consult the convenience of the Dramatic Society and to dispense with the entertaining scenes with the Maidservant and the Tavernkeeper; it was prudent and perhaps unavoidable that the Contest of the Poets should be curtailed by 200 lines. Although the central point of interest in the play was undoubtedly somewhat shifted by this last omission, the audience was certainly better able to follow the portions given than it would have been to understand the whole scene, which was within the comprehension only of an Athenian public during the few years when the dramas minutely alluded to and parodied were fresh in every one's recollection. Among the characters whose comic proceedings were most enthusiastically applauded was the *Corpse*. In fact, the wild and persistent calls which resulted in the dead man's reappearance gave a farcical climax to the episode which was thoroughly Aristophanic, though not provided for in the text. The lesson in rowing given by *Charon* to the god *Dionysus* borrowed some of its merrymaking zest from familiar scenes upon the Isis and the Cam, and fairly brought down the house, while the rollicking fun in the part of *Xanthias*, as played by Mr. Lyon of Trinity, was positively infectious. A tendency to overdo the burlesque, noticeable in the too copious laughter of *Heracles*, the exaggerated helplessness of *Dionysus*, and elsewhere, had at least the advantage of helping those unfamiliar with the Greek to take the points. The contrast between *Euripides* and *Æschylus* was perhaps not quite the one intended by Aristophanes, but it was well marked and perfectly well grasped by the audience. *Euripides* figured rather too much as the effeminate man, and might indeed have been mistaken for *Agathon*; but the comic travesty of Æschylean song given by Mr. Ponsonby of Balliol—who was *Euripides* after being the *Corpse*—was one of the great successes of the performance. Dr. Hubert Parry's music was uncommonly modern, and yet gave great emphasis to the wonderfully telling contrasts of the play. The funereal march-strains when the *Corpse* was borne in had something of the humor of Mozart; the serious and really beautiful song of the *Mystae* was interrupted by reminiscences of the Boulanger March used to express the political turpitude of *Theramenes*. A similar effect was obtained by the sudden introduction of the 'See-saw' waltz, but the happiest inspiration of them all led Dr. Parry to give his Chorus, successively describing the manner of Euripides and that of Æschylus, first the page's song from Meyerbeer's 'Huguenots,' and then a few most uncompromising bars from Beethoven's ninth symphony. The dancing of the Chorus was most pleasing, having something of the swing peculiar to well-known parts of 'Patience' and 'Pinafore.' The scenery was appropriate, especially the Lake of Acheron, from beneath whose waters the song of the Frogs was heard while three or four frogs' heads emerged rhythmically around the boat of Charon."

—An old contributor writes:

"I had just reread Ritschl's merciless review of Madvig's 'Adversaria,' in which the Danish scholar's false quantities are not spared (Opusc. iii. 164), when I opened a volume of 'Abhandlungen aus dem Gebiet der klassischen Alter-

tumswissenschaft Wilhelm von Christ zum sechzigsten Geburtstage dargebracht,' and began with the 'Carmen Salutatorium' by J. Menrad, who is known as the author of a creditable piece of work on contraction and synizesis in Homer. Where his master Christ studied, I do not know; but many a sexagenarian scholar of Ritschl's school would rather have died at fifty-nine than have lived on to be congratulated in a poem that begins with the portentous blunder *Iam lux ter vĭcies*. To be sure, *vĭcies* is no worse than Madvig's *nātasse* and *păletur*, and Latin verses are an anachronism; but the anachronist should possess and use a *Gradus ad Parnassum*, under penalty of having his verses considered *perparvi valoris*, as a German Latinist wrote the other day."

—Prof. William James has produced an abridgment of his important treatise upon Psychology, with some additional matter for the use of beginners (Henry Holt & Co.). His "natural science" method, which consists of ignoring all general doubt, is carried even further in the briefer than in the fuller work. An epilogue is appended for the further defence of this method, but to no avail. Students of molecular physics presume, for reasons that seem good to them, that certain things are absolutely true of the universe in every part, such as the tridimensionality of space, its infinity, the law of action and reaction, the principle of energy, and the like. These universal truths, as they are held to be, have a basis in experience, but are extended so far beyond the domain of observation as to be fairly termed metaphysical. In many branches of physics it is easy to show that they are near enough true for practical purposes; but in molecular discussions the question of the truth of such things has to be sifted to the bottom, on pain of leaving a grave doubt over the whole subject. In psychology the same thing is far more true. The list of metaphysical positions is longer, and they are far more dubious; so much so that students of psychology have hitherto considered metaphysical discussions as unavoidable. Such discussions have by no means been omitted by physicists, although the present unsatisfactory state of molecular theory is in part owing to the small aptitude of laboratory men for the kind of thinking requisite for the solution of such problems. Prof. James's method practically comes to keeping the most general questions out of the focus of distinct apprehension and thus entrapping himself, or at least the reader, into confident but dangerous and unexamined assumptions. To have pointed these out all along would not have made the book much longer nor seriously harder for the student.

—The horticulturists of Paris were greatly surprised, a few weeks ago, by the display at the Halles of a flower hitherto absolutely unknown to them. Several boxes of bright-green pinks were put on sale. Pinks of all other colors have abounded: white ones are common, red ones have been a great deal too common; but no human eye had ever seen green ones before, except, perhaps, as the *Temps* rather wickedly said, in impressionist pictures. The flowers took at once with the public and sold rapidly at a couple of francs each. But the police, suspecting some mystification, and doubting lest the flowers might be in some way harmful, seized all that were exposed for sale, and sent them to the public chemist for examination. M. Girard recognized at once the fact that the coloring was artificial, and soon discovered the way in which it had been done. The stems of fresh-cut flowers had been dipped in a color-bath. The color mounted up the stem by capillary action and was reduced there, but was reoxidized in the petals when it came in contact with the air. The flower preserves its aroma. Further investigation disclosed that this discovery had been made accidentally by some girls who were at work upon artificial flowers. Many other flowers, especially narcissuses and lilacs, can be colored in the same way as the pinks, and the discovery seems likely to give rise to a new and horrible industry.

LOUNSBURY'S CHAUCER.—I.

Studies in Chaucer, his Life and Writings. By Thomas R. Lounsbury, Professor of English in the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale University. 3 vols. Harper & Bros. 1892.

THE publication of three large volumes of 'Studies in Chaucer' from so competent a pen as that of Prof. Lounsbury may without exaggeration be called an important event in the history of American scholarship, and the fact that these Studies are not merely *ad clerum* makes it also an important event in the history of American letters. The eight chapters of which the work is composed are independent of each other, and fairly entitled to be termed monographs in the strictest sense of that much-abused word.

The first two chapters are biographical. In chapter i. what is known of Chaucer's life is lucidly told, with due citation of evidence, and such theories as can muster a respectable body of adherents are critically considered. In chapter ii. — "The Chaucer Legend" — the fables that have taken the place of fact in many accounts of the poet are collected and exposed. This relegation of legendary matter to a separate essay is a happy device. By means of it, the first chapter gains a straightforwardness which it could not have if the author were obliged constantly to clear the way of obsolete absurdities. But, even after this setting aside of the demonstrably untrue, there still remain problems enough to tax the powers of the clearest-headed biographer. To the examination of these Mr. Lounsbury brings sound common sense and a judicially sceptical frame of mind. He is also master of an easy, flowing style—leisurely, but not diffuse or prolix—and of a pleasantly subacid humor. As a result he has produced not merely the most scholarly life of Chaucer yet written, but by all odds the most readable. That his leisurely pace now and then beguiles him into repetition, and that his humor occasionally induces an epigram of doubtful validity, are trifling faults that the grateful reader will be glad to overlook.

In the vexed question as to the year of Chaucer's birth, Mr. Lounsbury states with characteristic fairness and perspicuity the arguments for 1340 and for an earlier date. 1328 he of course rejects; but he finds it impossible to accept 1340, which has of late received a sort of conventional authentication. On the whole, he is disposed to favor "a time between 1331 and 1335" as being "in accordance with all the conditions implied in the references made to his age by Chaucer himself or by his contemporaries." There is little to allege against this proposed date, and that little is pretty satisfactorily answered. The deposition in the Scrope-Grosvenor case is too indefinite to argue from; the station of Chaucer in Prince Lionel's household is unknown to us; the 'Book of the Duchess' can hardly be the 'Ceyx and Alcyone' which the poet wrote in his youth.

While, however, one may admit that there is nothing cogent against Mr. Lounsbury's date, his affirmative arguments are not entirely convincing. He produces in evidence a number of passages in which Chaucer is referred to as "old," either by himself or by his contemporaries. If Chaucer died at the age of sixty, he reasons, these passages, some of them written a good while before his death, become at once unintelligible. Of the four passages quoted from the poet himself, that from the 'Legend of Good Women' is too vague, and that from the 'House of Fame' is too jocular, to be accepted as a chronological datum. The third is the 'Envoy to Scogan,' conjecturally put in 1393. In this Chaucer not only makes his friend call him "olde Grisel" (old gray horse) and insinuate that he is somewhat frisky for his years, but speaks of himself as "hoar and round of shape," and, inferentially, as unlikely to succeed in affairs of love. Further, he hints that he has given up versifying:

> "Ne thinke I never of sleep to wake my muse
> That rusteth in my shethe stille in pees;
> Whyl I was yong, I putte hir forth in prees."

The jocose "olde Grisel" is, of course, inconclusive, not merely because it is jocose, but because, whatever may be thought the proper time of life for a man to give up philandering, there can surely be no necessary impropriety in a man of fifty-three calling himself stout and gray-haired, and suggesting that younger gallants have the advantage of him. But the reference to the dormant Muse seems to Mr. Lounsbury decisive. "He is now a veteran, and he feels no disposition to lag superfluous on the stage. In the crowd of aspirants he could bear his part . . . when he was young," etc. To express himself thus, he thinks, Chaucer must have been at least sixty.

The difficulty with all this is that the passage, if taken so seriously, proves too much. The third of the lines just quoted needs little pressing to make it testify that all Chaucer's long poems were written in his youth; and this is a statement hard to reconcile with the facts. If Chaucer was born in 1340, his Muse was emphatically among the prees till his forty-eighth year—till his fifty-third or fifty-seventh year, if we accept Mr. Lounsbury's 1331–35—and this time of life cannot be called youth. In brief, it is unsafe to use the language of the 'Envoy' for Mr. Lounsbury's purposes. Chaucer's words are quite consistent with his having been a hale and hearty man in late middle life, who was inclined to laugh at himself as an oldster—just as he had in the 'Troilus' described himself, with mock humility, as the *servus servorum* of Love—and who had either forsworn love-verses, to which in his youth he had been addicted, or given up poetical composition altogether for a time. The latter alternative would suit well enough with the business on which Chaucer was engaged in 1393. He was superintending the cleaning and repair of roads, dykes, and ditches along the Thames—an occupation not altogether favorable to inspiration.

The fourth passage is the Envoy to the 'Compleynt of Venus,' in which occur the lines:

> "For elde, that in my spirit dulleth me,
> Hath of endyting al the soteltee
> Wel ny bereft out of my remembraunce."

But this language is shown by the poem itself to be exaggerated; for the 'Compleynt,' as Mr. Lounsbury himself says, "is one of [Chaucer's] feats of poetical strength" in the handling of a difficult and artificial metre. Chaucer is always fond of apologetic allusions to his insufficiency, and there is nothing absurd in supposing that, at the age of fifty-nine or sixty—old enough to call himself advanced in years—he should assign *elde* as an excuse for his self-alleged, but imaginary, deficiencies in skill. In all this we are not arguing in favor of 1340—for which we have no especial prepossession—or against 1331–5, with which we have no quar-

rel. We are simply contending that it is not safe to use these four passages as evidence in the question of Chaucer's birth.

Of the references to Chaucer's age made by his contemporaries, only one is of any importance. This is the well-known message from Venus, near the end of the first or "royal" version of the 'Confessio Amantis.' The language there used appears to Mr. Lounsbury ridiculous if addressed to a man of fifty-two or fifty-three, and that would be Chaucer's age if he was born in 1340 and this version appeared in 1393. It seems not to have struck Mr. Lounsbury that, if the "royal" version be referred to 1386 (a date which he is disposed to favor) and Chaucer's birth to 1333 (a date which falls within his proposed limits), the age of the poet would still be but fifty-three, and the words of Venus would be as inappropriate as ever. In fact, however, the terms of the message may without violence be made to bear an interpretation different from that ordinarily given. She has just informed Gower that he is too old to devote himself to her longer, and she bids him convey to "her disciple and poet," Chaucer, the following injunction: "In the flower of your youth you wrote many ballades and virelays in my honor, wherewith all the land is filled. Now that you are old, it is time for you to quit my service. As a fitting valedictory, therefore, make your testament of love, as Gower has made his shrift." Thus explained, "to set an end to all his work" is a suggestion not that Chaucer cease writing when he has made his testament of love, but merely that he cease writing amatory verse or that he abandon the service of Venus; and either of these things he might without impertinence be called upon to do at the age of fifty. Younger than this he surely was not; for the 'Confessio Amantis' in its first form was pretty certainly finished after 1390. This date is satisfactorily fixed by a marginal note to which attention was first called by Karl Meyer in his interesting dissertation, 'John Gower's Beziehungen zu Chaucer und König Richard II.' (Bonn, 1889). Mr. Lounsbury does not mention Meyer's essay, and clings to the old date, 1386 (or earlier), which rests on theory alone.

In the debate on the parentage of Thomas Chaucer, Mr. Lounsbury takes what seems the only tenable position since Prof. Hales's appeal to Gascoigne. It is carrying incredulity very far, he thinks, to suppose that the Oxford Chancellor can have been mistaken about the famous commoner who was his contemporary and almost his neighbor. In some ways, however, Mr. Lounsbury has been more than fair to the opposition. Lydgate wrote two poems in honor of Thomas Chaucer, in neither of which is there any mention of the poet; and this is thought to create a difficulty. The difficulty vanishes when the poems are inspected. They were both composed, according to Shirley, in 1414, when Thomas Chaucer was setting out for France on a diplomatic errand, and are thus of an altogether occasional character. The first depicts the grief of the family and friends of the ambassador at the thought of his departure, and foretells their loneliness while he is gone. Here is no place for an allusion to a fourteen-years-dead father, unless it were lugged in as Sancho did his proverbs. The second is ostensibly addressed to a woman, and has the refrain, "But when I see my lady dear!" Here there was no possibility of alluding to Geoffrey Chaucer, had he been ten times the father of Thomas. In his description of the Chaucer seals, Mr. Lounsbury has again admitted more than the opposition has any right to demand. The first letter of [*G*]*HOFRAI*, he says, has disappeared and we know nothing of it. But Mrs. Haweis, whom he cites, says merely that the first letter is "illegible," and Hunter speaks of it as "indistinct." In the engraving which accompanies Hunter's note (*Archæologia*, xxxiv., 43), the presence of the letter is clear enough; the only question is what the letter shall be called.

In one respect Mr. Lounsbury has done the cause of sobriety in conjecture especial service in this chapter. He has pointed out the tenuity of the evidence on which we are sometimes asked to believe that Chaucer's wife was a shrew and his married life "a failure." And he has followed up his advantage by exposing (in chapter ii.) the pretty romance which it is now the fashion to speak of as "Chaucer's long, early, and hopeless love." He might have added another illustration if his case had needed it. If the methods used in constructing the story of Chaucer's wooing were applied to the 'Confessio Amantis,' we shudder to think what a "heart-tragedy" might be made out of the life of the respectable and prosy Gower. The data are plentiful, and the dissertator who takes our hint will find them astonishingly precise.

Chapter iii.—"The Text of Chaucer"—contains an interesting exposition of the dangers which environed the tradition of an author's works in the age of manuscript. In his illustrations of scribes' blunders, Mr. Lounsbury is for the most part well-advised; but in one important instance we are obliged to disagree with him. In the famous line, "An he ne wol don hem no dishonour," at the end of the Wife's ironical praise of the "limitours and other holy freres" who have banished the fairies by their pious presence, he wishes to restore *but* for *no*, on the ground that *no* makes "the conclusion tame and utterly pointless." With all his feeling for Chaucer's humor, Mr. Lounsbury has missed the point here. The remark, "Of course the holy friars will not hurt women," is naturally to be taken in the same spirit as "husbondes ben alle goode," or

> "How mighte a man have any adversite
> That hath a wyf? certes I can not seye."

"In an age when the business of transcribing texts was mainly carried on in the monasteries, it was no difficult matter for a copyist to persuade himself that he was doing the Lord a service when he converted an attack upon a religious body into a commendation of it by an expedient so simple as the substitution of a *no* for a *but*." Now, in the first place, few persons have ever taken the line for commendatory, even in the form in which the editors offer it. Again, does Mr. Lounsbury think that Chaucer's Adam Scrivener was a monk?

A convenient account of the printed editions, from Caxton's in 1478 to Morris's Aldine text, succeeds this examination of the manuscript sources, and is followed by remarks on the versification of Chaucer, and the labors of modern scholars in ascertaining his language and metre. Mr. Lounsbury offers just tribute of praise to the admirable Tyrwhitt; but he speaks too slightingly of Thomas Wright, who, whatever his deficiencies, was widely learned in mediæval literature, and put his learning to uses that have left all succeeding students deeply in his debt. A lighter case of injustice is the charging of Prof. Skeat with an unnecessary emendation—"or *Theseus* brende Thebes the citee"—which that scholar withdrew some three years ago. Mr. Lounsbury has evidently overlooked Mr. Skeat's amended note, which is more satisfactory, indeed, than his own comment. The services of Prof. Child, the founder of the scientific study of Chaucer's language, and of Dr. Furnivall, the indefatigable director of the Chaucer Society, are duly recognized, and the chapter closes with a statement of what remains to be done in text-criticism and in exegesis.

The chapter on "The Writings of Chaucer" is divided into two parts. The first deals with the tests commonly used in establishing the Chaucerian canon, and gives what information is needful about all the spurious or doubtful works except one—the 'Romaunt of the Rose.' With regard to the other works that have been attributed to the poet on insufficient grounds, Mr. Lounsbury is substantially in accord with the best accredited modern criticism. He finds it hard to give up 'The Cuckoo and the Nightingale,' but he decides that the balance of probabilities is against it. He is not quite accurate, however, in saying that this poem "does not violate a single one of the metrical tests." In the second part of the chapter, devoted to the 'Romaunt of the Rose,' Mr. Lounsbury arrives at a conclusion so different from the prevailing opinion that his elaborate monograph of more than 160 pp. will no doubt receive the closest scrutiny. He believes that the extant fragmentary version is entirely from Chaucer's hand. His criticism of the evidence against this view is interesting and brings out some points hitherto overlooked; but, except in the matter of the "vocabulary test" and perhaps of the "strange-rhyme test"—two criteria far from indispensable to the case of the separatists—he has not done his opponents much damage. The "*-y*, *-ye* test," in itself all but decisive, comes off unscathed. The "final *e* test," perhaps the most important of all, is very oddly treated. Inadvertently, no doubt, for nobody can suppose that he has deliberately suppressed the evidence or was ignorant of its significance, Mr. Lounsbury has neglected to apprise his readers of the existence of between one and two hundred cases in which the rhymes of the 'Romaunt' violate Chaucer's usual practice with regard to final *e*. The effect of this omission on the validity of Mr. Lounsbury's results is obvious.

There are other errors in this part of the monograph, but we have barely space to speak, in the briefest terms, of Mr. Lounsbury's affirmative arguments. These all come under the head of identity of style, but may be roughly classed as (1) the argument from the usage in common of "certain individual words and brief phrases"; (2) the argument from parallel passages; and (3) the argument from synonyms. The first of these is of little importance. The third can be mathematically demonstrated to be based on erroneous assumptions. The second cannot be admitted in evidence until Mr. Lounsbury's long lists have been reduced to their lowest terms by the excision of idioms, literal translations, and literary commonplaces. Such excision will reduce these lists to proportions no longer impressive or even particularly noteworthy. In spite, then, of Mr. Lounsbury's very skilful conduct of his case, we must be allowed to accept the theory that the 'Romaunt' translation (with the possible exception of the first 1,700 lines) is not Chaucer's, but the work of imitators—for this theory satisfies all the conditions of the problem better than Mr. Lounsbury's hypothesis, and does not, like that, come into violent contact with insuperable difficulties in dialect, metre, and grammar. Dr. Kaluza's observations with regard to the first 1,700 lines of the poem are not mentioned by Mr. Lounsbury, even in his Appendix, though in the body of the book he cites a letter of Skeat's in which they are discussed. This omission is much to be regretted, for it would

have been interesting to see how Mr. Lounsbury squares the facts noticed by the Königsberg scholar with his own theory.

To "The Learning of Chaucer" we can give but a word. In this admirable dissertation Mr. Lounsbury has collected all that is known of the subject. Yet the chapter is far from being a mere compilation. The author's own contributions are considerable, and his criticism of the conclusions of other investigators is of the highest value. The essay is henceforth indispensable alike to the tyro and to the adept. Particularly interesting is Mr. Lounsbury's estimate of Chaucer's obligations to Dante, which is very different from that of Skeat and Ten Brink, but seems judicious. His theories about Chaucer's relations to Petrarch and Boccaccio are less probable. One is glad, however, to have him controvert the opinion, "current rather than well-considered," which a recent English advocate of the separation of the study of literature from the study of philology has summed up in the amazing dictum, 'But for the 'Decamerone' we should never have had the 'Canterbury Tales.'" In one respect the essay is defective: due weight is not given to the influence of the metrical romances on the style of Chaucer. But on this point Mr. Lounsbury is in full agreement with most historians of literature. Here and there a trifling error or omission has escaped the author's eye. Maximian, for example, is not included in the list of authors whom Chaucer may have known. In the paragraph on the Physiologus the reader is for once not made acquainted with the results of recent scholarship; a reference to Lauchert would have solved all the problems raised by the passage from St. Jerome, in which, by the way, the received reading is apparently *physiologos*. But these minor blemishes go for nothing in comparison with the general excellence of a thoroughly satisfactory piece of work.

The sixth chapter consists of two short essays —"The Relations of Chaucer to the English Language" and "The Relations of Chaucer to the Religion of his Time." The first of these lays no claim to be regarded as a contribution to the as yet unwritten history of the growth of a literary language in England. It was intended for the general reader, and is therefore chiefly taken up with the correction of two gross errors — the assumption that Chaucer spent his days and nights in consciously attempting to refine the English tongue, and the idle fancy that he debased or at any rate extensively altered it by a large importation of French words. Mr. Lounsbury has, of course, no difficulty in disposing of these figments. He seems, however, to lay too much stress on the influence of Chaucer in fixing the East Midland as the dialect of literature and of educated speech. At all events, we miss an estimate of other influences without which Chaucer's would perhaps have failed to be definitive.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Hamlet from the Actor's Standpoint. Its Representatives and a Comparison of Their Performances. By Henry P. Phelps. New York: Edgar S. Werner.

The Art of Acting, in connection with the Study of Character, the Spirit of Comedy, and Stage Illusion. By Percy Fitzgerald. Macmillan & Co.

Playhouse Impressions. By A. B. Walkley. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Twenty Years at the Play, and Dramatic Table Talk. By Clement Scott. London: The Railway and General Automatic Library.

The Stage Fright; or, How to Face an Audience. By Adolph Kielblock. Boston: George H. Ellis.

Mr. Phelps, already favorably known to collectors of theatrical books as the author of a history of the drama in Albany, has now begun a series of volumes on the stage history of famous plays, with a volume on the most famous of all plays, "Hamlet." Mr. Phelps sets out to do for the *Hamlets* of all the actors what Mr. Mason did recently for the *Othello* of a single actor, Signor Salvini; that is to say, he considers in turn and at some length the personation of the greatest of Shaksperian characters by the greatest actors of the English-speaking stage, from Richard Burbage and Thomas Betterton to Mr. Edwin Booth and Mr. Henry Irving. He gives us first a chronological account of "The Hamlets of the Stage," a general description of each actor's conception of the character and of his performance as a whole, quoting freely from contemporary critics. Then he considers, one by one, the chief scenes of the play—the scene with the ghost, for example, that with the players, that with the Queen, that in the churchyard; and he shows us how each great actor acted this particular bit, what his arrangement of the stage was, what his reading of the text, what his illustrative "business." This division of the volume is that which is probably the most valuable, for it serves to bring out emphatically the fact that Shakspere wrote his plays to be played, and that he devised them so that the accomplished actor can find his account in the performance even of the smaller parts. Just now there is a tendency to consider Shakspere simply as a poet, and to forget the fact that he was a practical playwright as well, the most successful and popular of his time. But to overlook Shakspere's mastery of the stage is to neglect the fundamental condition which made his plays what they are. It is a real help to the understanding of Shakspere's greatest tragedy that Mr. Phelps has provided us with in this volume; he has done his work well, and it was very well worth doing.

The one fault a critic could find with 'The Stage History of Hamlet' is that the book itself is ill made. The page is sprawling and the presswork mean. And this is also the one fault to be found with 'The Art of Acting,' which forms part of a so-called "Dilettante Library," and which is as ugly a book as any recently sent from the press. Its page is cramped, its type is ill-chosen, and its cover is some strange abomination of imitation alligator-hide. But the contents were worthy of a better setting. Mr. Percy Fitzgerald, as all readers of his Lives of David Garrick, the Kembles, and the Sheridans know to their sorrow, is a careless bookmaker, himself well read in the history of the English theatre, but turning out books lacking in symmetry and in grammar. The style of the present volume is not irreproachable, and it is not as well planned as it might be; but it contains wisdom, and its sins may be forgiven. Although it is not a well-printed book, and although it is involved and slovenly, and sometimes inconsistent, nevertheless it is, in its way, one of the few books which one could put into the hands of a young actor; and how rare books of this quality are no one knows who has not sought them. Cibber's 'Apology,' Churchill's 'Rosciad,' Lamb's dramatic essays, Sarcey's 'Comédiens et Comédiennes,' Legouvé's 'Soixante Ans de Souvenirs,' and a scant half-dozen more—and we are at the end of the list. With many apt anecdotes and illustrations, Mr. Fitzgerald enforces sound doctrine on subjects as various as tone, distinction, breadth, facial expression, gesture, stage business, and the like.

No contrast could well be sharper than that which is forced upon every reader who happens to take up Mr. Clement Scott's 'Thirty Years at the Play' just after reading Mr. A. B. Walkley's 'Playhouse Impressions.' Mr. Clement Scott is the theatrical critic of the London *Daily Telegraph*, and he writes the sort of English which has "the largest circulation in the world"; he is always cock-sure and for ever gushing. Mr. Walkley writes the dramatic criticisms of the new and vigorous London weekly, the *Speaker;* he is a scholar, and although he swaggers overmuch, he is a gentleman. Both of these London critics love the theatre; both have a wide experience—Mr. Walkley in libraries as well as in theatres; and Mr. Clement Scott in the playhouses themselves—apparently he has never read anything but the newspapers. Mr. Walkley represents the immediate future of the London stage, ready for any advance, and welcoming any return of literature into the playhouse. Mr. Clement Scott represents the immediate past of the London stage, given over to strained adaptations from the French, to the tea-cup-and-saucer comedy of Robertson, and to the empty melodrama of the new Adelphi school of Mr. G. R. Sims and Mr. Robert Buchanan and their fellows. Mr. Walkley is frankly a follower of the impressionistic methods of M. Jules Lemaitre, easy generally, witty frequently, although sometimes not without effort. Mr. Clement Scott is frankly a British Philistine of the extremest type, resolutely conventional in middle-class morality, uneducated in any exact sense of the word, illogical, narrow, intolerant of light—in short, an ideal contributor to the *Daily Telegraph*. Of course Mr. Clement Scott virtuously denounces the plays of M. Dumas *fils*, and he hates intensely the plays of Ibsen. So we find his little book full of vulgar self-sufficiency and cheap reminiscence, almost valueless except in so far as it is a revelation of a character probably common enough in the lower grades of British theatrical journalism.

Mr. Walkley's volume has a value of its own. Whatever his failings, it is almost unfair to him to link his name with Mr. Clement Scott's. Mr. Walkley knows the history of the drama —he can find a Latin original for a French play adapted into English. He knows his Sarcey and his Lemaitre; he has theories of his own, plausible if not convincing, like the difference between presentation and representation set forth on p. 175. He is less insular than Mr. Clement Scott, who, indeed, is rather parochial than insular; but there is abundant insularity in his final remarks on the performance of the "Taming of the Shrew," on p. 41. The book is often brilliant and stimulating, and represents a healthy revolt against the childishness which now and then dominates theatrical criticism; and so it is welcome.

The little book on 'Stage Fright' which Mr. Adolph Kielblock has prepared is more abundant in examples than it is rich in remedies. Stage fright is an indisputable fact, and its victims are never certain that a cure is permanent. Mr. Kielblock gives advice and suggests various devices by which stage fright may be overcome. But at bottom they amount to this: Do not let yourself be frightened. Nevertheless, some of the hints he proffers may be of use to young actors, speakers, and performers.

Katalog einer Richard Wagner Bibliothek. Von Nikolaus Oesterlein. Leipzig: Breitkopf und Härtel. 3 vols.

MOST of the visitors to the Musical and Theatrical Exhibition to be held in Vienna next summer will doubtless devote a few hours to Oesterlein's Wagner Museum, a remarkable collection by a remarkable enthusiast. Here is a museum consisting of three large rooms filled with books, pamphlets, busts, photographs, medals, letters, and other manuscripts, Bayreuth and other first programmes, cards, newspaper clippings, and an endless variety of curios pertaining to Wagner and his operas. This collection was made entirely and unaided by Herr Oesterlein, who has devoted all his leisure time to this object for the last twenty-four years, and expended vast sums of money from his private purse. What makes this the more remarkable is that he is not a music-teacher, nor a professional musician, but a business man, whose interest is merely that of an amateur, although he has studied harmony and written a few pamphlets on Wagner's works at Bayreuth and in Vienna. It was in 1868 that the perusal of 'Oper und Drama' made such a deep impression on him that from that moment he became a most ardent disciple of the master. His plans for a Wagner museum were slowly matured, and in 1887 the museum was opened with musical ceremonies, including the singing of the "Wachet auf" by members of various local choral societies, conducted by Hans Richter. The museum is decidedly worth seeing, and it will some day be of inestimable value to musical historians and biographers. At present, owing to lack of room, many of the documents are difficult of access, but Herr Oesterlein hopes before long to be able to secure more ample quarters for them. He hopes and expects that some other admirers of Wagner will help to provide the necessary funds. Philistines have often sneered at him and his museum, but these Philistines are the very persons who, had they been born thirty years later, would have wondered why no one had started a museum like Oesterlein's, and filled it with Wagner documents while they were still accessible.

It is not so much to the museum, however, that we wish to call attention in this notice as to Herr Oesterlein's catalogue of his collection. This is a gigantic undertaking—three volumes of 322, 356, and 518 pages. In these volumes there are about 20,000 entries of the various objects referred to above. Under appropriate divisions we find enumerated all of Wagner's own writings, musical and literary, and most of the books, pamphlets, etc., that have appeared regarding him in various countries. Especially valuable are the numerous references to newspaper articles (all of which, be it understood, are in the museum). Non-German newspapers are not very liberally represented, and Mr. Oesterlein would be grateful for gifts in this direction; but the important articles on Wagner and his works that have appeared in German and Austrian newspapers are almost all enumerated. Under one heading, for instance, will be found the pertinent contents of musical periodicals like the *Signale*, *Neue Zeitschrift*, etc., from the beginning of the Wagner movement. In many cases, especially in the third volume, Herr Oesterlein has not only given the date of the paper, but cited a sentence or two which would be most likely to interest an amateur or biographer. This, with the section on comic papers, makes very interesting reading; it includes many of the laughable comments on Wagner's early operas, and the prophecies about their speedy disappearance.

The volumes are beautifully printed in large type, and the only objection that can be urged against them is the over-elaborateness of the classification. But this does not affect the value of Herr Oesterlein's work, which is a monument of patient research and utility. The writer of this notice tested its data freely in the German libraries last summer, and found them absolutely accurate.

The Book Bills of Narcissus: An Account rendered by Richard Le Gallienne. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892.

WHAT is the life of the modern youth—not him whose "habits are good" and there is no more to be said, but the youth with ideas in his head and passions in his heart who goes faring into the greenwood and finds freshness in the new day? No one really knows; but now and then in some indiscreet book one gets a glimpse of it. Narcissus was such a youth; and in these few pages there is just such a mixture of the elements at their kneading work as belongs to the growing time of man. To a sympathetic and tolerant mind, not to be bored by the comedy of salad days, the volume is entertaining, and possibly illuminating. When one finds Mr. Pater's 'Marius,' Sinnett, 'Richard Feveril,' 'Sigurd the Volsing,' Browning's 'Dramatis Personæ,' jostling 'Sartor Resartus,' 'Walden,' Walt Whitman, Zanoni, and Marcus Aurelius, in the intellectual influences of the hour, he may be sure the youth is "modern" to the finger-nail; and out of such miscellaneous impulses and moods working in the "artist" (it used to be called the "poet") nature, what spirit of the new age will be evoked? Read 'Narcissus' if you would have an inkling of it. There you will find an attractive nature, soft to every thought or mood or even whim, yielding in every fibre of his unconscious selfishness, giving out egotism at every pore of sensation or sentiment, and withal wholly charming in the impression he makes—a mind comically adrift and a heart altogether at home with love-adventure; just a sapling of the dilettanti—but phrases are varied in vain to describe the new birth of æsthetic time.

The author who thus delivers his friend over to the Philistines makes the betrayal cleverly enough; he writes with ease and enjoys the dropping of the words, the distillation of the honey as it must seem to him, and occasionally he lights the page with a fine perception of what makes gentle and lovely character, or even keeps for an entire paragraph in a strain of what the school would call eloquence. The sketches of life, particularly that of the household life of the Whitmanite, which is the best chapter, are effectively and at the same time smoothly done; the children's verses, and the children themselves, in the aforesaid household, are sure to be welcome to any child-loving heart; but (otherwise Narcissus would not be Narcissus) there are other scenes that are certainly not for the "home-circle"—let us call them "unmoral" scenes. It is, as has been indicated, a singular little confession, a very modern one, infantile modern; but, above all other things, it has frankness like that of youthful unconcern, only dimly beginning to guess its own comedy. It will be smiled at—the ungentle may even call it silly; but, notwithstanding, it is a spring flower in the not quite pellucid stream of youth, and shows the eddies and currents of the last decade. The author seems to threaten more. Let him not carry out such a purpose; "youth's sweet-scented manuscript" not only must, but should, "close."

The Works of Robert Herrick. Edited by A. W. Pollard. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners.

THIS is the latest addition to the fast-increasing list of Herrick reprints or anthologies, and in many ways the most notable of them all, though not so handsome as the famous Pickering edition or the Edinburgh reprint of 1823. Mr. Pollard has made a wise selection in excluding from his edition the almost uniformly dull or obscene epigrams that so mar the complete reprint, and numbering the remaining lyrics with reference to their omission, thus making it possible, he says, "to print the Epigrams in a detachable appendix," which is or is not—this he does not say—to be printed; but Palgrave's sterner excision of the trivial numbers, sacred and profane, still makes his 'Chrysomela' the edition that pleases most, and least fatigues, the reader. Mr. Pollard's two small volumes, however, are for both the scholar and the reader. For the reader (that is, for *some* readers), he has modernized the quaint and often delightful spelling of the first edition. For the scholar he has enriched his work with foot-notes, collected notes, and appendices, which not only show admirable care and learning, but are entertaining enough to disarm even such a hater of notes as Miss Repplier, especially where they describe the English festival rites, customs, and superstitions, with allusions to which the "Hesperides" so teems; and the edition is provided with two indices—one of personal allusions and one of first lines.

It also prints for the first time in any collected edition (if not at all) several manuscript poems not found in the "Hesperides"—most of which prove, as Mr. Pollard holds, that Herrick was a writer who knew how to edit his own verses. One of them, however, contains some notable lines, of which these on the female virtues are, perhaps, the best (p. 263):

> "Obedience, wise distrust, peace, shy
> Distance and sweet urbanity;
> Safe modesty, lov'd patience, fear
> Of offending, temperance, dear
> Constancy, bashfulness, and all
> The virtues less or cardinal."

Mr. Swinburne for this occasion supplants Mr. Dobson as preface-writer, in which capacity he is, as usual, entertaining, though he has, as usual, next to nothing to set out with all his brave manner. Yet, even so, it is something to be really grateful for that the Tory Tyrtæus suffered the text of Herrick's stout-stomached loyalty to the King, his patron, to pass without hanging upon it a jeremiad against the treasonous Gladstone and the unspeakable Celt.

Lady Mary Wortley Montagu: Select Passages from her Letters. Edited by Arthur R. Ropes, with nine Portraits after Sir Godfrey Kneller and other artists. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE series of social and literary portraits to which this volume belongs, has been useful in renewing for a generation overburdened with a desire for multifarious knowledge, the features of men and women who are fading out of their picture-frames. We have had Horace Walpole, Fanny Burney, and Mrs. Thrale, and now Lady Mary has her turn. She is a figure not to be forgotten among the Englishwomen of her century; the coarse impress of the time is set both on her life and her letters, and she was both a woman of note and an intellectual woman, and therefore conspicuously exemplifies the age. But neither her career nor her letters attract the finer and higher interest of men, nor do they appeal to any other than the historical curi-

osity to know what a contemporary of Pope and the early Georges did in that day and thought of the doings of that world. She must be praised for strong personal qualities and for excellent literary judgment; and the spice of adventure that still entered into travel in those times adds an accidental attractiveness to her individuality. The pleasantest part of her life was the last score years of foreign residence, which were the occasion of her best letters. The account she gives of her affairs is full of reality, and that necessarily takes hold of the mind and makes one forget the essential triviality of the subject. The criticism she makes on the books of the age, Richardson and Fielding and the rest, is a valuable chapter for the history of literary taste in England, and is, besides, very sound in judgment and true in feeling. Her work, as a contemporary reporter of the age, is of a different class from Walpole's, but it supplies a new centre of interest in the most gossiping of our centuries, and must remain of capital importance in literary history. Nevertheless, it is as "Sappho" that she most provokes curiosity, and we may remark that the present editor decides against the scandalous story of Pope's proposal to her as being the source of his enmity and its consequent satirical portrait. He finds no more cause for the explosion of irritability in Pope than the pin-prick of his vanity by her wit in the celebrated "pastoral letter" episode, or some equally trivial incident left unrecorded. Like most of Pope's victims, she gains in reputation because of the assumption of his injustice. The charges he specifically made against her are satisfactorily disposed of; and there remains only the strong-minded, rather slovenly, and yet socially brilliant woman, coarse but not repellent as the taste of that day went, and much distinguished for courage, vivacity, and good sense. This Lady Mary is well portrayed in this abridgment of her correspondence. The portraits, which are always attractive in this series, are of Lady Mary, her husband and son, the Princess Caroline, Pope, Congreve, Swift, Richardson, and Sarah, Duchess of Marlborough.

Glimpses of Nature. By Andrew Wilson. Harper & Bros. 1891. 8vo, pp. 247. Illustrated.

BOOKS like this one on natural history are always welcome. To have allowed the numerous chapters it contains to remain buried in the scattered pages of their original appearance, in the *Illustrated London News*, would really have been an injustice to the author and a cause for regret to his readers. The essays are all short; the average in the forty-six is little more than five pages. They treat of a variety of matters, and, whether relating to spiders, salmon, mesmerism, the mistletoe bough, the spleen, or whatever else, are full of life and entertainment. By means of a few salient features, without embarrassment from details, the author interests his reader, makes him feel slightly acquainted with his topic, and arouses a desire to learn more about it at some future opportunity. As a pleasant introduction for a stranger serves to wake a friendly concern in all that pertains to him, so these bright little notices induce a wish to meet the subjects of them again. In their suggestiveness they have a value even beyond that of the information they contain. The enthusiastic style of the writer fixes in the mind what he presents, though there may be little more than enough in the descriptions and illustrations for the purpose of identification. If in his enthusiasm the author occasionally is betrayed into exaggeration, the reader does not appear to be shocked by it, but rather is inclined to accept the statement, making due allowances. When told that the tortoises of the Galapagos Islands are so large that a man might easily sit on the back of one and be conveyed by the animal without the latter being aware of the burden he was carrying, we readily believe the creatures are very large and strong, but question somewhat whether Prof. Wilson will insist that the tortoise would not know the man was there if it carried him.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aitken, G. A. The Life and Works of John Arbuthnot. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Arnold, Sir Edwin. Potiphar's Wife, and Other Poems. Scribners. $1.25.
Ball, W. W. R. Mathematical Recreations and Problems. Macmillan.
Butler, A. J. The Hell of Dante. Macmillan. $3.50.
Cambridge, Ada. My Guardian. Appletons.
Christ versus Christianity. Boston: American Elzevir Co. $1.50.
Eckstein, Ernst. Hertha. G. G. Peck.
Freeman, Prof. E. A. Historical Essays. Fourth Series. Macmillan. $3.50.
James, Henry. The Lessons of the Master, and Other Stories. Macmillan. 1892.
Julian, John. A Dictionary of Hymnology. Scribners.
Jullien, Adolphe. Musiciens d'Aujour-d'hui. Paris: Librairie de l'Art; New York: Macmillan.
Kiepert, Henry. Atlas Antiquus. 3d ed. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $2.
Keltie, J. S. The Statesman's Year-Book for 1892. Macmillan. $3.
King, H. T. The Idealist. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Laforest, Debut. Renée and Colette. Cassell. 50 cents.
Leclerc, Max. Le Rôle Social des Universités. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 24, 1892.

The Week.

If the Free-Coinage Bill passes the House through the deliberate absence, and consequently the virtual support, of Republican members who oppose it and whose constituencies oppose it, the delinquents will make a great mistake, both from the party and the personal point of view. Mr. A. P. Hyde, the leading Hartford Democrat, put the case rightly when he declared that "free silver would be the ruin of any party or individual that supported it." The *Nation* has repeatedly expressed its opinion that the passage of a free-coinage bill by the Democratic House would be disastrous to the party. But it may prove equally disastrous for the Republican Representative who connives at its passage. It is a public duty for every member of the House who believes that free coinage would injure the country to do everything in his power to prevent the passage of such a bill. He may think that its passage would hurt the Democratic party, but, if it would also harm the country, he is likely to find his constituents rebuking him if he winks at harm to the country in the hope of thereby hurting the opposition party. The man who refuses to do his duty as a patriot in the hope of personal profit is pretty sure in the end to suffer the just penalty of the traitor.

The St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*, which ought to be good authority as to such a matter, ridicules the position of "the timid Republicans of the East" who are talking about the necessity, or imagined necessity, of making some "concessions to the silver element of the West." It declares that the extent and potency of the silver sentiment of the West are ludicrously overestimated by some of the Eastern papers, and that they are quite as much astray as to the feeling even in the silver-producing States regarding the urgency of silver legislation at this time. The *Globe-Democrat* says that "the Republicans of the West, as a whole, are opposed to free coinage"; that "if the scheme were submitted to the popular vote of the Republicans residing west of the Alleghenies, or even west of the Mississippi, it would be overwhelmingly defeated"; that "outside of Colorado, Montana, and Nevada this doctrine finds no favor in the party, and even in those States the leading papers are advising their Representatives in Congress to display no undue haste in pressing this matter." The St. Louis newspaper goes still further. Not only does it declare that "the Western Republicans are not asking for any 'concessions' from the Eastern end of the party on the silver question," but it adds:

> "Strong and decided ground against the opening of the mints to silver must be taken by the National Convention. There must be no truckling or cringing to the miners and speculators. The clumsy, tricky, and dishonest utterances of the platform of 1888 on silver cannot be repeated safely this year. Western Republicans will stand no such shuffling, hypocrisy, and falsification in 1892."

This is the right sort of talk, and it is refreshing to hear it from the heart of the Mississippi valley. "Clumsy, tricky, and dishonest" are the proper adjectives to characterize the silver plank of the Republican platform of 1888. It was this deliverance of the Republican party which started the present agitation for free coinage. It was a deliverance which, it was claimed, was demanded by the Republicans of the West, and it is reassuring to be told by a leading Republican journal of that section now that "Western Republicans will stand no such shuffling, hypocrisy, and falsification in 1892."

The President on Wednesday week issued his first proclamation imposing duties at his own discretion. It applies to sugars, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides imported from Colombia, Hayti, and Venezuela, and suspends the free admission of such imports from those countries, which must hereafter pay certain specified rates of duty. The recent decision of the Supreme Court established the constitutional power of the President thus to put on and take off duties, but it did not show that it was in the public interest for him to possess the prerogative. It is contrary to the whole theory of our system of Government that the Executive should have the right thus to exercise the taxing power at his personal discretion. For this is what it is—a matter of Benjamin Harrison's opinion. The essential part of the proclamation reads as follows:

> "And whereas, *It has been established to my satisfaction* and I find the fact to be, that the Government of Venezuela does impose duties or other exactions upon the agricultural and other products of the United States, which, in view of the free introduction of such sugars, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides into the United States, in accordance with the provisions of said act, *I deem to be reciprocally unequal and unreasonable.*"

This is the language and the attitude of a sovereign—not of an official executing a law of the Legislature. The "effete despotisms of Europe" are accustomed to this sort of thing, but the theory and the practice of representative government in America have hitherto been that the taxing power belonged exclusively to the legislative branch of the Government. Under the reciprocity section of the McKinley Bill, Congress parted entirely with this prerogative concerning certain articles, and turned over to the President the imposition or removal of taxes upon them as he might deem best, and for as long or as short a time as he might deem best. The effect may not be disastrous in this case, but the principle is wrong, and the practice might lead to grave scandals if it were to be adopted as a permanent rule. Even before the issue of the proclamation, the price of Venezuela coffee to consumers in this country advanced four cents a pound on the strength of rumors that Mr. Harrison "deemed" it his duty to impose a tax upon it.

It would be strange if there were not felt in Venezuela a peculiar resentment at the action of President Harrison in levying a discriminating duty on the coffee and hides imported from that country. In the first place, the condition of our trade with Venezuela has been more satisfactory than in the case of perhaps any South American country—that is to say, it has been steadily expanding, has not been one-sided, and has built up a prosperous line of American steamers. Moreover, no Spanish-American country has been of late years so eager to be on good terms with the United States as Venezuela. She has shown hearty acceptance of the Monroe doctrine, and was quick to second the "America-for-Americans" talk at the Pan-American Congress. That she had selfish reasons for such a course may be admitted. She no doubt looked for help from the United States in her controversy with Great Britain as to the true boundary of British Guiana. In fact, she has repeatedly sought the good offices of this country in that dispute, and has obtained them. Secretaries Evarts, Frelinghuysen, and Bayard each made representations to the Court of St. James's looking towards a peaceful settlement of the quarrel. Mr. Blaine did not move in the matter during his first incumbency of the Secretaryship, though he seems to have done so latterly. But now all the good feeling brought about by these friendly relations is seriously imperilled by the retaliatory duties levied on Venezuelan products by the President's proclamation.

When the first telegraphic summary of the decision in the worsted-goods case, known as the United States, Appellants, vs. Ballin, Joseph & Co., by the Supreme Court, came from Washington, the *Tribune* concluded promptly that the Court had approved of Speaker Reed's course in the House in the Fifty-first Congress. It said that it had decided that "he was not a Czar"; that "he was attending to business"; that "the Court had decided, without a dissenting voice," that the members whom he counted in order to form a quorum "were there"; that it declared that "the Constitution had provided a cure for

wilful absence, and that wilful silence cannot then be made to render the House as incompetent as it had been before the cure was worked"; and much more of the same sort of thing. Commenting at the time (March 3) on these youthful inventions, we said:

"The Court holds that the rule adopted by the Fifty-first Congress for 'counting a quorum' was within the competency of Congress. . . . The propriety of such a rule is not passed upon by the Court, and obviously could not be."

These are elementary facts of American jurisprudence which every man who undertakes to discuss the powers of the Speaker ought to know. A man who undertakes to discuss these powers without knowing them ought to be a "disgrace to journalism," and some day he will be. The Supreme Court has not and cannot have any opinion about the "advantages or disadvantages, the wisdom or folly," of Reed's methods. It does not know and cannot know whether he was "a Czar" or "a tyrant" or not.

The full text of the decision has now come to hand. On the question raised in the pleadings, "Was the act of May 9, 1890, legally passed?" the Court says that there is nothing on the face of the bill, or in the journal of the House, "to suggest any invalidity," and that the journals of the House are to the Court conclusive proof as to the proceedings of the House; that the question whether a quorum was present when the bill was passed is, for the Court, settled by the journal. The presence of a quorum was ascertained under Speaker Reed's Rule XV., and as to the validity of this rule the Court says:

"*Neither do the advantages or disadvantages, the wisdom or folly, of such a rule present any matters for judicial consideration.* With the courts the question is only one of power. The Constitution empowers each house to determine its rules of proceedings. It may not by its rules ignore constitutional restraints or violate fundamental rights, and there should be a reasonable relation between the mode or method of proceeding established by the rule and the result which is sought to be attained. But within these limitations all matters of method are open to the determination of the House, and it is no impeachment of the rule to say that some other way would be better, more accurate, or even more just. *It is no objection to the validity of a rule that a different one has been prescribed and in force for a length of time.* The power to make rules is not one which, once exercised, is exhausted. It is a continuous power, always subject to be exercised by the House, and within the limitations suggested, absolute and beyond the challenge of any other body or tribunal."

It is not always easy to determine whether the State Department is "run" by the newspapers or whether the newspapers are "run" by the State Department. There was much perplexity on this subject when the Chilian difficulty was pending, and it was enhanced in that case by the course of the Navy Department, which seemed to be on the point of usurping the editorial functions of the State Department. Latterly, however, the State Department seems to have recovered its lost ground. In the Washington *Star* of March 15, for example, we read this:

"A State Department official said to a *Star* reporter this afternoon that in his opinion Salisbury was purposely delaying his answer until the sealing fleet had a chance to clear for Bering Sea. When they have gone so far that any attempt to stop illegal poaching for this season would be a failure, he will agree to a renewal of the modus pending arbitration. It would be too late then, and any agreement on the part of Great Britain would be a mere piece of political clap-trap, but according to the *Star's* informant the dilatory tactics of Salisbury during the past fortnight would justify no other conclusion in the matter."

In France, or Germany, or any country which has powerful armed neighbors, and where the issues of peace and war hang on a thread, such things could not be published with impunity. Any official who could be identified as the author of such dangerous impertinence would be dismissed from office and lodged in a fortress for a term of years, and the editor of the paper would be heavily fined. In this country we allow everybody to print everything, trusting to the good sense of the public to reject whatever is anonymous and sensational as probably false. Nevertheless, there is a residuum of belief that the anonymous and sensational thing may be true, and that although the "official of the State Department" would no more make such a statement over his signature (which is the only way he ought ever to make one) than he would walk in the street without any clothes, yet that this is what the whole State Department thinks. It is high time that some discipline were exercised to maintain common decency in the Department. If a newspaper which pretends to report the views of officials of the Department refuses to disclose their names, a rule should be posted forbidding any person connected with that paper from having access to the Department. This would be notice to the public that all interviews purporting to give the views entertained in the Department are fabrications. We cannot see any other way to preserve for the Department the respect that ought to be entertained for it by the people.

Although Harrison has secured the Indiana delegation to the National Convention, his opponents in the Republican party do not stop their efforts to prevent his renomination. Their opposition is based upon the assertion that he cannot carry his own State again. The chief newspaper organ of these Republicans is the Fort Wayne *Gazette*, one of the most prominent party organs in the State. Mr. N. R. Leonard, editor of the *Gazette*, has recently written an "open letter" in which he says that Harrison's renomination would, in his judgment, be a political mistake, and that he feels that a large number of the party in Indiana concur with him in these views. Mr. Leonard's reasons are thus frankly stated:

"Mr. Harrison is not a strong candidate so far as Indiana is concerned. It is more than doubtful whether he could carry its electoral vote this fall, were he renominated. In 1888, with the utmost assistance that could be given him by such men as Dudley and Huston, he only carried the State by the meagre plurality of 2,348.

There is a distinct recognition here of the fact that Harrison owed his narrow majority in 1888 to the "blocks-of-five" methods pursued under the direction of Dudley. The passage of the ballot-reform law has of course put an end to these methods, even if Dudley had the disposition to assist Harrison again. If Harrison could carry the State by only 2,348 plurality in 1888, when Dudley conducted a boodle campaign in his behalf, it certainly seems reasonable to expect his defeat in a fair election this year—reasonable, that is to say, if the issue between the two parties be the same in 1892 as it was in 1888. If the issue is shifted so that Harrison stands as the representative of sound money and honest finance, there will be no need of bribery to help him to carry the State. An honest election under the secret-ballot law will give him the State by a majority many times larger than "blocks of five" could secure four years ago.

The action of the Iowa Republican State Convention in endorsing Mr. Harrison, and choosing delegates to Minneapolis nearly all of whom favor his renomination, shows the hopelessness of the attempt to defeat the President's renomination. Iowa is Clarkson's State, and his old paper, the *Iowa State Register*, came out strongly in favor of electing Blaine (meaning thereby anti-Harrison) delegates; but the scheme was ridiculed by all the other party journals of any standing, and Clarkson himself was rebuked by receiving the smallest vote given any of the four delegates-at-large. Everybody but the dissatisfied politicians has seen for months that the President was sure to be renominated; even they must perceive it after the utter failure of Clarkson's anti-Harrison movement in the State which he used to boss.

Clarkson is a man of the Hill type, and he followed Hill's example in regard to the Republican State Convention in Iowa for the choice of delegates to the National Convention. The custom has always been to call such conventions late in the spring, but Clarkson, who controlled the State Committee, decided to convene it this year only three weeks after Hill's snap Convention in New York. But the movement against bossism which Hill's methods provoked caused a reaction against Clarkson also, and when the Convention met he found that he had no control whatever over it, and that he could not carry out his plan of electing an anti-Harrison delegation. Moreover, the revolt against Clarkson's plot is leading to such an exposure of the man by his fellow-Republi-

cans as he has never had before. The *Floyd County Advocate*, for example, says of him: "This man Clarkson as Postmaster-General, and as an unblushing representative of the spoils system, did more to demoralize, degenerate, and subtract from the Republican party of the nation its manhood and the vigor of its strength than all other agencies united." There is no State where the demoralization wrought by Clarkson's methods is so evident as in Iowa, which used to go Republican by from 50,000 to 75,000 majority before he began to boss it, and has now twice elected a Democrat as Governor.

Judge Cooley contributes to the *Atlantic Monthly* for April a strong argument in favor of the taxation of lotteries by act of Congress. He examines the counter arguments that such taxation would be an encroachment upon the domain of the States, and that it would give an implied sanction of the Government to vice by sharing in the profits of gambling. These sophistical apologies for lottery swindling are thoroughly demolished. The taxation of State bank notes by Congress is held by Judge Cooley to have been a wise, constitutional measure, going on all fours with the proposed taxation of lotteries, except that more conclusive reasons can be found for attacking lotteries in this manner than for attacking State bank notes. Judge Cooley notices the recent access of loyalty on the part of the Louisiana Lottery people, who have promised to retire from business since the Supreme Court decided the postal case against them. He thinks that we shall be in a much safer position if we rely on a taxing law than on the promises of reformed gamblers. At all events, he says:

"It will be very well to fortify any present law-abiding determination on the part of the managers by a law they cannot evade. Then they can pension the military chieftains who have so long been in their pay to guard them against being tempted into the low tricks and cheats of common gamblers and confidence operators, and retire upon their millions. A law that effectually takes their business by the throat they will bow to with great respect; neither promises nor the 'honor' of gamblers will restrain them from breaking or evading any other, when they believe money may be made thereby. The seared conscience is not troubled with scruples about law-breaking."

Senator Saxton's joint resolution for a constitutional amendment transferring the power to decide contested-election cases from the Legislature to the courts, which was adopted by the last Legislature, passed the Senate last week almost without opposition. If it shall now be passed by the Assembly, as there is every reason to expect, the question will be ready for submission to the people for adoption. There can be no doubt that it will meet with popular approval, for since the experience which this State went through after the last election nobody except professional seat-stealers can wish to have the present system continued. That experience would not have been possible had the power to decide all contests for legislative seats been lodged in the courts. The County Canvassing Boards and the Board of State Canvassers would not have ventured to tamper with the returns had their proceedings been subject to final review by the courts rather than by a partisan legislative majority, a majority which in the present instance was itself a fraudulent one, obtained by conspiracy and theft.

We recently remarked upon the amendment to the Copyright Law, now pending in Congress, which requires an author to deposit a copy of his book for every State, to be given to the libraries of State "institutions." The Faculty of the University of Virginia have forwarded to the Virginia Senators and Representatives a protest against the amendment. They say that they "regard this bill on the one hand as excessively unwise, in that it would encumber our State University libraries with a huge mass of useless literature; and on the other hand as grossly unjust, in that it would afflict authors and publishers with a tax always oppressive in character and frequently burdensome in amount." The Virginia professors are evidently not to be bribed to wink at literary thieving by a promise of a share of the plunder.

We invite attention to the speech of Gen. Stevens of Massachusetts on the Wool Tariff Bill. Mr. Stevens speaks with the highest authority, being himself the largest individual woollen manufacturer in the country. He has the support of other large and well-known manufacturers, including Robert Bleakie, Jesse Metcalf, William B. Weeden, Rowland Hazard, and Arthur Lyman, some of whose letters he read endorsing the bill now before the House. After such a presentation nobody can affirm that the bill is inimical to the woollen manufacturers. It may be said that its reflex influence will be bad by inciting the wool-growers to attack the manufacturers, but is it not likely that men having such large interests in the subject as Gen. Stevens have taken this factor into their reckoning also? If they can face the jack-o'-lantern of the Ohio shepherds, other people need not borrow trouble about it.

A municipal election was held in Biddeford, Me., the other day, at which 2,153 votes were cast, the result being a Democratic majority of 385. Outsiders have no concern in the question whether the Government of Biddeford is administered by Republicans or Democrats, but there was one feature of this election which is of great interest to all who are studying the development of our institutions. The *Journal*, one of the local papers, declares that votes were bought by the wholesale. "There are in our city," it says, "between 600 and 700 persons [the whole vote just cast was 2,153] who possess no political principles whatever, who also possess the right to vote. They are in the market for the highest bidder. So accustomed are they to make merchandise of a sacred constitutional right that the mass of them do not offer to vote at any election unless for a cash equivalent in hand. There is no secret about this. The boodle men who traffic in votes do not deny these allegations; they not only admit their truth, but boast of their ability to deliver their goods." For years past similar charges as to the prevalence of vote-buying in Maine have been current, so that these allegations as to Biddeford do not come as an entire surprise. They show the crying necessity which existed for the passage of a secret-ballot law. Such a law goes into effect at the State election next September.

The 'State Register and Manual for 1892,' just issued by the Connecticut Secretary of State, gives us for the first time, though in clumsy shape and without any summary, the results of the present license law in that commonwealth. There are 168 towns in the State, of which we find that 82 have "license" of liquor-selling, 81 have "no license," from four towns there are "no returns," and in one town the last vote on the question was a tie. By the locality test, "license" has now apparently a slight majority of the towns, as compared, if we are not mistaken, with a ratio of about three towns to two against license during the first few years following the adoption of the present system, some seventeen years ago. But by the test of population the dominance of the license idea is much more visible in the State. All of the twelve towns containing cities have license, and of the twenty-two borough towns all but five. The twelve urban towns and the town of Stamford alone contain about half the population of the State, so that it is within bounds to say that license is accepted by towns having not less than three-fourths of the citizens of Connecticut, and probably a much larger proportion than that. Of the eighty-two towns which voted on the question last October, "license" won in fifty-eight, "no license" in only twenty-three, and in one town there was a tie. In the towns which can be strictly classed as factory towns only two, Manchester and Windham, have "no license," and in both this is due to special or transitory causes. The figures are of direct interest as indicating how license gradually outstrips prohibition in an old New England State, where both systems have worked side by side during a considerable time. Perhaps the foremost reason why "no license" diminishes under those conditions is that a town normally favoring prohibition, but adjoining a license town, finds that it suffers most of the ills of the liquor traffic without taking in any fees, and naturally prefers to license and tax an evil from which it must suffer anyhow.

SENATOR HILL IN THE SOUTH.

THE chief burden and constant refrain of Senator Hill's speech at Jackson, Mississippi, was Unity. We are accustomed to speeches in favor of the Union, and when any public man talks of the Union we know what he means. But when a public man lays great stress upon Unity, we know that he means something different from Union, although it may be consistent with that. What Mr. Hill meant to urge and advise by that term was "Unite on Me as a candidate for the Presidency." Probably this advice was prompted by late news from the Empire State showing that the Democrats had lost, since their midwinter Convention and since they "presented" Mr. Hill as a unique gift and favorable specimen to the party at large, all that they had gained during the last two years, and something more. No wonder that Unity is the burden of song of this troubadour. Unity is wanted more in New York than in Mississippi. Unity on Hill is impossible in the former, however it may be in the latter, and this fact will become increasingly manifest and prominent as the weeks roll on towards the Chicago Convention. Unity on Hill is impossible, because the people who will not unite on him are those who care nothing for offices, spoils, rewards, places, but only for good government. They cannot be reached by appeals or threats, because the armory of politics contains nothing that they want or fear.

Turning to Mr. Hill's speech to find ideas applicable to the immediate concerns of government, and especially to matters pending in Congress, we find that he is very much opposed to the present silver law. Probably Mr. Hill's hearers wanted to know what he was in favor of rather than what he was opposed to. If such was their expectation, they were disappointed. The New York platform, adopted by the same convention that presented Mr. Hill as an attractive specimen and shining example to the party at large, denounced "any silver dollar that was not of the intrinsic value of any other dollar of the United States." There was no doubt about the meaning of those words. If Mr. Hill had any respect for his own party in his own State, or if he had any self-respect, he would say something about this all-important deliverance when he makes political speeches to Democrats elsewhere. If he speaks on the silver question at all, he is bound to tell where he stands; but he does not. He merely tells where the Republicans stand, and he does not tell that correctly. But this is of less importance than Mr. Hill's failure to say what he is in favor of. He implies that he is opposed to the Legal-Tender Act, or to the legal-tender decision of the Supreme Court, or at all events to the method by which it was obtained. But he does not say anything on this point out and out. If he had said, "I, David B. Hill, am opposed to any law which makes paper of any kind legal tender," we could have understood what he meant. But that is not his way. He is as far from saying that as he is from saying that he is either for or against the free coinage of silver.

The Southern people are famous for their hospitality to visitors. When President Harrison, a year ago, fresh from his efforts to secure the enactment of the Force Bill, made his trip through the South, he was received everywhere not only with civility, but with hearty courtesy. After such an object-lesson it was certain that any Democratic politician from the North who should make a similar trip would be greeted by large crowds and loud cheers, such as Mr. Hill encountered last week. The important question is, what the courteous hosts really think of the "visiting statesman" whom they have entertained, and this is already as clear in the case of Hill as it was in that of Harrison. The New York Senator delivered his speech in the Mississippi Capitol on Tuesday. On Thursday a canvass was made of the Presidential preferences of such members of the Legislature as could be reached, and only eight out of seventy declared themselves for Hill, while thirty-one were for Cleveland, with scattering votes for Gorman, Boies, etc., and a considerable contingent for "the man who can win." A despatch from Jackson says that "the complaint is general among the Alliance men that Hill did not define himself upon any of the economic questions which they regard as of vital importance. One member expressed his opinion by saying that he (Hill) went back to where the world was nothing better than a vapor, took a general crack at creation, and failed to hit anything he shot at."

The failure of Hill's electioneering trip is evident when a canvass is made of the people as distinguished from the politicians. Columbus is one of the chief towns of Mississippi, and a despatch from that place says:

> "One hundred and fifty of the business men of this city were interrogated yesterday as to their choice for President. The result was: Cleveland, 99; Hill, 38; Boies, 6; Palmer, 3; Campbell, 2; Gorman, 1. Hill's speech at Jackson has been a disappointment to many people here, and has not gained him any new friends."

There is, perhaps, no part of the country where the people have more contempt for a coward than in the South, and a public man could not possibly do anything so well calculated to forfeit their respect as to address to them long speeches in which he is afraid to define his position on the burning issues of the day.

THE SECRET OF WARRIORISM.

OUR suspicion that a large proportion of the warlike literature which appears in our contemporaries when we have any dispute with a foreign Power is the composition of patriots under eighteen, receives ample confirmation from a despatch in the *Herald*, last Thursday. Daniel Webster's observation in 1842 is certainly also true of to-day:

> "The great body of the intelligent people of the United States desire, I have no doubt, a firm and settled peace. But there are here, as in some European States, agitators, uneasy and restless spirits, who desire change, disturbance, and a new state of things. But a little more powerful class among us is made up of men of some consideration also, who, although they hardly desire war, yet as little desire a permanent and settled peace. They rejoice in instances of collision, in all incidents which ruffle the waters, and in whatever makes probable war a subject of speculation and conversation. I quite regret to say that our public councils are not always free from feelings of this kind, and these feelings easily spread and kindle under the fanning of patriotic professions, and an apparent readiness to offer conflicts to the greatest Powers in the world."

Ample corroboration for this is to be found in the fact that we never have the smallest difference with a foreign Power, when our newspapers and some of our public men do not *at once* begin to talk of an appeal to arms, to count our ships and guns, to accuse the other side of "arrogance and insult," and "mendacity," and "hypocrisy," and "deceit," and to assure the President of the support of Congress in case he should immediately resort to hostilities. This naturally excites the astonishment of diplomatists in other civilized countries, and puts to shame those friends of democracy who have been promising the world an era of sweet reasonableness under democratic government. For the model of diplomatic discussion in those countries is that of two gentlemen seated at a table trying to clear up a misunderstanding or make a contract on a matter of business. Our model, on the other hand, often seems to be that of two hostile "toughs" who have met by chance in a bar-room, and are bent on clearing off old scores, each watching closely lest the other should "get the drop" on him. No better illustration of this could be desired than President Harrison's first message to Congress about the Chilian matter. It was full from first to last of the grossest insults to the Chilian Government, which in private life no civilized man would think of uttering without expecting to be knocked down by the person on whom they were heaped.

The cardinal rule of all civilized diplomatic discussion is, that war shall be treated from the first as a probability so remote as to be, for practical purposes, an impossibility; just as in a discussion between two gentlemen each absolutely ignores the possibility of his having to punch the other's head. If at the outset either one of them were to take off his coat and his necktie, and ask the other to feel his biceps, and interrupt the conversation with stories of his pugilistic prowess, he would be justly considered a ruffian.

There is no doubt that the newspapers are to blame for a great deal of this. But as our readers may remember, we have all along maintained that a large part of the wild talk on these matters in which the newspapers indulge must be due to the extreme youth of the writers to whom foreign topics are assigned in some offices, and particularly in that of our esteemed contemporary, the *Tribune*. We have all

along held that the impossibility of extracting from these journals any discussion of the law or the facts of an international controversy, was to be explained by the general and natural ignorance of boys on such subjects, combined with the ebullient, unreasoning patriotism which all youths feel between the ages of twelve and twenty. In every country in the world, it is the minors who are readiest to rally round the flag and hurl defiance against a world in arms. The "Marseillaise," "Deutschland, Deutschland über alles," "Rule Britannia," and "Hail Columbia" are in their respective countries sung by the boys with a fervor of which their elders know nothing. But in no country but our own are these youths allowed to stir up bellicose passions in the public press, and propose to fight first and negotiate afterwards.

The illuminating despatch in the *Herald*, of which we have spoken, came from Lyons, N. Y., and related to "young Walter Scott, son of Walter Scott, Chief Engineer of the Columbus Construction Company of Chicago, and grandson of J. T. Williams, editor-in-chief of the Dunkirk *Evening Observer*." He comes, it will be seen, of a journalistic family, and lives with his grandfather. His age is sixteen, and "out of school hours he assists in the mailing department" of his grandfather's newspaper. But he by no means confines his attention to these humble duties. He it was who sent that now famous letter to the London *Times*, threatening Great Britain with political effacement at the hands of an army of 2,000,000 Americans, transported in an enormous fleet of steel cruisers. Says the *Herald's* despatch:

"All articles that appeared in the *Herald* in regard to Chili were read and reread with increasing interest and avidity, and he would occasionally send for copies of the London *Times* so that nothing should escape his notice that had a bearing upon the view foreigners also took of the internal difficulties of that country, and upon its relations with the United States. In addition to his varied reading on the subject he has written hundreds of pages on the progress of Chilian matters and the causes of the misunderstanding between that Government and ours.

"He is entirely loyal to the Stars and Stripes, and the tone and criticisms of the English papers were too much for him to tamely listen to. He therefore determined, without consulting with any one, to give the *Times*, and through it the people of England, a piece of his mind. He signed a fictitious name, as he was afraid his letter might be rejected in case he told just who he was. He was much in earnest about what he wrote, but could not resist the temptation to indulge in more or less imagination when speaking of the boundless resources of the United States, its ability to raise powerful armies, capture Canada and invade England, blotting it from the map."

Now what became of these "hundreds of pages on the progress of Chilian matters and the causes of the misunderstanding between that Government and ours"? Nobody will believe that an ambitious journalistic boy threw them into the waste-basket after they were written. Unless we are grossly deceived, a large proportion of them appeared as "patriotic articles" in this city. The evasion all along in the columns of some of our contemporaries of any examination of the facts in the light of law, the daily threats to let our navy loose on the Chilians if they did not submit promptly, law or no law, the contempt heaped on their courts of justice, the unshaken belief that they were secretly preparing to fight us, and had men-of-war lying in wait in various creeks, bays, and coves around Cape Horn, in spite of their forlorn financial and military condition—all these were undoubtedly the product of a juvenile imagination fresh from tales of Indian adventure, lives of naval heroes and of noted pirates and buccaneers. In that happy land in which the boyish imagination loves to roam, fighting men never count the cost or haggle over the causes of a scrimmage. They never ask whether fighting will accomplish an object, for the fight is itself the object. They never inquire in what force the enemy is coming, but simply where he is, and the bigger his force the better they like it. That he is torn by such passions as hatred, and malice, and above all by envy, passes as a matter of course. Willingness to negotiate is the mark of a coward, and that the enemy should lie in his "false throat" every time he opens his mouth, is what might be expected from people who differ from the President of the United States. Not to support the President when he is "at quarters" stripped for action is the mark of "a traitor," and finally, a people of 60,000,000 must always be in the right in a dispute, else what would be the use of being 60,000,000? We have never happened, in truth, to come across stronger internal evidence of authorship than these Chilian articles afford. What a rattling "journalist" Master Scott will make at the age of twenty-one.

THE SAVINGS-BANK LAW.

THE officers of the principal savings banks of this State have again brought to the attention of the Legislature the severe restrictions imposed upon them by law in the choice of investments, the effect of which is to limit the rate of interest paid to the poorer classes on their savings to the minimum of about 3½ per cent. per annum. The principle upon which the present restrictions rest is a sound one. It assumes rightly that the classes who deposit their money in savings banks do not possess sufficient intelligence or commercial knowledge to form correct opinions on the soundness of securities or on the character of the men who manage these institutions, and hence that the State must intervene to prevent them from being duped and swindled. This is entirely wise and just. Without some such regulation, savings banks could not long exist. The poorly informed members of the community will put their money with those who offer the highest rate of interest and who tell the most plausible lies about the prosperity of their undertakings. Indeed, this tendency to run after smooth-talking rogues and to force money into their hands, especially if there is an air of mystery in their operations, is not peculiar to the unlettered classes. The Woman's Bank in Boston and the Grant & Ward "Bank" in New York are familiar and well-remembered illustrations of the openness to humbuggery of the higher circles of society. If the State had made arrangements by which the victims of Mrs. Howe and of Ferdinand Ward had been restricted in their investments to savings banks paying only 3½ per cent. interest, they would all be happier men and women, and the State Prison would not hold some of its present occupants.

The petition of the savings-bank presidents is very far from being radical. It asks permission to invest the money of depositors in the stocks or bonds legally authorized of any city incorporated under the laws of the State of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Wisconsin, Michigan, or Missouri, having at the time of the investment more than fifty thousand inhabitants, as shown by the last Federal or State census next preceding the investment, and a total indebtedness, including the issue of stock or bonds in which the investment is made, not exceeding 7 per cent. of the valuation of the taxable property therein, as shown by the valuation thereof made for the assessment of taxes next preceding the investment. Other restrictions are embodied in the bill. If the city or the State in which it is situated has ever defaulted, the bonds cannot be taken. It is provided also that no savings bank shall invest more than 25 per cent. of its assets in the stocks or bonds of cities situated out of this State, or more than 2½ per cent. of its assets in the stocks or bonds of any one of such cities, or invest in more than 5 per cent. of all the stocks and bonds issued by any one of such cities, or make any investments in the stocks or bonds of any city situated out of this State which have been or shall be issued to aid in the construction of any railroad.

The law of the State at present allows investments in United States bonds or in the bonds of any State which has not defaulted within ten years, in bonds of counties and municipalities in this State, and in first mortgages on land in this State. Now the petition shows that the deposits in savings banks in this State on the 1st of January, 1892, amounted to upwards of $588,000,000, while all the outstanding bonds of the General Government, the States, and the principal cities of this State, amounted to only $887,000,000. The bulk of this sum ($649,000,000) consists of United States bonds for which the competition of the national banks and of trustees acting under orders of courts, not to mention life-insurance companies and private persons, is excessive. Leaving these out, there remains only $238,000,000

of bonds of the kind allowed by law, and for these the competition of other investors is very keen. In addition is only the field of first-mortgage investment on land in this State. Such investments are not immediately available in times of panic; consequently the trustees of savings banks must be sparing in their choice of such securities. Moreover, they have to meet here the competition of life-insurance companies which are not affected by panics, since their liabilities fall due in a prescribed order.

We have never been able to understand the opposition to this moderate extension of savings-bank investments. The bill has been before the Legislature several winters in succession, and although recommended by the State Superintendents Hepburn, Paine, and Preston, and by the Chamber of Commerce of this city, it has always failed to become a law. The present petition tells us that "The only opposition to the bill comes from those who fear that an extension of the limit of investment will cause a rise in the rate of interest on municipal, town, county, and village bonds within this State, as the banks are now restricted largely to this class of investment." This is a very singular objection, applying, as it does, only to bonds hereafter to be issued. As to all bonds now outstanding the rate of interest is fixed. It will not be altered by the pending bill or by anything else. If that is the only objection to the bill, it ought not to weigh much against the interests of the million or more depositors in savings banks in the State.

THE GREAT AMERICAN NOVEL.

No impartial observer can have failed to note the decline, if not total disappearance, of the idea that a great American novel was bound to appear in the fulness of time, and that it might be looked for any day. This expectation was one of the fixed articles in the literary creed of the average American but a few years ago. It was like the anticipation of the golden age or the millennium — a belief more instinctive than reasoned, but all the stronger for that. Those more reflective spirits who paused to argue out the faith that was in them assured us that American culture had now reached, or was sure soon to reach, a stage when the requisite ability and the inspiration necessary were at command and were employed to so large a degree in the writing of novels that the happy combination was certain to be made some day, when the novel that could be called both great and American would come forth to meet the national aspiration and desire.

Nor did they leave us in ignorance of the marks by which we were to recognize that novel when we at last saw it. It was to be as fresh and radiant as a young giant, for one thing, without a suspicion of old-world weariness or despondency about it. Then it was to be as broad and fertile as the prairies, as sublime as the Rockies, as majestic as Niagara, yet withal winsome and tender, vigorous, strong, and brave—a work, in short, in which the whole land and all the inhabitants thereof should be presented in expressive epitome. With this idea and description of the novel that was to be, well in hand, there was a great deal of critical running to and fro and crying out "Lo here!" and "Lo there!" Now and then a positive critic or not too modest publisher would announce that he had finally got his hand on the great American novelist, but somehow that elusive creature always got away before the public caught sight of him. Such disappointments, repeated often enough, were certain to bring about a kind of old-world weariness on the part of those who had been so often deceived, and it is not strange that their faith has become slowly disintegrated. It is a long time now since we have heard or read a word about the coming of the great American novel.

Meanwhile, American fiction has distinctly forsaken the expansive and the illimitable to run after the contracted and the limited. Instead of a national novel, we now have a rapidly accumulating series of regional novels—or, rather, so far has the subdividing and minimizing process gone, of local tales, neighborhood sketches, short stories confined to the author's back-yard. Probably New England and New England character have had to undergo the extremest forms of this literary dissection. In one case the operator cut so ruthlessly through a nerve—we believe it was a Cape Cod nerve—that she was sued for libel, on the ground, we suppose, that her pictures of local eccentrics were, as the man said of a portrait of his mother-in-law, "deplorably like." But the process has not been confined to New England; what Miss Jewett and Mrs. Cooke and Mrs. Slosson and Miss Wilkins and all the others have done for that section of the country, has been essayed for the South by Mr. Cable and Mr. R. M. Johnston and Mr. Page and Miss Murfree and Matt Crim and Miss King, for the middle West by Mr. Howe and Mr. Garland, and so on. Indeed, it is becoming necessary for the novelist to hold himself down to a single minor specialty with the rigor of the German philologist who spent his life in the study of the Greek article, and died lamenting that he had not confined himself to the dative case of it. Thus one author has lately been congratulated by Mr. Howells for having so perfectly rendered the life of Philadelphia!

At the same time that American fiction has thus been leaving the prairies and taking up with a pasture, it has also, in some of its manifestations, grown a little shaky in its patriotism, and shown a sneaking liking for the effete monarchies of Europe, and a predilection for foreign themes in general. An English critic recently remarked upon the respect which certain novelists called forth for "their commercial agility." What he meant he explained as follows:

> "I mean the sedulous gentlemen with handbags who scour the earth for local color, bring it home, and deliver it at our doors. There is Mr. Marion Crawford, for instance—*in cœlum jusseris, ibit*—who, though by no means an old man, has already written with equal dexterity and truth of India, Hungary, Italy, Germany, England, and America. And perhaps we owe something more than our respect to him and his imitators. In childhood we used to be asked, apropos of cinnamon and spermaceti, by a Nursery Guide to Knowledge, 'Ought we not, as we consume these articles, to feel grateful to the mariners who procure and bring them at such risk from the ends of the earth?' So these writers compel our gratitude."

It must be confessed that at first sight this tendency of the modern American novel to cosmopolitanism or to parochialism bodes ill for the old dream of a comprehensive and purely native work of fiction that would embody, while it unified, all the diverse elements of our national character. Yet it may be that we are really on the road to that for the first time. Must not analysis precede synthesis? Is it not necessary to make a minute study of each local detail of character, before we can undertake a novel that shall be not one but all Americans' epitome? We throw out this suggestion to those who have abandoned the old philosophy of the American novel. If it be asked what one brain will be equal to grasping all the accumulated details and blending them into a harmonious whole, we reply, first, that there are possibilities in collaboration which have not been exhausted, and, second, that it would be peculiarly American to bring mechanical and labor-saving inventions into the service and creation of the great American novel. Are there not calculators and tabulators in the Census Office which work by electricity? There is a hint in that for the novelist of the future.

At any rate, we are firm believers in the doctrines of demand and supply, the man and the hour, and never despair of the republic. If a great American novel is a public necessity, come it will. Our philosophy in regard to it may be faulty, but if we only believe in the fact with sufficient stubbornness, and persist in expecting it and demanding it, one thing is certain—we shall not wake up some fine day and find that the great American novel was written and published years before without our knowing it.

"SIMULTANEITY" AND "EQUALITY" IN BRITISH LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

LONDON, March 8, 1892.

THE adoption of home rule by the Liberal party seven years ago took the average British elector somewhat by surprise. He had not been fully educated regarding the question: his mind had not been exposed to a gradual process of attrition, as had been the minds of the statesmen who had to bear the burthen and responsibility of Irish government. And when with such statesmen the remaining film of prejudice gave way, the elector was much in the state of mind in which the statesmen had

been ten years before. The Conservatives carried the elections of 1886 on the cry of "No home rule," but perfect equality—"simultaneity and equality" with Great Britain in all matters relating to individual freedom and local administration in Ireland. Their pledges had up to the opening of the present session been redeemed by the imposition upon Ireland of a degrading and perpetual coercion act, and by a land act the discussion of which occupied much of last session, and which had fallen as flat as their bitterest opponents among the Irish party had predicted. True, such peace reigned in Ireland as had not reigned for fifteen years. But those who have any real knowledge of the country and its people—those not connected with the official classes and so cut off from all possibility of real knowledge—know that this peace is due not to coercion or fear of coercion, but to the ameliorative effect of far-reaching measures of land reform, to the impossibility of any people permanently maintaining such a fever heat of unrest as had been maintained, and to the calming influence of the certainty that the legitimate aspirations of the country would be fulfilled whenever the Liberals came back to power. A candid observer would be bound to admit that the Nationalists themselves materially contributed to the mistaken assumption that coercion had led to peace. Even they had not fully realized the calming effect upon the masses of the agricultural population of the reforms they themselves had effected. They overestimated the capacity of their countrymen for sustaining a condition of continued unrest, and for making sacrifices in protest against a system which, with Macchiavellian astuteness, was put in force so as to cause the maximum of appearance and elicit the minimum of opposition; and their insistence that increased coercion would in the present conjuncture be followed by greater unrest has not been justified. They were not, however, mistaken in the belief that Ireland in the long run would less than ever permanently submit to the system imposed upon her, that she had been educated up to a conception of her rights and what she owed to her self-respect, as she had never before been educated. They had not sufficiently borne in mind that hitherto she had carried forward her claims in wild outbreaks of passion succeeded by periods of disheartening lethargy, rather than by steady persistence. Protestants might be tempted to believe that she acted with less persistent stubbornness than a Protestant people would have done under similar circumstances.

So matters stood at the opening of the session. Mr. Balfour might yet redeem the promises of his party in the matter of equality, and vindicate his capacity for constructive statesmanship, as he had already shown his power to rule by bayonet and truncheon. The Tories and their Parnellite adherents, loud in their demands that Mr. Gladstone should lay before the country the details of the Home-Rule Bill he would introduce if he and his party came into office, made no such claim upon Mr. Balfour regarding local government, and up to the moment when he rose to propound his scheme, no one outside the Cabinet had any inkling of its provisions. It was possible he might wield the power he undoubtedly holds to pass a great and effective measure as an alternative to home rule. Never were those more justified who have all along maintained that the lithe being, so ready in debate, nonchalantly reclining on the Treasury bench, would be proved wanting in real statesmanship. Few who witnessed will ever forget the scene that passed as he unfolded his measure—the bursts of ironical cheers and laughter from the Irish benches, the amazement and amusement of the Liberals, the want of enthusiasm among his own followers; his own unintentional summing up of Conservative policy in the aphorism with which he half apologized for the provisions of his measure, that "It is often better to do a stupid thing that has been done before than a wise thing that has not been done before"; the half-scornful way in which he sought to cover the threadbare character of his proposals by saying that "after all it is not a measure to be compared in importance to the Crimes Act, the congested-districts provisions of the Land Act, or even the Light Railways Act of last session." Now, however, that we have the bill in print, newspaper-readers are likely to hear more about it, and it may be interesting to note its principal provisions.

To understand the present system of Irish local government by grand jury, and the proposed changes, it is well to bear in mind that as Irish land was brought under Anglo-Norman and British sway, it was divided into counties, and these counties into bailiwicks or baronies, aggregations of native *seisrachs*, or plough lands, now town-lands. We have 32 counties, 325 baronies (of varying number in each county and varying in size from 1,700 to 310,000 acres in extent), and 62,205 town-lands. Then, under the modern poor-law system, the county is divided into 163 unions. Local government of counties is now conducted by grand juries, practically selected by the High Sheriff, who is appointed by the Lord Lieutenant. They represent in effect a narrow ring of Protestant land-owners. They are transitory bodies, meeting only for a few hours twice a year, and having no power, except in the county of Dublin, to appoint committees or other bodies to look after the execution of work when they are out of session. The business is conducted by officials, the more important of them selected by the Lord Lieutenant. To a certain extent work is initiated in "presentment sessions," on the recommendation of the principal ratepayers, who are chosen under a complicated system of selection. Of the £1,400,000 county rates levied over Ireland, about half is spent by the grand juries on roads and bridges. The other half is levied peremptorily by Government and spent on lunatic asylums, extra police, and so forth. The taxes are raised off the occupiers. One of the prime abuses of the grand-jury system is the control of the levy and expenditure of money for malicious injuries to person and to property. Large sums are frequently drawn from the people upon the scantiest evidence that the outrage or the loss was malicious. Upon a recent occasion a drunken militiaman, quartered by the Government in a county to which he did not belong, assaulted and injured a policeman. Every ratepayer in that county had to contribute to him "blood money" compensation, although they were entirely innocent of offence towards him. For the widow of Inspector Martin, whose death was largely due to the infatuation of the Government in attempting the arrest of a priest after mass and in his canonicals, the grand jury of County Donegal levied £8,000 on an impoverished district.

As has been well said, "The notion always is that the way to teach these devils [the people] is to make them pay, and any public feeling against an outrage is soon lost in indignation at the means taken to avenge it." The Irish grand-jury system has for the past forty years been acknowledged to be entirely out of accord with all notions of representative government. The Poor Law is administered in unions by guardians, one-half of whom, *ex officio*, are practically appointed by the Crown. The municipal franchise in Irish towns, except in Belfast, is restricted as compared to the Parliamentary franchise. It is not, except in Belfast, extended to women, as it is in Great Britain. An Irish town has, generally speaking, not one-fourth or one-fifth the number of municipal votes of an English town of equal population. The control of the police and of education is vested in Dublin Castle.

Under Mr. Balfour's bill, the virtual control of the police and of education is to remain vested in the Lord Lieutenant. Beyond eleven of the principal towns, the urban franchise stands unreformed; the Government propose to retain the power of appointing half the members of the poor-law boards. The grand juries stand, and are to levy for malicious injuries. Half of the taxes are still to be levied and applied peremptorily under precept of the judges. It is proposed to constitute county councils, elected on the Parliamentary franchise, with peers and women ratepayers included; voting to be cumulative, illiterates being disfranchised. From the grand juries, from the poor-law boards, certain limited powers are to be taken and confided to these councils. There is nothing in the proposals to touch the imagination or call forth national or local patriotism. What is given with one hand is taken by the other. Initiative in all matters necessitating the expenditure of capital is left with the grand juries, or to a joint committee consisting half of grand jurors and half of county councillors. Boundaries and conflicting authorities overlap, as Mr. Knox, a rising young Irish member, pertinently remarks in an article in the *Speaker:*

"As there are many areas, so there will be many authorities. The intelligent voter will have to watch the fifteen baronial councillors for his barony meeting at one town, the Poor Law representatives for his Poor Law division meeting perhaps at another, the fifteen county councillors for his division of the county meeting at a third town, the sanitary committee for his sanitary district meeting somewhere else, not to speak of the other local authorities: the governors of the lunatic asylum and of the county infirmary, the drainage boards, and perhaps the harbor boards, all of which will have the power to increase the burden on the occupier. The popular local man who had to attend on all these local boards would never find time for any business of his own. The honest man would too often give up the work in hopeless disgust. If Mr. Balfour had been designing a scheme for the purpose of encouraging corruption, he could not have been more successful."

Worst of all, perhaps, we have an insulting and enervating system of checks and control never sought to be imposed upon similar assemblies in Great Britain. This is contained in the fifth clause of the bill, and provides for the removal of councillors by the High Court Judges, on the petition of twenty cess-payers, "on the ground of corruption, malversation, or oppression, or of persistent disobedience to the law." This proposal is additionally harsh in that judges in Ireland do not stand indifferently between classes, or between the people and the Crown, but are for the most part Government and class partisans, and chosen as such. A lawyer of nationalist or land-reform proclivities, no matter what his abilities, would have no chance of receiving the ermine. Clause 5, as it appears in the printed bill, is even more retrograde than as propounded by Mr. Balfour

in his introductory speech, in that while the rich would have the power of harrying an obnoxious county council, the poor would be deprived of the power of resisting oppression by the provisions as to security being given for costs of proceedings. Next to Mr. Morley's scathing denunciations, the most interesting passage in the preliminary discussion of the bill was that which occurred when Mr. Chamberlain declared that, after all, the powers given to two Irish judges by clause 5 were no stronger than those confided to Judges of the Supreme Court in the United States. Mr. Bryce's reminder of the essential difference of the two cases was crushing and effective. Within the limits of a communication such as the present, it would be difficult to make clear the complicated provisions of a bill under which it is further sought to maintain a system of bureaucratic government in Ireland under the semblance of representative institutions. Enough, perhaps, has been said to enable the readers of the *Nation* to follow the drift of the discussions likely to ensue—if, indeed, Mr. Balfour is really in earnest regarding the fate of his measure.

D. B.

RENAN'S 'DETACHED LEAVES.'—II.

PARIS, March 1, 1892.

MICHELET showed, in his last works, a curious sort of sensual sentimentality, that was almost a morbid form of senility. It is not uncommon to see a man, after having led a life of severe labor, end in this sort of sensualism, throwing an eye of envy and of regret at the past, and longing for the emotions and sensations of youth. Who has better described this state of mind than Goethe, at the beginning of his immortal 'Faust'? There was a Doctor Faust in Michelet, and there is one in Renan. All the dull work of exegesis has not killed in him the natural man; his philosophical dramas, "Caliban," "L'Eau de Jouvance," the "Prêtre de Nemi," and especially "L'Abbesse de Jouarre," show us a Renan very much occupied with the passion of love. One of these plays was given at the Théâtre Français, and Renan much enjoyed its representation, as well as the wonderful talent of one of the actors, Mlle. Reichenberg, the very type of the *ingénue;* somebody said cynically, after the performance, in the foyer, when Renan was paying his homage to Mlle. Reichenberg: "Is he going to spend upon Reichenberg the money he has made with the 'Life of Jesus'?"

Read, for instance, the first chapter of the new 'Detached Leaves'*; it is entitled "Emma Kosilis." "She was not of perfect beauty, but her face had an indescribable charm. Her eyes were exquisitely languorous; her eyelids, which expressed the most imperceptible quivers of timid modesty, seemed to have a soul. Her skin was so fine that the least acceleration of life betrayed itself by fugitive blushes—the sign of a secret which she did not reveal," etc. So Renan goes on, describing a little Breton girl. At the age of sixteen, Emma Kosilis falls in love with a young man of twenty, Émilien. The description of Emma Kosilis's state of mind is very subtle; a Darwinian would simply say that she was following the instincts of the species; Renan says it in other words:

"Emma's love was innocent as it was unconscious. . . . For whole days she remained motionless, abandoned to an amorous languor, which she enjoyed in perfect quietude, as one enjoys a warm breeze without asking whence it comes. . . . Naturally she said nothing of her feelings either to the man she loved, or to her family, or to her companions. . . . Her timid bearing made easy for her, without the slightest hypocrisy, that air of indifference and premeditated abstraction which is inculcated in young girls. What she felt was so vague, her imagination was so pure, the conversations which she was in the habit of hearing had always been so proper, that the idea never occurred to her that there was anything culpable in what she experienced. . . . Any hesitation as to the nature of what made her so happy, and of which she did not know the name, would have seemed in her eyes as sinful as a blasphemy against God, against the Church, against its sacraments."

The crisis came. She heard one day that Émilien was going to marry Mademoiselle ———. She herself, a few days afterwards, as lay-sister, entered the community of the Ursuline Dames, in the little town of ———. It seemed all very natural; she became a perfect Sister, though she never even tried to banish from her heart the thought of the beloved. "She did not distinguish her love from her piety, nor her piety from her love. Her austerities, especially, were penetrated by it. She found in them an extreme charm. Feeling instinctively that a woman must either enjoy or suffer, she found in mortifying her flesh a sort of ecstasy. She felt a deep joy in thinking that she suffered all this for the man whom she loved, and in telling herself that she would never look upon any other man than he. Her state of vague love drew from the long psalmodies of the convent a sort of powerful stimulant and augmentation." She did not, however, take the vow; for five years she lived in this sort of dream. The wife of Émilien died. Emma felt now a great agitation; the two young children of Émilien were sent to her convent; the father came to see them. They saw each other again, they understood each other without a word; and, shortly afterwards, they were married. She kept above her bed her nun's scourge. She often reminded her husband of what she had suffered for him, and how, during five years, she had mortified her flesh so as to keep her love; with his permission she wore haircloth on certain days. She was as the elect: "Quod habent desiderant."

This short story, written in the best style of Renan, is a perfect specimen of his method, or rather want of method. Nobody ever looked with more curiosity on what Darwin called the mystery of sexuality. Renan wants the man to be conscious, learned, without any superstition; the woman of his dreams is unconscious, ignorant, superstitious. If metempsychosis were a reality,

"I should ask, as a recompense for my brain-work, to come to life again as a woman, in order that I might study the two ways of living which the Creator has established, in order that I might comprehend the two poetries of things. I have reasoned and combined enough. I should like, in another world, to speak as a woman, with a woman's voice, to think as a woman, to love as a woman, to pray as a woman."

The same idea occurs in "The Double Prayer," one of the short chapters of the book: "I am astonished that no theologian has maintained that the prayers of men and of women are of a different quality. The two incenses, borne by the angels before the throne of the Eternal, would compose, as they burned, the perfect incense." Renan fancies that he heard in the Cathedral of Quimper a double chorus—that of the men and that of the women. The chorus of the women begins thus:

"O God, I believe firmly in Thy goodness, which causes our hearts to beat, overflows in our milk, fills our breasts, nourishes our little ones, causes the tranquil languor of our eyes, feeds our tenderness. We are sure that Thy spirit is in us, when our breasts swell; the palpitation of our bosoms is Thy voice."

I must confess that, without being prudish, I find such talk highly improper—this odd mixture of religiosity and sensualism. It is almost painful to see two such men as Michelet and Renan, at the end of honorable, severe, and laborious lives, indulge in thoughts and images which fill the minds of depraved and impatient adolescence. The whole of this "Double Prayer" is of the same sort: the men are dull and the women are not nice.

I find the same preoccupations in the chapter entitled "Love and Religion": "There is a great truth—the fundamental identity of religion and love. Yes, the Bible and the Gospels, wonderful books in so many respects, are particularly so for the manner in which the relations of the sexes are handled in them." Sensualism and optimism—these two words represent the synthesis of the long speculations of Renan. In a long article on Amiel he criticises him for the mournfulness of his doctrines:

"We must increase the sum of human happiness. We must speak no more of sin, of expiation, of redemption; we must speak to man of gayety, of goodness, of indulgence, of good humor, of resignation. As the hope of a future life goes on diminishing, we must accustom these transient beings to consider life as supportable; otherwise they will revolt. Man can no longer be kept quiet except by happiness."

Is it so easy to give happiness to mankind? Is it enough to offer to us the pleasures of imagination? "All men," says Renan, "have imagination, that is to say, supreme joy, the enchantments which never grow old; with the exception of a few pathological cases, there is no life so gloomy that some ray of sunshine does not penetrate it."

Renan drifts, as you see, into the doctrine of Epicurus, only he is not the Epicurean of the old school, with his head crowned with roses; he is more sentimental, more idealistic, more of a dreamer.

"The most dangerous error in social ethics is the systematic suppression of pleasure. Rigorously correct virtue is an aristocracy; everybody is not equally bound thereto. . . . It is necessary that the masses should amuse themselves. For my own part, I have no need of external amusement; but I do need to feel that people are amusing themselves around me; I enjoy the gayety of others. Temperance societies are founded upon excellent intentions, but upon a misunderstanding. . . . Instead of suppressing drunkenness for those who require it, would it not be better to try to make it gentle, amiable, accompanied by moral sentiments? There are so many men for whom the hour of drunkenness is, after the hour of love, the moment when they are at their best."

Here we have a very candid expression of the new Epicureanism I was speaking of. I ask myself at times if there is not a perpetual irony in the sermons of Renan; does he not say: "We owe virtue to the Eternal; but we have the right to join to it, as a personal retort, irony. We play the farce which has been played to us. . . . We wish the Eternal to feel that, if we agree to be deceived, we agree to it willingly and knowingly. We are resigned to lose the interest of our virtuous investments; but we would not like to be exposed to the ridicule of seeming to have counted much upon it."

Such language is not edifying; there is something really unbecoming in this perpetual antagonism between Renan and the Eternal, playing tricks on each other, on a footing of intellectual equality; and at times Renan would almost make us believe that there is no equality, that the advantage is on the side of man,

*'Recollections and Letters.' Translated by Isabel F. Hapgood. New York: Cassell Publishing Co.

that he regains in acuteness of perception and of wit what he necessarily loses in time and space. Man is finite, but his finiteness condenses what is spread for the Eternal in the infinite.

I doubt if such speculations can do any good to anybody. I can better understand the "Philosophical Examination of Conscience," which ends the volume, for here we are in the domain of pure metaphysics, though even there Renan seems to be haunted by his usual thoughts, by his perpetual visions. He makes us think, at times, of Saint Anthony tempted in his solitude. Speaking of love, he says:

"The time during which man loves is the time of his fugitive life when he is at his best. The immense sensation which he feels when he thus emerges, in a manner, from himself, shows that he really comes in contact with the infinite. Love, understood in a lofty manner, is thus a religious thing, or rather a part of religion. Is it possible that this old remnant of relationship with nature could have been regarded by frivolity and folly as a shameful remainder of animalism? Is it possible that an aim so holy as that of continuing the species could have been attached to a culpable or ridiculous act? We attribute to the Eternal, by this supposition, a grotesque intention."

I have said enough: this new volume, though it is written in some parts with rare delicacy, though the choice of words is of the rarest, though some of its parts are highly poetical, has left me under an almost painful impression. I regret to find so much weakness in such a solid intellect; there are thoughts which ought never to be spoken; there are secrets which ought never to be told. As "full many a flower is born to blush unseen," full many dreams of imagination ought to vanish in silence and night.

Correspondence.

A MYTH OF THE CONFEDERACY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following sample of what I may venture to call the *ex-post-facto* manufacture of history, considering the respectability of the magazine in which I find it seems to call for an early and complete contradiction.

In the *New England Magazine* for November, 1891, in an article entitled "Why the South was Defeated in the Civil War," by Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart, we find the following:

"A much more amusing case is that of Jones County, Mississippi. The 3,300 people of this county became tired of the burdens of the civil war, and by a convention held in 1862 formally seceded from the State and Confederacy.

"'Whereas, The State of Mississippi, for reasons which appear justifiable, has seen fit to withdraw from the Federal Union; and, whereas, we, the citizens of Jones County, claim the same right, thinking our grievances are sufficient by reason of an unjust law passed by the Confederate States of America, forcing us to go to distant parts,' etc.

"'Therefore, be it resolved, that we sever the union heretofore existing between Jones County and the State of Mississippi, and proclaim our independence of the said State and of the Confederate States of America; and we solemnly call upon Almighty God to witness and bless the act.'

"A resolution offering their alliance to the United States was not adopted. The sovereign nation of Jones County, with its President, Cabinet, Congress, code of laws, and conscription and confiscation acts—nailed to trees, since there was no newspaper in the commonwealth—was able for some time to maintain itself in the midst of the swamps against the troops sent to subdue it. Finally, by the aid of fieldguns, the infant commonwealth was overcome, and the authority of the Confederacy was restored."

As Prof. Hart premised, this was an amusing case of the ultimate application of the logic of secession. But, as I was active in those days, and became an officer of the army which invaded the State of Mississippi, and as I have a good memory of the current news of those times, I began to wonder that I could not remember so remarkable an event. I began to doubt the story. I addressed a note to Prof. Hart asking for the contemporary authority for the story. Not receiving an answer, I wrote to the County Clerk of Jones County and to the Governor of Mississippi. They courteously responded in a few days. E. B. Sharp, Esq., Chancery Clerk, says: "The report . . . is entirely false in every particular." Gov. Stone sent me the following letter, enclosing a second statement from his predecessor, Gov. Lowry:

State of Mississippi,
Executive Department,
Jackson, January 22, 1892.

Dr. Samuel Willard, Chicago:

My Dear Sir: I am in receipt of your letter of the 15th inst. in reference to the remarkable statements in regard to Jones County, in this State, and it affords me pleasure to inform you that the whole story is a fabrication, and there is scarcely any foundation for any part of it. To begin with, Jones County furnished perhaps as many soldiers to the army of the Confederacy as any other county of a like population. A large portion of the population of the county was composed of illiterate persons who had been reared in the interior, far from railroads and other means of transportation, and mainly without schools. Many of them declined to go into the army in the beginning, but so far as any formal withdrawal or resolution to that effect is concerned, no such thing ever occurred in Jones County. There were a good many who deserted from the Confederate army and returned to their homes in Jones County, and they, with others who had refused to go into the service, did join together in little bands to protect themselves against the conscript officers, and resisted the authority of the Confederate Government; but there was no general organization of such character; it was simply small squads of deserters and other persons who determined not to go into the army if they could avoid it. Many of them were arrested and put into the army, and afterwards performed faithful service to their commands.

I enclose herewith a letter from my immediate predecessor, Hon. Robert Lowry, who was Governor of the State for eight years, his term ending two years ago, who was sent to Jones County during the war for the purpose of arresting and returning these deserters to their commands. He informs me that many arrests were made, and many came voluntarily and surrendered to him and returned to the service. There was some little fighting with these bands of deserters, or rather, bushwhacking of his men by the deserters; and some of the deserters were arrested, tried, and executed; but only a few. The whole story is the veriest fabrication, and I presume few persons of intelligence will believe any of it.

Thanking you for an opportunity of correcting this slander upon one of our counties, I have the honor to be, with great respect,

Your obedient servant,
J. M. Stone, Governor of Mississippi.

The enclosure, Gov. Lowry's letter, in part describes the county of Jones as it was before the war, and as it now is, with a railroad and a prosperous trade in cotton, lumber, and turpentine, and in part deals directly with the question in hand. He says:

"The county furnished nearly and probably its entire quota of soldiers, many of whom did splendid service. Quite a number deserted, and only returned when captured by a regular command. No such effort as establishing a separate government was ever attempted. The men who ran away from the army in the field were ignorant persons, and most of them under the leadership of Newton Knight, and their main object was to get back to their homes and to avoid being caught and returned to their respective commands. Knight was an ignorant, uneducated man. The story of withdrawal and establishing a separate government is a pure fabrication—not the shadow of foundation for it."

I think the testimony I have elicited disposes of the fiction completely, and yet I fear it will run a long while on the credit of Prof. Hart of Harvard and the *New England Magazine*.

Yours truly, Samuel Willard.

Chicago, March 7, 1892.

THE ELEVATION OF BLACK AMERICANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Since the refusal of the South to permit of Federal interference either with the education or elective franchise of the negro, his Northern friends have naturally concluded that nothing in the way of legislation could be done to aid him. With the demise of the Blair Bill and Force Bill, there has sprung up a growing conviction that the South must solve its own problem. Discussion of the negro question has ceased for the time being. Northern ignorance and Southern apathy concerning his condition are enlightened and aroused only by occasional outbreaks which excite public attention and sympathy for the moment.

Such an outbreak, which throws light upon the true state of affairs in the South, is the movement of a large number of negroes from the Indian Territory and Arkansas to New York, expecting to colonize in Liberia. This movement appeals directly to the citizens of New York. But it is not so much the fact that we must exercise Southern hospitality towards these transient visitors, nor the outrageous misrepresentations of the American Colonization Society as to existing conditions in Liberia, but rather the ignorance and destitution of the Southern negro, which make such an imposition possible, that claims our attention. A talk with these negroes, or, better still, a trip through the South, including a visit in the slums of the cities or in the cabins on the plantations, will make the point still more clear. The visitor will view things differently from the Southerner, who puts up with the negro as best he can, laughing at his ignorance and cursing his stupidity. The fact that other men's chickens and other men's wives are common property among the negroes seems strange to the visitor, but the Southerner does not notice it until his own possessions are encroached upon.

The South is many millions poorer this year on account of the low price of cotton, and the negro is the last to receive sympathy in his poverty and destitution. The establishment of manufactories in East Tennessee and northern Alabama helps the negro but little, as the labor required is either imported or almost entirely white skilled workmen. Those upon whom the negro is directly dependent are most limited in means, and it now appears that the South is not able to solve its own problem. Nor can the millennium for the negro be brought about by statute. Because the South, with faith in the future proportionate with her success since the war, does not ask for Federal aid, this is no reason why individuals in more prosperous sections should not feel themselves in duty bound to aid his former masters in emancipating the negro from ignorance, abject poverty, and moral degradation. Nor can this emancipation be secured by proclamation. Systems must be devised and institutions established whereby influences and agencies will be set in operation which, *generation after generation*, will raise the standard of his intellectual and moral life and make him an important factor in the great industrial developments now promised in the South.

It is possible that a clear statement of the

urgent need of the negro, and a suggestion as to the practical line along which the remedy lies, may find some one prepared to push along a work that now lags. These are days big with opportunity for opulent philanthropy to immortalize itself. The cause of the college and the church has received substantial aid from generous men of wealth. The fact that this philanthropy has been exercised so frequently and so wisely is one excuse for the present industrial conditions which concentrate the wealth of the nation in the hands of the few. Persecution in Russia presented urgent claims, and philanthropy answered. Now pestilence and famine stretch out parched tongues and wasted fingers for those necessities which a sympathizing world hastens to supply. The crowded tenements of our great cities have received attention, and philanthropy has drawn vice and squalor out into the sunlight. Whatever the motive—be it for sweet charity's sake, to so bequeath an estate as to leave an undying name, or to claim honor as the founder of some institution of learning or the originator of some social system—it is a laudable ambition, and the fact remains that the needs of the hour are being met with cheerfulness and promptness.

For the evils which now beset the African race in the South the surest remedy lies in some agency which shall purify their home life. Remove the negro girl from the one-room cabin where all members of a large family eat and sleep, and surround her for a period of four to six years with the influences and environments of an *industrial* institute and college, with modern methods and equipments, and the corner-stone of African civilization is laid in the *home*. If it were possible to establish these institutions for negro girls generally throughout the South, the next generation would date their emancipation from the initiation of this movement. There are several poorly equipped industrial schools for negroes in the South, where the results for good are small because the students return each day to the degrading influences of their own homes. There is a crying need for boarding-schools for negro girls, where the moral refinements and practical advantages of domestic life can be instilled into them day after day and year after year. In the homes of the whites such women would be treasures as servants; or, as mistresses of their own homes, they would be blessings to the race.

Here is the opportunity for practical philanthropy to make a beginning. R. E. L.

New York, March 5, 1892.

A WORD WITH "G. B."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have always read "G. B.'s" letters with interest, and that of last week on "Parties and the Nation" is especially definite and suggestive. I am not sure the results of the change he proposes would equal his expectations; but why not try it in Massachusetts? Why should he not prepare a bill embodying this reform, have it introduced in the Legislature, and try to secure its adoption? It is easy to put any substantial idea into the minds of the people of a State, if it can be clearly expressed, to concentrate their attention upon it and obtain their assent or disapproval. This is the quickest and surest way to find out what the people will approve after adequate examination and discussion. I am inclined to think that "the root of the trouble" is not wholly "in the defective organization of the Government business," but partly in the average character and civilization of the people of our country. This is something deeper than its special manifestations in politics. We need a more direct study and analysis of American civilization than has yet been undertaken. The character of the people expresses itself more and more fully through all our methods of Government business and all our forms of political action. No system or agency can long keep our politics much above or below the level of our national character, and it is at least a question whether any change in methods or machinery would eliminate the essential elements of the stage of civilization which we have reached. J. B. Harrison.

Franklin Falls, N. H., March 16, 1892.

A NEGLECTED LITERATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In examining the biographical portion of the new 'International Dictionary,' I have been very much surprised at the omission of three of the most important names in recent Danish literature: Drachmann, Schandorph, and Jacobsen. Hundreds of names are given of far less note in European literature. This omission is especially noteworthy in the case of Drachmann, who is, without doubt, Denmark's greatest living man of letters. Is it not true that England and America, in their enthusiasm for the new literatures of the Continent, have strangely neglected Denmark? This little country is just now in a veritable fever of intellectual activity and literary production, or rather over-production. It is not in Norway alone that the impulse given by Björnson and Ibsen to Northern letters, has made itself felt. The three above-mentioned writers, together with Brandes, Rudolf Schmidt, Skram, Schjoerring, and some others, have attained a degree of literary merit that ought to gain for contemporary Danish literature not only the respect, but also the attention, of other nations. I doubt if there can be found, outside of France, a more promising and enjoyable field of investigation for the lover of the new and elegant and realistic in fiction and in verse. This fact has already begun to be recognized in Germany, where numerous translations from the Danish are being issued, and where belletristical journals abound in studies of the new Danish literature. In England and America, however, this literature is practically a *terra incognita*, except to the few who read Dano-Norwegian. So far as my knowledge goes, not a single one of Drachmann's books has been translated into English.

There are several reasons for this neglect. In the first place, these Danish writers are intensely national. Drachmann's 'Derovre Fra Graensen' is one of the most "national" compositions in literature. Another reason is that this new literature has had no advocate with us. Gosse has confined himself to Norway and to the older Danish writers. The same may be said of Boyesen. Anderson is interested rather in the ancient writings of the North, although his 'Literature' has introduced us, at least, to some of the new writers of Denmark. Again, Dano-Norwegian is very little studied here in America, and is supposed to be exceedingly difficult. It is, however, no very great task to acquire a reading knowledge of this language, especially for one who reads German. In any case, I trust that the time is not far distant when some enterprising publisher will make it possible for English readers to enjoy, in good translations, the more important of the literary productions of "Young Denmark." Mitchell Bronk.

Crozer Theological Seminary, Chester, Pa., March 7, 1892.

AN UNKNOWN WRITER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some months since I received two monographs (manuscripts) on or about the same day, one of which was from a friend with whom I am in constant intercourse, who desired me to review it. They were laid aside for lack of time at the moment; but upon being subsequently urged, I very carefully read the longest one, and found it to be one of the ablest treatises upon the tariff question that I have ever read or been called upon to revise. Believing this to be the one that my friend had sent me, I returned it to him, when to my surprise he said that it was not his; that he concurred with me in my judgment of its merits, and that he thought it ought to be published. Now I am very much troubled. The manuscript in question was anonymous. It was not accompanied by any letter or request for examination, and I therefore cannot identify the correspondent from whom it came. I know not what to do with it, as in the time that has elapsed no one has written to me upon the subject. I ask for this notice in the *Nation*, in the hope that the writer will make himself known. The title of the paper is "Protection," and it begins with an introductory paragraph from an article by Cardinal Gibbons, in the *North American Review* for April, 1891. I am, yours respectfully,

David A. Wells.

Norwich, Conn., March 16, 1892.

VOLTAIRE, NOT PHILLIPS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "Of course errors about matters of oral tradition are to be dealt with leniently, but they ought to be pointed out before they crystallize into the 'lies agreed upon,' which Mr. Wendell Phillips says constitute what we call history."

Voltaire had written ('Jeannot et Colin'): "Il n'y a certainement d'agréable et d'utile que l'histoire du jour; toutes les histoires anciennes, comme le disait un de nos beaux esprits, ne sont que des fables convenues."

A. I.

New Bedford, Mass., March 18, 1892.

Notes.

Prof. Romanes's book, 'Darwin and after Darwin,' is to be brought out in the United States by the *Open Court* Publishing Company of Chicago. The work will appear in England and this country simultaneously.

Fresh stories of Brer Rabbit and the other brethren are promised, together with some autobiographic matter, in Joel Chandler Harris's new book, 'On the Plantation,' which is at once to be published by the Appletons, with illustrations by E. W. Kemble.

Harper & Bros. announce for immediate publication 'Love-letters of a Worldly Woman,' by Mrs. W. K. Clifford; 'Monsieur Henri, a Foot-note to French History,' by Louise Imogen Guiney; and Mr. Howells's latest novel, 'The Quality of Mercy.'

The expiration of the copyright on 'The

Scarlet Letter' brings with it the announcement of two cheap editions, one by the Waverly Company of New York and the other by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. From either firm the book may be had in paper at twenty-five cents and in cloth at fifty cents. The last-named publishers will also speedily issue 'The Unseen Friend,' by Lucy Larcom. March 23 was the date of issue of the first number of a new religious quarterly, the *New World*, published by the same house.

Thought News is to be the title of a new monthly, of which the first number is to appear in April, and which is to be published at Ann Arbor, Mich., under the editorial care of Prof. John Dewey.

Macmillan & Co. promise for early April two fully illustrated volumes on the 'Remains of Ancient Rome,' by Prof. J. Henry Middleton. They are also to publish on March 29 Tennyson's new play, "The Foresters," now running at Daly's Theatre in this city. They announce, furthermore, a monthly issue of the more popular novels of Dickens in their "Dollar Series," starting off with 'Pickwick' in March, 'Oliver Twist' in April, etc. Accurate reproduction of the text of the first editions is promised, with all the original illustrations, and an introduction to each volume by the novelist's eldest son.

The Government "Atlas to accompany the Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies" proceeds with a second and third part which embrace the defences of Washington, of Paducah, Ky.; Northeastern Virginia, from Washington to the Potomac; the battle-fields of Carnifix Ferry, West Va., Pea Ridge, Ark., Shiloh, Tenn., Roanoke Island, N. C., Forts Henry and Donelson; the neighborhood of Corinth, Miss.; the siege of Yorktown, and sundry other maps, surveys, reconnoissances, and sketches.

If one overlooks the faulty style, sometimes resulting in nonsense, of Dr. P. C. Remondino's 'The Mediterranean Shores of America' (Philadelphia: F. A. Davis Co.), he may derive no little instruction from it regarding Southern California as a health resort. The author maintains and illustrates forcibly the thesis that an equable temperature, permitting free ventilation, is the prime anti-phthisical condition, quite irrespective of altitude, humidity, rainfall, etc. He also indicates the great variety of situations and climates in Southern California, suitable not only for different kinds of invalids, but for invalids whose cases appear to be the same, yet who do not thrive equally well on the same spot. The book is freely but somewhat capriciously illustrated with views, and also with maps and sections.

M. Jules Lemaitre has just gathered into a volume a fifth collection of his studies of modern French literature and modern French life, still called 'Les Contemporains' (Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern), although the rigidity of the formal portrait-essay is now relaxed and the papers here presented are often fragmentary. There is the same wit, however, the same honesty, the same exceeding cleverness, the same highly interesting exhibition of the mind of a nineteenth-century Parisian, cultivated almost to the point of reaction. Among the literary men considered in this fifth series are M. de Maupassant, M. André Theuriet, M. Édouard Rod, and M. Paul Marguéritte—this last a most promising novelist not yet as well known in America as he ought to be. Outside of literature are brilliant little papers on Boulanger, on the philosophy of dancing, and on exiled emperors. More than half of the book is given up to the delightful "Billets du Matin," contributed to the *Temps* two years ago, and constituting a pleasant variation on the accepted form of the *chronique*. Easy, graceful, learned, charming—these *billets du matin* give an impression of Parisian society quite different from that derived, say, from the *Figaro* or the *Vie Parisienne*.

After an interval of several years, M. Francisque Sarcey has at last followed his 'Souvenirs de Jeunesse' with a volume of 'Souvenirs d'Âge Mûr' (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern), reprinted from the *Revue Bleue*, where the earlier chapters appeared under the title of "Comment je deviens conférencier." Perhaps this is a better title than that the book actually bears, for the volume is devoted wholly to M. Sarcey's experience as a lecturer in Paris, in the provinces, in Holland and Belgium, in London. Like all his writing, it is delightfully frank, easy, humorous, and engaging. It abounds in anecdotes, many of which tell against the teller. It includes one whole chapter given up to an explanation of the lecturer's art, and setting forth, for the benefit of the novice, the rules which experience has taught M. Sarcey to devise for his own use. It provides material for a very piquant comparison of the old New England lyceum lecturer and the Parisian *conférencier*. Especially interesting is M. Sarcey's account of the methods of other French lecturers, of M. Legouvé, for example. Altogether, his 'Souvenirs d'Âge Mûr' (like his 'Souvenirs de Jeunesse,' for that matter) is as instructive as it is amusing.

'Brighter South Africa' (London: T. Fisher Unwin), by J. Ewing Ritchie, is a pleasantly written description of a short visit to the Cape and Natal. The most interesting chapters are those in which the writer gives the prevalent views of the colonists on such subjects as their relations to Great Britain, the treatment of the natives, and temperance legislation. Some light, also, is thrown upon the religious conditions, and especially upon the peculiar position of the Church of England in Natal. There is an excellent map, in which the places of the various products of the country are distinctly shown. Among these the gold fields are very prominent, but in view of Mr. Bent's statement of the immense tracts both of alluvium and quartz which have been worked by the ancient miners, the question naturally arises whether the gold, in Mashonaland at least, may not have been practically exhausted ages ago.

Dr. Bourinot is a recognized authority in everything pertaining to Canadian institutions. The first edition of his work on 'Parliamentary Procedure' had already so high a reputation as a trustworthy compendium of the law and practice that a new, revised, and enlarged edition (Montreal: Dawson Bros.) must at once take position as a standard book of reference on his subject. His historical chapters on the growth and changes of the government in Canada from the period of the French colony downward will prove instructive for American readers. As a study in comparative parliamentary law the book will be valuable to parliamentarians everywhere. As evidence of Canadian progress in bookmaking, the volume shows that in typography, press-work, paper, and general make-up, our neighbors need not fear comparison with the product of the best presses here or elsewhere.

From John W. Lovell Co. we have received the first three volumes of a complete translation, by Mr. Charles G. Leland, of Heine's poetic and prose works. Hardly a greater service could be done to American literature than to appropriate for it a writer who in breadth of sympathies, keenness of judgment, and irreverence of language seems to be our own, while his German romanticism and waywardness add to this that indescribable personal charm which we miss so sadly in most of our stout modern realists. While it must be said that the only true translator of Heine would be another Heine (which the present translator is not), it is only fair to admit that Mr. Leland has approached his difficult task courageously and with a good deal of spirit. The three volumes which lie before us contain among other essays and sketches the 'Florentine Nights,' the 'Rabbi of Bacharach,' the 'Book le Grand,' the 'Pictures of Travel'; and throughout this variegated and multiform matter there runs, even in the translation, something of the electric current from which flash forth the sparks of the original production. It is a pity that an author of Mr. Leland's power of reproductive imagination should not have had a little more scholarly conscience. For it is only to the lack of the latter that we can ascribe the frequent occurrence of most elementary blunders, some of them grotesque enough to form the *pièce de résistance* of a freshman blue-book. We subjoin, without further comment, a few of them—the gleanings of a hasty reading. "Profaxen und andere Faxen" (Pict. of Trav. i., 59) = professors ordinary and extraordinary. "Verjüngter Maasstab" (ib. ii., 8) = revived proportions. "Reifröcke" (ib. 9) = travelling jackets. "Jene Bretter die eine Festung bedeuten" (ib. 67; an allusion, of course, to the "Bretter die die Welt bedeuten") = planks which lead to a prison. "Die aufgeklärten Bäuche, denen jene Messgewänder viel zu weit" (ib. p. 259) = the enlightened bellies, a world too wide for the chasubles—etc., etc.

The sixth and closing paper of the series on Britannic Confederation in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* is by Lord Thring, formerly Parliamentary Counsel. It is an interesting statement of the present relations of the Colonies, as distinct from the Dependencies, to the mother country, together with a few suggestions as to the manner in which the bonds can be drawn closer. As the whole trade of the United Kingdom with Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and Cape Colony is less than 12 per cent. of her foreign trade, the writer scouts the idea that it should give up free trade for protection, but holds that they should alter their commercial relations in the direction of free trade. He also advocates, with Sir John Colomb, the formation of an Imperial army and navy, apart from the British army and navy, to which each colony should contribute men and ships, to be used in the colony in case of attack, but not for foreign service except with their own consent. Among minor details are the elevation of the Agent-General to a position akin to that of a minister of a foreign State, freer postage, and the interchange of the civil services. Illustrative of the whole series is an excellent map of the world so colored as to show not only the extent of the empire, but also the countries in which it has a monopoly of the foreign commerce (more than 50 per cent. of the imports and exports combined), British-owned steamship lines, naval and coaling stations, as well as all places in which are British legations, consuls, or vice-consuls.

The double fascicule of the *Bulletino della Società Dantesca Italiana* (September, 1891) contains a report of progress from the committee appointed, at the organization of the socie-

ty in 1889, to prepare a new uniform text of Dante's complete works. Prof. Michele Barbi, to whom the 'Vita Nuova' and the 'Rime' were assigned, is already well along in the preparation of the former, and Profs. Bartoli, D'Ancona, and Del Lungo publish in this number a "canon" of doubtful readings, which will serve as tests for MSS. of the 'Divine Comedy,' with explicit directions for their use. The society has also taken in charge an excellent plan, originating with the late Lord Vernon, of collecting photographs and other adequate reproductions of the various places and objects commemorated in the great poem. The prospectus includes more than two hundred subjects, the materials for illustrating a third of which are already at hand.

Societies founded for the special encouragement of the study of Dante's works and time have not as a rule been long-lived. The most famous has been the *Deutsche Dante Gesellschaft*, whose Year Books contained a large amount of valuable matter. The oldest in existence is that which naturally grew up at Cambridge under the influence of Longfellow, Lowell, and Norton, and was definitely established in 1880, since which date it has annually published reports with accompanying essays or bibliographies. Next (1889) came the Italian Dante Society, whose Bulletin is mentioned above, with its headquarters in Florence and branches in various cities throughout the kingdom. Last is the "American Dante Society"—located in this city, with branches in Brooklyn and Philadelphia—whose Year Book for 1890–1, now before us, shows a membership of considerably over two hundred. It also contains addresses before the Society by Drs. M. R. Vincent, Thomas Davidson, and W. T. Harris. A sum has been set apart from the treasury for the purchase of books for the library of the Society, which, for readiness of access, is to be placed in charge of some public institution.

The mail from Holland brings news of the death of Dr. Frederik Gerrit Slothouwer, a scholar well known to all Americans who have visited Friesland, and especially Leeuwarden, in the interest of research. He wrote the history of the University of Franeker—whose professors and students so actively influenced Dutch opinion favorably to American independence—and other historical works. At the time of his death he was Professor in the Gymnasium and Secretary in several languages for the Friesland Historical and Archæological Society.

We have before spoken of the influence of Toynbee Hall in getting the ratepayers of the Whitechapel district in London to vote for a free public library, and now have to record the gift of £6,454 by Mr. Passmore Edwards, to meet the estimated cost of the library building. Other subscriptions in hand will pay for the site, the fittings, and the books to begin with, so that the whole of the tax levied can be devoted to the working expenses and the development of the library.

—The second volume of the so-called national edition of the works of Galileo Galilei (Florence: Barbèra), published under the auspices of the King of Italy and with the aid of funds voted by the Italian Parliament, is considerably stouter than its predecessor, to which we called attention about a year ago. In this second instalment of the monumental work, the editor, Prof. Favaro, fully sustains the reputation he had acquired for critical discernment, excellent taste, and exact and many-sided scholarship. It contains a number of treatises embodying the results of researches made while Galileo was professor at Padua, between 1592 and 1610, and never before printed. During this period he delivered a course of lectures on military science, and especially on fortification, which attracted unusual attention, and there is a tradition that Gustavus Adolphus as a youth of fourteen came to Padua to profit by this instruction. According to the testimony of Oxenstiern, the Swedish prince showed remarkable knowledge of the science of war before he ascended the throne in the seventeenth year of his age, and the legend may have originated in an attempt to account for this precocity. These lectures, in which Galileo treats the subject as a branch of applied mathematics and anticipated by three-quarters of a century the principle so successfully employed by Vauban in the polygonal construction of bastion fortifications, have been preserved in only a few manuscripts, and are now published with the original geometrical drawings for the first time. The rest of the volume consists of treatises on mechanics, including statics and dynamics, the second part of the essay *De Motu*, and fragments of discourses on astronomy, with the "Dialogue Concerning the New Star" (of 1604), which, although bearing the name of Cecco Di Ronchitti, was essentially the work of Galileo. Exceedingly interesting is Galileo's letter of March 30, 1597, to his old instructor at Pisa, Jacopo Mazzoni da Cesena, who, in a treatise *De Comparatione Aristotelis et Platonis*, had set himself in opposition to the Copernican system, and is very politely, but quite decidedly, refuted by his former pupil. Galileo's invention of the sector in 1597 was contested by a rival astronomer and bitter enemy, Baltasare Capra, who had the effrontery to claim this distinction for himself. Prof. Favaro has published the documents referring to this controversy, including Capra's pamphlet with Galileo's marginal annotations and a separate defence of his rights by the latter, who denounces his adversary as a slanderer and swindler. The practical value of the volume is greatly enhanced by a complete index of proper names.

—The strong feeling excited by the forced retirement of Prince Bismarck has given rise to a voluminous literature of which he is the central figure. Many of these works are polemical and partisan pamphlets of an ephemeral character, while others are the result of thorough research and have a permanent value. Of the latter class the most important is perhaps Horst Kohl's 'Fürst Bismarck, Regesten zu einer wissenschaftlichen Biographie des ersten Deutschen Reichskanzlers' (Leipzig: Renger, 1891; vol. i., pp. xii., 418). The first volume contains a succinct chronological record of all the acts of Bismarck relating to public affairs on nearly every day of the year from 1815 to 1871. The usefulness of such a register of the life of an eminent statesman, as a book of reference and as a storehouse of facts for biographical and historical purposes, is obvious, and will be fully appreciated by all who have had occasion to look up information of this kind. Of special interest to rhetoricians is Hugo Blümmer's 'Der bildliche Ausdruck in den Reden des Fürsten Bismarck' (Leipzig: Hirzel, 1891; pp. vi., 198). The Zurich professor has studied Bismarck's speeches from 1847 to 1889 with sole reference to their rhetorical character, collecting and classifying the most striking imagery, similes, metaphors, historical, literary, and poetical allusions, proverbial phrases, tropes suggested by popular customs or derived from social and domestic life, and other forms of oratorical decoration and illustration. Many, and indeed most, of these figures are, of course, not original with the German Chancellor, but the common property of mankind; characteristic of him is his uniformly happy choice of them. The work is thoroughly well done. Fortunately for Prof. Blümmer's purpose, the speeches of Bismarck have been published in sixteen small octavo volumes, entitled 'Fürst Bismarck als Redner' (Stuttgart). It is a complete collection of his parliamentary speeches since 1847, edited and chronologically arranged according to subjects, with notes and introductions by W. Böhm and A. Dove. Another earlier edition of the same statesman's speeches, designed to give a connected survey of his political career and parliamentary triumphs, is Friedrich Thudichum's 'Bismarcks parlamentarische Kämpfe und Siege' (Stuttgart). It is in two volumes and is intended chiefly to justify the Imperial Chancellor's policy as embodied in the legislative enactments with which his name is identified, and only incidentally to illustrate his characteristics as an orator. It would be strange if the German muse should fail to sing the praises of Bismarck, but ballad-doggerel like Rudolf Genée's 'Bismarckiade fürs deutsche Volk' (Berlin: Hofmann) is anything but a worthy expression of national gratitude and admiration. Less ambitious and really enjoyable is 'Ein Märchen vom Bismarck und der Kaiserkrone' (Frankfort: Rommel), in which an anonymous author has made a successful attempt to narrate for children the achievements of Bismarck in the style of the sagas.

—It is a prevalent opinion that common schools, as we now have them, were an American invention. No legislation, it is asserted, taxing all in order that all may be taught can be traced back further than to the early laws of Massachusetts. Those who deny this assertion are content with showing something of the sort in Scotland and Germany a generation or two before the landing of the Plymouth pilgrims. The truth is, however, that, as much of our social wit is now credited to the ancient Greeks, something of our educational wisdom ought to be. Two centuries ago John Locke, as an able political writer, was invited to draw up a code of fundamental laws for the new colony of Carolina, and in like manner, more than 2,300 years ago, Charondas, a master of a similar type in Magna Græcia, was called to a similar task. This was to frame a series of statutes for the government of a Greek colony founded about 446 B. C., in the foot of Italy. This colony was Thurii, and conspicuous among the enactments of Charondas was the following:

"Charondas made a law unlike those of lawgivers before him, for he enacted that the sons of the citizens should all learn letters [or writing] (*ἅπαντας μανθάνειν γράμματα*), the city making payment to the teachers. He thought that the poor, not able to pay wages themselves, would otherwise fail of the best training. He counted writing the most important study, and with reason. Through writing, most things in life, and those the most useful, are accomplished—as ballots, epistles, laws, covenants. Who can sufficiently praise the learning of letters? Only through them are the dead held in memory by the living, through them those removed in place [as the colonists were planted beyond a sea which seemed to them world-wide] converse with those most distant in space as with by-standers. [See "Winter's Tale," I., 1, 33.] Again, in treaties among nations and kings the certainties of writing furnish the best pledge of persistent adhering to agreements. In fine, writing alone

preserves the most brilliant utterances of wise men and the oracles of gods, nay philosophy and all culture. All these things it alone hands down to all future generations. Wherefore nature should be viewed as the source of life, but the source of living well we should consider the culture derived from writing. Inasmuch, then, as illiterates are deprived of a great good, Charondas came to their help, judging them worthy of public care and outlay. Former legislators had caused the sick to be attended by physicians at the public expense, thinking their bodies worthy of cure. He did more, for he cured souls afflicted with ignorance. The doctors of the body we pray that we may never need, while we would fain abide for ever with those who minister to the mind diseased."

—This extract is from the 'Bibliotheca Historica' of Diodorus Siculus (Book x, § 13), who was flourishing at the birth of Christ and was the most painstaking chronicler of the Augustan age. The legislation is worth notice for more than one reason. It rebukes the self-conceit of those who hold that the education of all at the charge of all is an idea born in our own time or country. It has also been strangely unnoticed by historians who ought to have kept it before the people. Thus, Charondas and his laws are spoken of by both Grote and Curtius, but this law is brought to view by neither of them. It is possible that Grote never heard of it, for he denies Charondas the credit of any legislative originality. Only in Weber ('Weltgeschichte,' vol. ii., p. 215) is this mother and model of a school law for the masses allowed a single line of mention, thus: "Alle Kinder sollen die vom Staat unterhaltenen Lese-schulen besuchen." Short as is this notice, it is not quite correct. The law of Charondas did not provide for the instruction of all children, but only for that of all *sons*. Sons is the word of Diodorus. Female education in common schools, this crowning key-stone in the arch of culture—this new thing under the sun—we may claim as a Yankee notion, pure and simple.

—A "trustworthy history of the city of New York" can be offered to the public without any apology, and it is earnestly to be hoped that such a work is to be found in the 'Memorial History,' edited by James Grant Wilson (New York History Co.), of which the first volume is now at hand. Many and important works have already appeared, purporting to be histories of the city, but they are for the most part merely elaborate and picturesque narratives of imposing events, and none of them seeks seriously to trace the causes or results of the incidents described. What book can claim to be a history in any true sense that devotes as many as fifty pages to the celebration of the opening of the Erie Canal, and not one to the social, economic, and political results of the event; that ignores entirely the changes by which in scarcely a decade the "nativist" constituency of the city was so transformed as to present a majority which was foreign by birth or extraction, and that omits even to record the first great political struggle to which this transformation gave rise; that fails almost entirely to notice the course of political events since 1857—the régime of Fernando Wood, the control of the city government from Albany established by Thurlow Weed through his State Commissions, the supremacy of Tweed and the beginning of the movement towards home rule through his charter, the reëstablishment of Tammany Hall (its organization and by-laws should be published everywhere to show that it is the most undemocratic political organization in the land), and the later struggles for simplicity and unity in the administration and for reform in the machinery of elections? In none of the many "histories" of New York are these matters considered. Two-thirds of every work hitherto published is devoted to the time before 1820, and of this most refers to the colonial period, when the city's population was only 20,000. But the New York of 20,000 inhabitants has little interest and little importance compared with New York the metropolis. The "history of New York" which will be welcome will deal fully, indeed, with the colonial as well as the later periods, but will particularly recognize that modern New York begins its existence about 1850, and that its growth since then deserves the most patient and laborious study and the most exhaustive treatment. In one of the best extant "histories" of the city—a work of 800 pages, recently published, and claiming to be complete to the year 1880—eight pages are deemed sufficient for the social and political development since 1857! It is to be hoped that the 'Memorial History' will fill the gap here indicated. The first volume is a satisfactory review of the seventeenth century, and if the quality of the work is maintained, there seems to be promise of a real history of the later times.

LOUNSBURY'S CHAUCER.—II.

Studies in Chaucer, his Life and Writings. By Thomas R. Lounsbury, Professor of English in the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale University. 3 vols. Harper & Brothers. 1892.

"Chaucer's Relation to the Religion of his Time" is a very brilliant essay. The attempt to make the poet out a Wicliffite is first discussed, and its errors of fact and inference are exposed. Chaucer, Mr. Lounsbury insists, though he satirized the vices of the clergy, was in no sense a controversialist or a religious reformer: "he lived and moved in the dry light of the literary atmosphere, free from the passions that stirred the hearts of his contemporaries and the prejudices that warped their judgments." This is an extreme form of statement, and easily lends itself to misconstruction. Probably Mr. Lounsbury does not mean that Chaucer was not in every way a man of his age. If he had not been that, we should have had to do without the 'Canterbury Tales.' Dry light is *not* the best for some purposes. It is a foible of our self-satisfied time to think and to call such of the great of old as we condescend to admire "moderns"—that is, men intellectually and morally ripe enough for the enlightened present, though condemned by fate to pass their days in a century too young for them. This feeling shows itself, perhaps, in the sentence just quoted. It comes out still more clearly when Mr. Lounsbury passes from considering what Chaucer was not to a consideration of what he was. Chaucer's intellect, he tells us, was by nature sceptical; he was never spiritually minded, and, though he began his career with an honest, if not an enthusiastic, belief in the dogmas of the Church, he had become, long before the end of his life, something very like "a modern agnostic." "The general view of all his productions leaves upon the mind the impression that his personal religious history was marked by the dwindling devoutness of so many lives—the fallings from us, the vanishings, we know not how or when, of beliefs in which we have been bred." Now we are convinced that Chaucer was not a saint or a devotee. We are not concerned to prove him a good Catholic or even a good Christian. But we cannot think that Mr. Lounsbury has made out a case. His conclusion appears to us to rest in large part upon a misinterpretation of the spirit of the passages that he uses as evidence.

That Chaucer speaks of the Deity at times in a way that would nowadays be irreverent—as where he remarks, in exalting the beauty of Dido, that if God Himself wished for a mate, He could find no fairer lady—is a fact of no moment in this discussion. The moral Gower, whose devout orthodoxy may almost be termed notorious, does not hesitate, in emphasizing the impossibility of a niggard's succeeding in love, to assert that "with gift a man may undertake to please the high God." And in his enthusiasm over the reception of Jason in Colchis, he ventures upon a still more daring comparison:

> "Of him made every man a speche,
> Some man said on, some said an other;
> But *though he were goddes brother,*
> *And mighte make fire and thonder,*
> Ther mighte be no more wonder,
> Than was of him in that citee." (Ed. Pauli, ii., 255.)

Again, Mr. Lounsbury affirms that "the critical spirit is applied by Chaucer to the facts of the Bible as coolly as by the most cold-blooded of rationalists or the most scoffing of infidels." The only example cited in support of this rather strong statement is the attack made on Solomon by Proserpine in the 'Merchant's Tale.' The goddess calls Solomon "a lecher and an idolaster." These accusations, Mr. Lounsbury is forced to admit, are Bible truth; but he insists that the charge "would never have been so bluntly stated by a spiritually minded man." Surely at this point a demurrer may be interposed. The charge is not stated by a spiritually minded man; it is stated by a heathen goddess in the heat of an animated discussion with her Tartarean husband. However, it will be as well not to press this demurrer, for, if the context be scanned, Proserpine will be found appealing to her Bible in a fashion that makes this passage particularly unfit for Mr. Lounsbury's purpose. And, after all, was there any obligation on the most spiritually minded of men to treat Solomon's memory tenderly? Has Mr. Lounsbury forgotten that, in spite of Dante's doubts, the author of 'Piers Plowman' felt justified in associating the wisest of kings with the wisest of philosophers, and in proclaiming of Solomon and Aristotle: "al holicherche holdeth hem bothe ydampned"?

The two passages on which Mr. Lounsbury mainly relies, however, are the opening verses of the Prologue to the 'Legend of Good Women' and lines 1951-1958 of the 'Knight's Tale.' Both these passages are torn from the context, and ruthlessly compelled to give evidence without consulting their neighbors and friends. The result is startling. Boccaccio had devoted two or three stanzas to tracing the itinerary of Arcita's soul among the spheres. Chaucer had admired the description and had used it in the 'Troilus.' In the 'Knight's Tale,' therefore, written years afterward, he preferred not to employ the same rather frigid lines a second time. His taste had improved, and he accordingly inserted in the appropriate place a good-natured fling at the essential absurdity of the original—a fling which he enjoyed the more for being as much at himself as at Boccaccio. Out of this Mr. Lounsbury has extracted a confession of unfaith. "Can modern agnosticism," he asks, "point to a denial more emphatic . . . of the belief that there exists for us any assurance of the life that is lived beyond the grave?" The passage from the 'Legend,' which is used by Chaucer merely to introduce what he says of the authority of books, is thus summed up: "Chaucer [here]

indicates clearly his opinion that none have any real acquaintance with the nature of the future life of which they speak so confidently." Let us be preciser and say: "Chaucer indicates clearly his opinion that nobody whom he has ever seen has an *experimental knowledge* of the nature of the future life." An unexceptionable sentiment, for Chaucer's century or for our own! In all this we are not trying to establish Chaucer's belief in heaven and hell or in anything whatever. We are merely protesting against what seem to us inquisitorial methods. A poem is no more likely than a man to give trustworthy evidence under torture.

So eager is Mr. Lounsbury in pressing his point that he is ready to assert that Chaucer sometimes clothed his attacks on the Church in ambiguous language in order to avoid trouble. "It was doubtless essential to his comfort, if not to his safety, that his words could be taken in a double sense." So of the comments on the archdeacon's curse in the general Prologue. This will hardly do. It is humor, not prudence, that led Chaucer to "speak in amphibologies" on such occasions. Once more, Mr. Lounsbury declares that it is indicative of Chaucer's decline in faith in later life that he found "his keenest delight in the exposure of that dry-rot in religion when men no longer practise what they preach," etc. But Chaucer took no keener delight, to all seeming, in portraying the rascally pardoner or the hypocritical friar than in describing the good priest, the pious ploughman, or the unworldly clerk. The argument defeats itself. In the 'Wife's' Prologue Mr. Lounsbury discovers a "revolutionary document." This, with the host's raillery of the monk, is Chaucer's protest, he thinks, against the celibate ideal. "It was a triumph of literary art to put forward heterodox views prominently, and not subject himself to condemnation for their avowal." Here Mr. Lounsbury is unconsciously forsaking his hard-won ground. The purely literary man, resident in the dry light of belles-lettres, the non-controversialist, becomes of a sudden the social reformer—and that on the evidence of the Wife of Bath! The Prologue expresses the sentiments of that "worthy woman"; of so much we may be sure. To assume that it also expresses the sentiments of Chaucer is no more safe than to assume that the poet's marriage "was not a success," as Prof. Hales puts it, because the merchant satirizes wedlock. It is venturesome to select all the "modern" ideas uttered by any of the Canterbury pilgrims and to ascribe them to Chaucer, while we allow all those ideas that we think distinctly mediæval to remain the property of the speakers. Chaucer is a narrative poet, to be sure, as Mr. Lounsbury reminds us, but the conditions of his problem in the construction of the 'Canterbury Tales' demanded that he should be a dramatic artist as well.

The third volume of the 'Studies,' which many readers will find the most attractive of the work, consists of two long papers, "Chaucer in Literary History," and "Chaucer as a Literary Artist." In the first of these Mr. Lounsbury has undertaken a history of the reputation of Chaucer. His task was one of peculiar difficulty. It demanded not only learning and industry in the collection of materials scattered through the prose and verse of almost five hundred years, but nice discrimination in weighing testimony, a just and catholic spirit in estimating obsolete critical standards, and rare powers of selection, combination, and arrangement. The unquestioned supremacy of Chaucer in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, the whimsically mistaken reverence paid him by the Puritan reformers of the sixteenth on the strength of a spurious work, his influence on Spenser and the Elizabethans, the decline of his fame and its revival through the vogue of Dryden's "Fables"—these are some of the subjects which Mr. Lounsbury has had to treat. In his account of the Chaucer "translations," from Dryden's to Horne's, he has put a neglected chapter of literary history into what may be deemed final shape. The curiously inconsistent effect of the modernizations in keeping the poet's name up while they prevented everybody from finding out anything about him at first hand, is clearly brought out. In illustrating the misapprehensions of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, when Chaucer's language was supposed to be hopelessly archaic, his verse harsh and often unmetrical, and his diction clumsy and obscure, Mr. Lounsbury has been obliged to characterize a series of attempted imitations of Chaucer, and here again he has supplied a considerable lacuna in the annals of letters. In a word, this whole paper is an appreciable contribution to knowledge. The author has so marshalled his facts and has chosen his illustrative quotations with such excellent judgment that the reader is never wearied or confused by their abundance. He has contrived to be methodical without being formal, and solidly instructive without deviating into dulness.

The concluding portion of the essay, however, we have read with many misgivings. It is a plea for modern spelling in our texts of Chaucer and for modern pronunciation in reading them. Special students, says Mr. Lounsbury, can always revert to editions in fourteenth-century orthography, and can indulge their fancy in efforts to reproduce fourteenth-century sounds; but for the general reader, and even for the man of letters, the spelling and the pronunciation of our own day will suffice. Only by this process of modernization can Chaucer become so well and widely known as he should be, and all pedantic predilections should give way to these considerations of utility. Fortunately, Mr. Lounsbury has tried to practise what he preaches, and has modernized the extracts from the poet which he has quoted in the course of his work. We say "fortunately," for, in our opinion, the attempt to read these extracts as thus printed will best counteract the influence which his utterances would otherwise exert. In the first place, the cutting off of final *-e* in rhyme quite misrepresents the melody and movement of Chaucer's verse. Further, since *-e* and *-en* have to be preserved in the interior of the line, the reader will not fail to notice that the resultant forms are often neither of the fourteenth century nor of the present time. Again, many words that look familiar when spelled in modern fashion, lose that air when it is discovered that they cannot be accented in modern fashion without destroying the measure. In a word, that absence of strangeness which it is Mr. Lounsbury's aim to effect, is seen to be attained in no appreciable degree. Modern spelling and modern pronunciation will not make Chaucer's words familiar in look and in sound unless we fall back to the practice of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries and disregard the metre. But this is not all. The student who tries to read Mr. Lounsbury's modernized quotations will find himself in a curious dilemma. *Anon* and *stone*, *shall* and *all*, *case* and *was*, *shoe* and *in principio* will not rhyme. What is the reader to do? Shall he content himself with imperfect rhymes? He is mangling the verses of the most melodious of poets. Shall he accommodate the pronunciation of *shall* to that of *all*, the pronunciation of *was* to that of *case*? He is abandoning the principle of modernization. With this dilemma the subject may be left. We regret that Mr. Lounsbury has lent the weight of his authority to pervert many who, but for him, might have made a shift to acquire some system of pronunciation which, though perhaps philologically imperfect, would at least reasonably well satisfy the requirements of practice.

The second part of this volume is in a manner complementary to "The Chaucer Legend," for a good portion of it is devoted to exploding critical fatuities. Literary critics have always been exasperatingly irresponsible; and small blame to them, for none of them has ever promulgated an absurdity so monstrous as not to be hailed by his disciples as a proof of "insight." But there are indications to-day that criticism is very specially anxious to emancipate itself from accountability. The old magisterial way of valuing an author according as he did or did not conform to certain arbitrary rules supposed to have been laid down by the ancients for their own guidance, was bad enough; but the new fashion of pretending that you are an initiate in some mysterious thought free-masonry by means of which your author speaks to you directly, heart to heart, in a language which you will do your best to translate to the world, but of whose grammar and vocabulary you can give no account, is downright pernicious, however interesting as a sign of the marked tendency of this age to dabble in occult sciences. Peculiarly irritating is this sort of criticism when it rests on tradition after all—when the critic is detected translating into what he calls human speech, *not* the results of some esoteric communion with the astral spirit of his author, but the results of inherited misapprehension and ignorance.

No great poet has suffered more from the incompetency of his critics than Chaucer, and therefore much that still passes current as opinion about him is pitifully out of the way. Mr. Lounsbury's paper is, then, a welcome contribution to Chaucer literature. The masculine qualities of style and judgment which he has evinced in dealing with other departments of his subject are equally evident here. The belief that Chaucer was an inspired barbarian, who sang, without art, what the gods put into his head, is perhaps not entertained by anybody at the present time in quite so gross a form as that in which it prevailed a hundred and fifty years ago; but various ludicrous notions founded on that belief are still cherished here and there. We may well be grateful, therefore, to Mr. Lounsbury for demonstrating that Chaucer was his own severest critic, and that his constant progress in literary and poetic art was not made unconsciously. In dwelling on this side of Chaucer's nature Mr. Lounsbury has, perhaps, failed to emphasize sufficiently that spontaneity which was an equally striking characteristic of his genius. But this is a slight defect at most. The chapter is very able throughout—clearly and cogently written, and not above giving reasons for the faith that is in it. It is not only a lesson in Chaucer, but a lesson in conscientious and sensible criticism—the admirable ending of an admirable book.

With 1900, the 500th year of Chaucer's posthumous fame will be finished. Many scholars are busy studying the poet, and much has been accomplished; but heretofore the results arrived at have been mainly tentative; and, even when sound conclusions have been reached, they have usually been put forth in forms laying small claim to permanence. Hence the hopeful ex-

pectancy with which we wait for Mr. Skeat's promised edition of the 'Canterbury Tales'; and hence, too, our satisfaction in the thorough, scholarly, and in many respects final 'Studies' of Mr. Lounsbury, which will go far to enable American learning to face the coming anniversary without shame.

LORD ROSEBERY'S PITT.

Pitt. By Lord Rosebery. New York: Macmillan & Co.

THERE is probably still in England, as there was in the days of Horace Walpole, a decorous predilection for royal and noble authors. A more reasonable interest is felt in a life of a statesman written by one who himself aspires to that part. Lord Rosebery has perhaps had the benefit of both these sentiments. His work, however, if not masterly, is thoroughly clever. It shows, as might be expected, parliamentary experience and familiarity with political and diplomatic history. It is lively and sometimes trenchant in style, and nowhere smells of the House of Lords.

Lord Rosebery does not note the European significance of Pitt's figure as one of that group of reformers before the French Revolution upon which history looks back with a wistful eye. Seen from this point of view, Pitt is the companion of Frederick the Great, Joseph II., Catherine of Russia, Leopold of Tuscany, Pombal, Aranda, Tanucci, and Turgot. All these sovereigns and ministers, imbued more or less with the philosophy of the eighteenth century, had in their various ways and different degrees been ushering in a policy of enlightenment, beneficence, and toleration. They had as their fellow-workers philanthropists like Howard and Wilberforce, as well as economists like Adam Smith, whose follower Pitt was proud to be. The immense influence of Voltaire, whether entirely wholesome or not, and the homage paid to him and other leaders of literature by crowned heads, showed that intellect was gaining ascendancy over force. A happy change was coming by a quiet process over the general spirit of government and legislation. War itself seemed to be gradually wearing out, and on the eve of the Revolution Pitt looked forward to a long reign of peace, and to such a reduction of taxation as would have enabled him to abolish customs duties and thereby probably to open an era of free trade to mankind. Why could not destiny continue to hold that course? Was it inevitable that the work of peaceful improvement should be wrecked by a sudden eruption of revolutionary violence in France; that a reign of terror should ensue, staining the course of progress with unutterable crimes; that this should be followed by the military rule of a Corsican marauder of mighty genius trampling the civilization to which he was an alien beneath the feet of his devastating hosts, and bequeathing to the succeeding generations the legacy of a revived militarism, while the Reign of Terror bequeathed its Jacobin madness? Such is the question pensively asked by those who care more for the character than the name of government, and desire reform and improvement, not destruction and convulsion. In the disappointing 'Memoirs' of Talleyrand there is sometimes a memorable word; and there is no word more memorable or more profound than his saying that the main cause of the French Revolution was vanity. No Roman Talleyrand could have said this of Christianity; nor was a movement of which the mainspring was vanity, likely to end in the regeneration of the world.

Heredity may be a principle well established in its application to horses and dogs, but it is still precarious in its application to human genius. Chatham's eldest son was to all outward appearances a mediocrity and a total failure, both in the Senate and in the field, though Lord Rosebery thinks he has discovered in him a talent for counsel. His second son was illustrious in the very opposite way to his father. Chatham was a great war minister, but no financier or general administrator; his son was a first-rate financier and general administrator, but as a war minister a noted failure. Both were eloquent, but the eloquence of the son was as passionless as that of the father was impassioned. To the nation, however, Pitt was the son of Chatham, and its heart yearned towards him when it was wearied by the long reign of aristocratic cabal, selfish jobbery, and ill-starred war.

Pitt was beyond doubt the choice of the nation, which, as soon as an appeal was made to it, ratified, by an overwhelming vote, his accession to its leadership in place of the justly detested coalition. The consciousness that the tide was rising rapidly in his favor, and that he had only to hold on till the Parliament could be dissolved, must have made his struggle against the coalition majority much easier and less miraculous than it seems. But it will not do to accept without comment, as Lord Rosebery does, the transaction through which Pitt was made Prime Minister. The King's conduct was utterly indefensible. He had a right to dismiss the coalition Ministry, call Pitt or any one else he chose to his councils, and appeal to the country for ratification, facing the risk of having to take back his old Ministers at a sacrifice of power and dignity in case of his defeat. But he had no right to conspire against his constitutional advisers, and this was what he did. If the King's intervention to induce the Lords to throw out Fox's India Bill was constitutional, why did not Temple deliver his message openly from his place in the House of Lords? Why did he resort to the circulation of a clandestine card? This seems a conclusive answer to all apologies for the King's act. Temple was an intriguer of the most sinister kind. Pitt cannot escape blame for accepting the Premiership at the hands of perfidy and intrigue, though the blame will be softened by his youth and by the self-restraint, if not self-denial, which he had before displayed. Breaches of constitutional right are most dangerous when masked, as in this case, by personal or extraneous considerations, such as the righteous feeling of the country against the coalition. Nor could Pitt's own position in relation to the King fail to be weakened by the consciousness that he owed his place to royal trickery. "Wrong never comes right," was the favorite saying of Theodore Hook. Wrong did not come right even here, though the King, where he sought a tool, found a master.

Nothing could be happier or brighter than the early days of the young Minister's reign, while he was carrying into effect the lessons of Adam Smith, raising the revenue by a reduction of duties, cleansing the Augean stable of oligarchic abuse, and reforming all parts of the administration. Slight and transient was the shadow cast by his comparative weakness in the management of foreign affairs. During this period he was, as Lord Rosebery says, the man of the people, that is, of the middle and trading class, beyond which political life did not then descend. He was what would now be called a Liberal as opposed to a Radical. A Whig he styled himself to the end of his life. If he let Parliamentary reform gradually drop, he might partly excuse himself by saying that he found practical improvement on the largest scale possible without constitutional change. In this, however, he was probably swayed by his relation to the King.

The French Revolution brought a complete and tragic change. Lord Rosebery is right in saying that Pitt did not wish to interfere. He held out against intervention as long as he could. He was, as Lord Rosebery says, the most strenuous of peace Ministers. After all it was by the French that war was declared, though England perhaps had taken the decisive step in dismissing the French Ambassador on the execution of the King. It was not easy, in truth, even for the least meddlesome of Ministers to keep the peace with the nation which threatened all existing governments with subversion by its propagandism, and claimed, as in the Scheldt case, the liberty of setting aside all treaties and the public law of Europe if they conflicted with principles of natural right, of which it held itself the judge. Fair allowance must also be made for the horror and indignation excited in all breasts which revolutionary fanaticism had not steeled against natural sentiment, by the crimes of the Jacobins, their rabid blasphemies, and the cruel murder of the King and Queen. Fox, also, by his unmeasured language, made it more difficult for Pitt to stand against the tide of anti-Jacobin feeling. How Lord Rosebery can compare Fox to Luther it is difficult to understand. Fox was a great orator as Luther was a great preacher, and the temperaments of both were warm and generous; other likeness we fail to see. The character of Fox was largely formed at the gambling-table and in the drinking-bout. He came out first as a violent Tory. Then he became an equally violent Whig, and by his ostentatious sympathy with the rebellion at the time of the American war helped to drive the Tories to extremes. Next he combined with the Tory North, between whom and himself he had put, as far as the most solemn words could do it, an impassable barrier of honor. His coalition having been overthrown by public indignation, he again became a Whig, and at the crisis of the French Revolution, when he ought to have done his utmost to calm British feeling by moderate language and by disclaiming sympathy with violence or sedition, he did his utmost to inflame it by boundless laudation of the revolutionists and palliation of their crimes. A man might have generous sympathies, a winning character, and great powers in debate without being wise or even very conscientious. Lord Rosebery excuses Fox's opposition to Pitt's beneficent commercial policy on the ground that he knew nothing of political economy. Was not a man bound to know something of political economy when he took it upon him to lead a commercial nation?

Once swept away by the tide, Pitt seems to have shared the panic. His wild language, once more quoted by Lord Rosebery, can scarcely admit any other interpretation. He must be severely blamed for prolonging the war on the ground that in his opinion the French Government was not sufficiently stable and trustworthy to make peace, and for allowing his Foreign Minister, Lord Granville, to intimate that England desired as a condition previous to treating with France the restoration of the Bourbons. Had not the monarchies of France and Spain been content to treat with the regicide usurper Cromwell? It seems not to have dawned upon Pitt's mind that Napoleon had mastered the Revolution, and that

thenceforth, if anything was to be feared, it was not revolutionary propagandism, but military ambition. Nor can we, with Lord Rosebery, justify Pitt in resorting to coercion, even though he had Parliament on his side. The people of England generally were content with their modicum of liberty. The number of those who sympathized with the Revolution, or even agitated for constitutional change, the great alarmist Burke being witness, was contemptibly small. The mob at Birmingham was on the side of the Government. Coercion called into existence that hostility to Government which it was intended to repress. Lord Rosebery says that the State trials "cleared the air." At the time it was alleged that, in spite of the failure to obtain convictions, the trials had done good by revealing the abyss to the country. But courts of justice cannot be properly used for the purpose of clearing the air or revealing the abyss: they can be properly used only for the purpose of justice; and a Government which puts them to any other use commits at once a crime and a blunder. Carlyle calls Pitt "a lean, inflexible man." Lean he was, but it may be doubted whether he was inflexible. His habit of keeping people at a distance was rather a sign that he feared influence. He was greatly swayed by Dundas, a man far inferior to him in everything but the lowest kinds of statecraft, as his otherwise inexplicable change of front in the case of Hastings showed; and we can hardly doubt that he was hurried by the tide of anti-Revolutionary sentiment at court and among the upper classes into excesses of coercion which, left to himself, he would have disapproved. The weakness of his health, aggravated by a bad regimen, of which port wine was the principal article, can hardly have helped to brace his moral sinew or make his political attitude firm.

Lord Rosebery defends Pitt's war administration against Macaulay. Macaulay always overstates his case; but here surely he is not very far wrong. Lord Rosebery sets the success at sea against the failures on land. It would have been difficult to prevent the British navy from showing its qualities; but Pitt did not, like his father, inspire its victories. He cannot be said to have brought forward Nelson. He seems never to have looked into the condition of the seamen, and he left their abominable grievances unredressed till attention was enforced by the mutiny at the Nore. On land he was unlucky, no doubt, in having a Napoleon for his foe; but it was not Napoleon who put the Duke of York at the head of a British army. Pitt had not a spark of magnetism, nor did his eye discern the genius of any Wolfe. His forces were never found on a decisive field. He spent himself, as his biographer admits, in scattered and isolated efforts, costly both in money and life, and in which, before the Peace of Amiens, were sacrificed no less than 1,350 officers and 30,000 men. "But our fleet," says Lord Rosebery, "swept the seas and swept all hostile colonies into our net." Meantime Europe was being swept into the net of France. Against Pitt's war finance, it seems, there is nothing to be said except that the suspension of cash payments, like every resort to a forced paper currency, or tampering with the currency of any kind, was sure to be found ruinously expensive as well as demoralizing in the long run.

In treating of the Union with Ireland, and the Irish question generally, the biographer is evidently embarrassed by his own political position, and we are left in doubt as to his real view of the Union. He does full justice, however, to Pitt's upright intention. He sees that the recall of the Liberal Viceroy, Fitzwilliam, about which so much invective and lamentation have been poured forth, was due to the indiscretion of Fitzwilliam himself, and his departure from instructions which bound him to proceed with the requisite caution in the inauguration of his new system. Pitt no doubt sincerely deplored the necessity. He had always been in favor of toleration and of justice to Ireland. He had given Canada a measure of Catholic emancipation, and he had been prevented from extending to Ireland the full benefit of his commercial policy only by a coalition of Irish jealousy with the greed of English monopolists, and with the virulence of political factions headed, to their discredit, by Fox and Burke. His object in carrying the Union was beyond doubt to put an end to the tyranny of Protestant ascendancy, to the murderous strife of factions in Ireland, and to government by corruption, at the same time consolidating the kingdom and securing it against invasion. Lord Rosebery takes it for granted that the Union was carried by corruption which he calls "horrible and wholesale," but which he somewhat cynically defends as the established system. He seems not to know that it has been proved that the supposed bribes were, in fact, compensations regularly assigned under an act of Parliament to the proprietors of nomination boroughs in Ireland, in accordance with the notions of an age which regarded such boroughs as property, and paid without distinction to those who had voted against the Union as well as to those who had voted for it. Pitt would never have been a party to pecuniary corruption. Peerages no doubt he lavished without stint; of these he was always scornfully prodigal, partly, as Lord Rosebery thinks, because he liked to swamp the old Whig houses. In criticising the means by which the Union was carried, people are apt to forget the tremendous motive afforded to all who cared for their property or their lives by the events of '98. Nor was Pitt guilty of any breach of good faith towards the Roman Catholics. He had given no pledge, but he did his best to carry Catholic emancipation. He was foiled by the treachery of Loughborough and the self-interest, which disguised itself as bigotry, of ecclesiastics playing on the crazy scruples of the King. He then resigned. What more could he have done? To pass the measure over the King's veto was impossible, and it would have been not only foolish but criminal on the part of Pitt to attempt to carry his point by throwing the Government into convulsions at the most dangerous crisis of a great war. His resumption of power without authority to deal with the Catholic question is equally capable of defence. The nation had no other man to lead it, and was it to be conquered by Napoleon rather than that a measure of domestic reform should be postponed? Mr. Lecky is strangely unjust to Pitt on this occasion. Lord Rosebery does him justice. Such charges as that of premeditated treachery to the Roman Catholics, or that of concerting a destruction of documents to conceal criminal practices in carrying the Union, could have been made only by faction in its most malignant frenzy, and Lord Rosebery properly passes them over in silence.

Sparkling sentences not a few might be culled from this book. In defending Pitt's omission to patronize literature, Lord Rosebery says that "more Miltons have remained mute and inglorious under the suffocation of wealth than under the frosts of poverty," and that "the best literature has been produced by duns." This is epigram, not history; but it has in it perhaps as much of historic truth as epigram requires. Pitt's elder brother, the bearer of the family title, was once likely to die. "Lord Chatham's death," remarks Lord Rosebery, "by the grim humor of our Constitution, would have removed Pitt from the Commons to the Peers. . . . It would have been as if the Duke of Wellington, in the middle of the Peninsular war, had been transferred by the operation of constitutional law to the government of Chelsea Hospital." Here Lord Rosebery has in his mind, no doubt, the case of Lord Hartington and, perhaps, his own. That "an ex-Premier in a Cabinet as an ordinary member is a fleeting and dangerous luxury" is an apothegm which at once raises in the mind of the British reader the image of Lord Russell in the Cabinet of Lord Aberdeen. Perhaps the smartest hit is at Addington, who is said to have "carried into politics the indefinable air of a village apothecary inspecting the tongue of the State." Addington, it will be remembered, was the son of a physician, and was himself nicknamed "The Doctor." If he were alive, he would be totally incapable of avenging himself on Lord Rosebery by an epigram; but perhaps he might have said that even extreme cleverness is not always a sure earnest of greatness as a statesman.

BOOKS ON ART.

The Early Renaissance, and Other Essays on Art Subjects. By James M. Hoppin, Professor of the History of Art in Yale University. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892.

The Human Figure: Its Beauties and Defects. By Ernst Brücke, Emeritus Professor of Physiology in the University of Vienna and formerly Teacher of Anatomy in the Academy of Fine Arts at Berlin. With a Preface by William Anderson, Professor of Anatomy to the Royal Academy of Arts, London, and Lecturer on Anatomy at St. Thomas's Hospital. Authorized translation, revised by the author. With 29 illustrations by Hermann Parr. London: H. Grevel & Co.; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1891.

Lessons on Decorative Design. By Frank G. Jackson, Second Master, Birmingham Municipal School of Art. Third Thousand. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

Nature in Ornament. By Lewis F. Day, author of 'Every-day Art.' With 123 plates and 192 illustrations in the text. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892.

English Pen Artists of To-day: Examples of their Work, with some Criticisms and Appreciations. By Charles G. Harper. Macmillan & Co. 1892.

Les Artistes Célèbres. Antoine Watteau. Par G. Dargenty. 1891. *Abraham Bosse.* Par Antony Valabrègue. 1892. Paris: Librairie de l'Art; New York: Macmillan & Co.

One of Prof. Hoppin's essays is on the subject of "Art in Education," and in it he discusses many questions concerning the teaching of art in connection with university education, such as: "How far shall the study of Art enter into a regular academic course? How can it find a place without displacing more important studies? Should it constitute a purely professional school by itself, rather than an academical course of study?" etc., etc. A much more

important question, which he does not discuss, but which is inevitably suggested by a reading of his book, is: Who shall be the teachers of art? When we find a Professor of the History of Art at Yale College devoting an essay to wire-drawn criticism and extravagant laudation of the antique Niobe group, the "interest" of which he thinks "is more the subject of human thought and sympathy than even" the Parthenon figures; when he calls Murillo "an exemplification of all the richest and best qualities of Spanish painting," and finds that master of namby-pamby "appealing to the deepest heart of true worshippers in all ages and nations"; when he ranks Alma-Tadema, Leighton, and Turner among the Pre-Raphaelites, and Millet among the Impressionists, and calls Bastien Le Page "a disciple of Millet but especially of Cazin," then one longs for the words of one artist who has some real knowledge of his subject. And could the most inarticulate of painters express himself less clearly than Mr. Hoppin does in such a sentence as this?

"The atmosphere of his [Claude's] pictures, their aerial perspectives which carry the eye and mind into the illimitable, the coloring not always serene but sometimes sombre with deeper tints, the tender gradations of light and shade,—of evening and morn and fiery noon,—the breadth of composition, and, above all, the exquisite finish that makes even Turner's pictures that hang defiantly by the side of the Claudes in the National Gallery of London, look a bit imperfect, muddy, and dull-brown,—these cannot lose their charm under the most advanced criticism; but that they are the highest conceptions of Nature in her real beauty, significance, and force, with clouds as they are in the sky floating lightly in space and bearing the thunder in them, of nature varied with dull scenes, with striking contrasts and grim ugliness in which also there is power, Claude gives us little."

This is so wonderful—style, grammar, punctuation, and all—that we have not the heart to cut it short. And yet Prof. Hoppin wishes to teach art in the university on account of its influence in forming a "clear, vigorous, and elegant style of writing."

Prof. Brücke's little treatise is a very German book indeed. It is an attempt, by study, first of the antique and afterwards of nature, to fix a standard of what artists shall be allowed to find beautiful in the human figure. In the latter part of the book some concessions are made to individual taste, but in the first chapter, on the head, the Greek fetish is supreme, and Greek noses and Greek mouths are the only ones allowed as worthy of reproduction in serious art. One of the notable things about the unreasoning worship of the Greeks by so many critics is, that it is always to the second-rate, conventional Greek work that they attach themselves most firmly, and that they seem almost unaware of the existence of the great figures from the Parthenon. In discussing, for instance, the purely conventional representation of the iliac line which obtained in archaic and later Greek sculpture, Prof. Brücke makes no mention of the fact that in one of the most superb of antique figures, the Ilissus, this line is treated in a purely naturalistic manner. When will the art-critics learn that because a statue is antique it is not necessarily good, and that the conventions of second-rate Greek sculptors are no more binding on the modern artist than they were on the really great Greeks? When will they learn that art is not necessarily the more ideal for being less natural, and that the greatest idealists have been the greatest realists too? Also, that there is more than one kind of beauty, and that the artist's business is to reproduce that which seems beautiful to him?

That Mr. Jackson's volume, which was reviewed in these columns upon its first appearance, should have reached its "third thousand" may be an encouraging sign of the amount of interest in decorative design that today exists; but, if there were nothing better than this for that interest to feed on, the outlook would not be altogether agreeable. Fortunately, in Mr. Day's 'Nature in Ornament' (one of a series of "Text-books of Ornamental Design" by the same author) we have something very much better indeed. Mr. Day is a practical designer, the merit of whose work predisposes one to accept his opinions, and his opinions are broad and catholic and clearly stated. The numerous illustrations are well selected and admirably rendered. His book is one to be thankful for.

Mr. Harper's book is a sort of supplement to Mr. Pennell's 'Pen-Drawing.' Mr. Harper conceives that Mr. Pennell has done scant justice to the English pen-draughtsmen, and has therefore devoted an entire volume, got up in the same lavish style, to them alone. We cannot say that he is justified by the result. The men not represented in Mr. Pennell's volume will, with few exceptions, hardly add to the reputation of English pen-drawing, while those represented in both books are quite as well shown in Mr. Pennell's. In at least one case Mr. Harper has reproduced the identical drawing which had already served Mr. Pennell. Mr. Harper's arrangement is careless and his style slovenly, while his rabid dislike of everything American (except American printing, which he admits is better than English) is amusing. So, also, is his contention that the pen-draughtsmen are the only men who can draw, and that the painters can only color. One may heartily admire good pen-drawing without being ready to admit that it is the highest of all graphic arts. Mr. Harper's protests against plagiarism may do good, but they would be more likely to do so if nearly all the sin were not laid upon American shoulders, and if he showed any appreciation of the existence of such straightforward and original draughtsmen as Abbey and Eaton and other Americans.

The two little monographs on Watteau and Abraham Bosse, reproductions from *L'Art*, are in the characteristic careful and appreciative French manner. They are profusely illustrated and accompanied with bibliographies and other aids. Watteau is justly placed among "celebrated artists." It is only comparatively of late that his charming genius has begun to be appreciated, and only within a few years that his "Embarquement pour l'île de Cythère" has been given its rightful place in the Salon Carré of the Louvre. As to Bosse, his interest is mainly that of an illustrator of the costumes and customs of the seventeenth century, but there is a certain grave charm in some of his compositions in spite of their severity and rigidity.

Lectures on the History of Literature. Delivered by Thomas Carlyle, April to July, 1838. Edited, with preface and notes, by Professor J. Reay Greene. New York: Charles Scribners' Sons. 1892.

THIS volume is made from a manuscript copy of the notes of Carlyle's lectures in the spring of 1838, taken down by Mr. Thomas Chisholm Anstey, a barrister-at-law and member of Parliament. They bear in their style abundant evidence of fidelity, and give a useful impression of Carlyle as a popular lecturer. The subject, which is the entire field of literature, is a broad one, and its main topics could only be touched upon. The substance of the volume is of no great consequence, either critically or as an addition to Carlyle's works. The parts of the general subject which specially interested him or had received thorough study from him, have been handled with more completeness and vastly more vigor in his published works, such as 'Heroes and Hero Worship' and the 'Critical Miscellanies.' Whoever wishes to know what he saw in Dante, Luther, or Knox may look in these other volumes with more profit than would be derived from a perusal of this. The omissions, if one looks on this as a history of the world's literature, are many and grave; there is nothing notable in the method; in fact, considered merely by itself, the work is weak. The moralizing which pervades the whole, the counsel to action, the praise of unconsciousness and silence, the gospel of the divine right of great men—all this is familiar matter and does not gain by the dilution it has suffered.

The principal value of the book is biographical in the sense that it affords a bird's-eye view, doubtless tolerably fair and complete, of Carlyle's culture in the strict humane sense—a ground-plan, so to speak, of his knowledge of the world's history and books; and at the same time renders his impressions with regard to the course of civilization. The defects of his mind and the narrowness of its horizons are more felt than the strength and originality of his genius. His overmastering subservience intellectually to German thought and to German literary fashions is made especially conspicuous, and suggests again what has long been a cause of wonder to us, why none of the thousand essayists upon Carlyle has endeavored to make out clearly just how much in his theory of life and character was derived from German sources, and particularly Goethe, and how much what he received was modified by his personality. His genius appears to us to have been not that of the original thinker, but one simply of expression on the literary side and of plodding industry on the scholarly side. He took his main ideas from others and worked them up and gave them individuality by a peculiar faculty he had for originality of presentation; and, further than this, he spent years in furnishing illustrations of these ideas from history and biography. He had, to help him, also a power of imagination rather pictorial than penetrative, with an abnormal and distorting tendency to the grotesque; and this told in his handling of anything he took up. He was never strong as a thinker, but gains his impressiveness from other and, in the main, literary qualities; and when stripped, as he is in this volume, of the advantages of his intense and violent style, and reduced to the plain elements of what he said, he does not strike the reader for substance. He is continually making the object of his admiration, whether an idea or a person, loom larger by surrounding it with a kind of fog; he adopts a superior manner, as if he spoke with an elongated finger pointing at the auditor; and in these pages the mode of the thing is too transparent. On the whole, it does not seem to us the present publication is the work of a friend. Whether as history or as criticism, it would hardly pass muster on its merits, at the present time, even on the platform; and as an addition to the many volumes of a great writer it is absurdly below the level of his performance.

An Introduction to the Theory of Value: on the Lines of Menger, Wieser, and Böhm-

Bawerk. By William Smart, M.A. Macmillan & Co.

THE work of the Austrian economists is of very considerable importance. Following the line marked out by Jevons, they have analyzed with great subtlety the psychological aspects of economic phenomena, and have reached conclusions that are, to say the least, instructive. From a certain point of view their position is inexpugnable. It cannot be denied that the final cause of all industry is the satisfaction of human desire. It seems to follow that any material object will be sought, or prized, or valued, simply as a means to the satisfaction of desire. It follows conversely that if it ceases to satisfy desire, it must cease to be valued, and here comes in the great principle of "final" or "marginal" utility. We distinguish wants according to their urgency; in other words, if we cannot satisfy them all, we satisfy some in preference to others. The material object that satisfied the relinquished desire may be said, therefore, to have had a "marginal" utility, or, in Mr. Smart's language, "the value of a good is measured by the importance of that concrete want which is least urgent among the wants satisfied." The most important corollary from this principle is, that if a given quantity of a thing satisfies all desire for that thing, an additional quantity of the thing can have no value, as it satisfies no desire. The qualification should be added, that some new desire may arise which may be satisfied by the additional product, and therefore give it value. But the truth that is of importance is, that value is not an attribute of things, but an accident, depending upon the nature and extent of the wants of men.

We think it obvious that in venturing into that Serbonian bog of economists, the subject of supply and demand, the study of the psychology of desire may be of much assistance. The greatest minds that have dealt with economics have come to grief in their endeavors to coördinate such elements as a state of consciousness and a material quantity, and it can be only gradually that problems requiring a comprehension of metaphysics will be fully understood, much less solved, by most political economists. Moreover, it has always been held that the science is to a great extent, at least, deduced from some psychological laws, and whatever tends to define more clearly the scope of these laws will be a legitimate contribution to the science. But it is quite possible to take a partial view of the matter, and to exaggerate the importance of psychological distinctions. Something, perhaps, may be learned from the history of the free-will controversy. It was asserted by some determinists that the will was always moved by the strongest motive—an assertion which was after a time seen to reduce to the barren proposition that the will was always moved by the motive that moved it. There is, in our opinion, some ground for maintaining that the proposition that value is measured by the importance of the least urgent want is not much more fruitful. Without a scale of wants arranged according to their importance—a permanent hedonic calculus—we are as far away as ever from measuring values.

Something further may be learned from the history of metaphysical controversy. The term cause is notoriously ambiguous, and though no term is more commonly used, there has never been any general agreement as to its definition. Granting that satisfaction of desire is the final cause of human industry, it is to be remembered that there are other than final causes. According to Mill, the cause of a phenomenon is the antecedent, or the concurrence of antecedents, on which it is invariably and unconditionally consequent. It is obvious that on this theory satisfaction of desire is insufficient as a definition of the cause of value. It is a highly generalized and abstract term, and as a statement of the motive of action it is open to the well-known criticism—"When a horse is hungry, what he desires is not happiness, but hay." We have to reckon with Aristotle's τήν οὐσίαν καὶ τό τι ἦν εἶναι. If it is true that our desire for a thing gives it its value, is it not true that the essential attributes of the thing are the cause of our desiring it?

While there is some exhilaration to be derived from this metaphysical waltzing, it is doubtful if it results in much real progress. Admitting the psychological basis of economics, it is yet for practical purposes better to regard it not as a department of psychology, but as a science concerned with things. Moreover, it is futile to speculate upon the degrees of value assigned each of five sacks of grain by a Robinson Crusoe. We cannot assume that what one man desires will be desired in the same degree by others, nor can we strike an average without committing the fallacy of composition. For scientific purposes we must take things as they are, all the world being a market, and the inhabitants thereof buyers and sellers. As Mill said, it is prices in a wholesale market that we have to confine ourselves to, and this implies that every purchase is made with a view to exchange. If we speak of human desire, it must be human desire in the guise of commodities or services, set off against other commodities or services. In short, we must measure desire for things by measuring the things and not the desire; for we have no available psychological standard. If we are asked, "Can a thing have any value if no one wants it?" we must reply, No; but when we say no one wants it, we mean that no one will give any other thing for it, and if any one will give anything for it, that thing is the measure of its value. With some of Sidgwick's qualifications, Mill's classification of values seems to be still the most serviceable.

Mr. Smart is not at all immoderate in his claims. He admits that in the case of goods reproducible at will the cost of production determines the value. But this, he says, is only a convenient expression of a deeper law. On the old theory the value of a good comes from its past, whereas the causal connection runs the other way, from product to cost. "Value comes, not from the past of goods, but from their future; that is to say, from the side of consumption in satisfying want. Goods stand midway between production and consumption. In the old reading it was the former term that gave value; in the new it is the latter." So far as this refers to quantity of consumption, it emphasizes an important truth. If a man proposes to engage in the manufacture of a particular commodity, he will do well to inform himself not only as to the cost of production, but also as to the quantity consumed, although as a matter of fact most men probably content themselves with ascertaining simply cost and market price. Undoubtedly sagacious men may divine the possibility of new wants and seek to satisfy such variations in existing wants as they foresee. But the great body of industrial achievement has always consisted in diminishing the cost of production, and the practical worth of the science of political economy is closely connected with its recognition of this fact. Nevertheless, we must admit that in numberless ways the study of the desires of mankind is suggestive, and on that account we are grateful to the Austrian economists for their labors. Mr. Smart's little book is welcome because it summarizes a portion of their results in a manner convenient for English readers. He has already translated two of Böhm-Bawerk's works, and he informs us that one of his pupils is now preparing a translation of Wieser's application of the theory of value to distribution. To these works this manual will be for many persons a useful introduction.

On the Dedications of American Churches. Compiled by Two Laymen of the Diocese of Rhode Island. Cambridge: Printed at the Riverside Press. 1891.

THE purpose of this handsome monograph is stated with an approach to completeness in its sub-title: "An Enquiry into the Naming of Churches in the United States, some Account of English Dedications, and Suggestions for future Dedications in the American Church." Its compilers, as they modestly call themselves, express a certain sensitiveness to what they deem the imperfections of their work, and a regret that the conditions under which it has been done have made an adequate treatment of their subject impossible. We do not think that their readers will share these feelings. The authors write for the benefit of their fellow-Churchmen of the Episcopal communion, and a great many of these must have felt the barrenness and monotony of the nomenclature of their churches, and be ready to welcome such information and suggestions as are here offered to them. The poverty of the name-list of Episcopal churches is really astonishing. Here and there American invention—or is it American humor?—breaks out in some such effort of misdirected ingenuity as appears in the name of "The Church of the Heavenly Rest," which is probably the oddest invocation ever devised for a building meant for the use of a portion of the Church Militant. But for the most part the virtuous namers of churches walk a narrow round. In one diocese, for instance, four dedications only are made to serve for eighty-two churches: St. Paul, for sixteen; St. John, seventeen; Trinity, twenty-four; Christ, twenty-five. In another, there are ninety-four churches under four dedications—St. John, twenty-two; Grace, twenty-three; St. Paul, twenty-three; Christ, twenty-six. English, and especially Welsh dedications, have a much wider scope, as may be seen from an analysis of 18,500 of them which our compilers give. The number of different names that appear in this must run well up into the hundreds: the list occupies more than twenty-six pages. Besides its analysis, there is a large finding-table of American dedications, a chapter of good suggestions as to dedications to be made hereafter, and various appendices and notes that convey pleasantly much valuable information not easily to be had elsewhere. Amusement also may be found in some of the quaint and puzzling shapes into which the names of certain of the saints of old time have been transformed. Hippolytus appears as 'Eppalets,' which suggests irresistibly a dedication for a West Point chapel; and Olave becomes 'Tooley,' a sad come-down for the king of whom Adam of St. Victor wrote:

> "Rex Olave, qui regium
> Nomen habes egregium
> Unctionis."

A word may be added as to the rather exceptional typographical beauty of the volume, which recalls, perhaps with some advantages, certain fine liturgiological books published by Pickering forty years ago. We have noted in

it but one slight misprint (which, however, occurs twice)—Adanctus for Adauctus.

The Story of New Mexico. By Horatio O. Ladd. [The Story of the States.] Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

"STORY" is a modest title for a book which, in fact, is the most accurate "history" of that Territory that has ever been published. Mr. Bancroft's more elaborate work has the merit of being infinitely superior to everything that preceded its appearance in the literary field, but Mr. Ladd's book has the advantage of being based upon information of a documentary character more detailed and more special even than that at Mr. Bancroft's command, touching the obscure periods in New Mexico's history that intervened between 1608 and 1680. The author enjoys, furthermore, the advantage of having resided in the country which he describes, of having travelled in it and viewed with intelligent eyes its scenery, its ruins, and its people. Hence the book has a certain merit of subjective actuality, well felt and fairly expounded, in such a plain and unassuming manner as to put the contents within easy reach even of youthful readers. The older periods of New Mexican history are, of course, briefly told, for they could not be treated at length without going into elaborate studies about Spanish law, ecclesiastical law, the relations between Church and State in the American colonies of Spain, and Spanish "Indian policy"—topics far too intricate and too extensive not to injure the popularity of the work. Still, Mr. Ladd has so far grasped the true point of view from which Spanish American history is to be considered as to be very fair and just, and to avoid the reefs upon which the ships of historical novelists have invariably stranded.

As regards the modern history of New Mexico, it is too early yet to write it without running the gauntlet of criticism of eye-witnesses. These eye-witnesses may all be sincere, but they see only one side of the events in which they have participated. Moreover, there is, at the bottom of everything that happens, an occult substratum which remains (and mostly has to remain) hidden for a long time from the public eye or even from the most careful investigator. Contemporaneous history is therefore always a very ungrateful task, but Mr. Ladd could not avoid it, and if, after doing the best he could, his work should incur censure, the fault lies not so much with him as with the task itself. Mr. Ladd has made several geographical mistakes that are inexcusable on the part of one who has so long resided in New Mexico and who has quite extensively travelled through that Territory. Thus, he identifies, and repeatedly too, Taos with Santa Cruz de la Cañada, and Albuquerque with Alameda. Taos lies forty miles north of Santa Cruz, and Albuquerque thirteen miles south of Alameda. Equally unpardonable is the frequent misspelling of Spanish words, so that it seems as if there had been no proof-reading at all, and this imparts to the whole an appearance of carelessness, of slovenliness even, that detracts greatly from the merits of an otherwise very commendable book. The illustrations, too, are not of a very high order, and not as well selected as they might easily have been. In both respects a revised edition is plainly called for.

On the whole, Mr. Ladd's book is a gratifying step in the direction of fairness in history and independent judgment, unaffected by the stereotyped clamor against Spain in the New World.

A Treatise on the Geometry of the Circle, and some Extensions to Conic Sections by the method of Reciprocation. With numerous examples. By William J. McClelland, M.A. Macmillan. 1891.

OF the smaller and outlying branches of mathematics which have received attention of late years, none is more interesting than that of the remarkable lines, points, and circles of a triangle, which really forms the principal subject of this little treatise; and it is a subject in which any person skilled in elementary geometry and trigonometry can take pleasure. Mathematicians will welcome a convenient compendium of the theorems connected with Brocard's, Taylor's, and a dozen other circles, as to which they are now all expected to be *au fait*.

The methods of the book are rather promiscuous, the nomenclature is not always good (as when the well-known theorem of Matthew Stewart is called "Euler's theorem," a designation applied already to half-a-dozen different propositions), the enunciations are sometimes not clear, and the writer throughout has consulted his own comfort rather than the reader's. But, notwithstanding such relatively unimportant faults, the book is acceptable.

Handbooks of Athletic Sports. [Bohn's Library of Sports and Games.] Vols. V. and VI. London: George Bell & Sons. 1891.

THESE volumes deal with track athletics, cycling, skating, and riding, and are quite up to the high standard of vols. i. and ii., already noticed in these columns. It will be a surprise to those who have not followed the history of track athletics to learn how recent is the development of this branch of sport. It was not till 1864 that the first Oxford and Cambridge sports caused a sudden awakening of interest in England, and the response on this side of the Atlantic did not follow till the early seventies. Since that time there has been a more or less steady improvement in all kinds of performances, and hardly a season passes without the breaking of some records; but it is now believed that in running and jumping the limit of human capacity has been very nearly reached. On several occasions sprinters have covered 100 yards in less than ten seconds, while a jumper has cleared 6 feet 4¾ inches in height and some 23 feet in width—figures which would have seemed impossible to a winner at the Isthmian games.

Although a species of velocipede was invented in France as early as 1816, the modern bicycle with cranks may be said to date from 1866, in which year patents were granted both in this country and in England. Every year since has witnessed some improvement in the machines and a consequent increase of speed at all distances, and it seems certain that a man riding a bicycle will soon be able to cover a mile in less time than a trotting horse before a wagon. Besides all that is needful for the male cyclist, this volume contains an interesting chapter on cycling for ladies, which is well worth their consideration. As a means of exercise, cycling is distinctly superior to lawn tennis for the wearers of skirts, and it enables them to cover very considerable distances, and so enjoy new scenery with very slight fatigue.

Equally good is the chapter on ladies' skating, another exercise which they may safely indulge in when opportunity offers, and which, if properly taught, will tend to increase of both vigor and grace. The chapters on figure-skating cover all the well-known varieties, but that on speed-skating should have been brought down at least to the date of Donoghue's victories a year ago, which gave the championship of the world to this country.

Mr. Kerr's advice to those about to ride is quite the reverse of *Punch's* advice to those about to marry, but it is nevertheless sound and useful. He shows an intimate knowledge of all that pertains to horse-flesh, and strongly advocates the modern methods of treating young horses in many ways like young children. Every one who has had to do with horses knows the importance of meeting their obstinacy with firmness and patience, but few come up to the Yorkshire trainer who sat unmoved on an obstinate colt all day, had his meals brought out to him, and finally conquered the animal as he was adjusting his night-cap and otherwise preparing for a night session. A horse that has once been forced to yield in this way will never give any more trouble, whereas severe punishment ruins the horse's temper and generally fails to produce the desired result. Young riders will find Mr. Kerr's treatise full of valuable hints, and the only fault we have to find with it is the multitudinous recommendations of saddles and such things, with names and addresses of makers, which are too suggestive of the "reading notice."

The New York Obelisk. With a preliminary sketch of the history, erection, uses, and signification of obelisks. By Charles E. Moldenke. New York: Randolph. 1891. Pp. viii., 202.

A BOOK on an Egyptological subject printed in this country is not without precedent, but one containing hieroglyphic type set in America is a novelty. We have many monuments, inscriptions, and writings here which had Egypt as the land of their origin, and the greatest of them is the New York obelisk. It is a matter of interest to many to know what this great stone stands for and what it says. The author's intent has been to furnish an answer, and to some degree he has succeeded. He has presented a considerable array of facts, more or less pertinent, and he has given a series of translations of the texts.

But it is impossible to say that his book is satisfactory. The style is occasionally infelicitous or worse; the "preliminary sketch" is not sufficiently elaborated; even the facts which are presented are not fortified by the citation of authorities; there are a few mistakes in the transliterations, and there are some strange contrasts between the interlinear and the freer renderings. In the matter of explanations the author has been a little more successful, though the ordinary reader will be stumbled to find that he makes conflicting statements, and in one case at least explains the same thing in two inconsistent ways.

While full recognition must be given to the fact that the style of the writing found on such objects as obelisks is extremely abbreviated, and that it presents more problems to the student than almost any other, still one who essays to give a true rendering must know that grammatical forms underlay the writing and must now determine the meaning. The renderings here given are approximately correct, but he would be rash indeed who should claim that any text has yet been translated absolutely without error. The specimens which this book affords are of the stereotyped sort with which we have been so long familiar. The author has not advanced beyond what has long been published, and he has not added any new explanations of value. In fact, he seems not to have known that anything has been done to-

wards a more exact determination of grammatical forms or of the structure of sentences.

Upon the whole, the book is behind the times. It might have passed muster ten years ago, but it will not answer now. In general it will give the reader some idea of the subject, but he who should rely upon its every statement, and attempt to draw thence conclusions as to details, will be apt to find them seriously questioned. Numerous minor errors might be pointed out which vitiate its results except in a large and general way. Since that which is wanted is as exact information as the present state of investigation will allow, the author must be adjudged to have failed to satisfy reasonable demands.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bercy, Paul. Le Français Pratique. W. R. Jenkins. $1.
Bierbower, Austin. The Morals of Christ. 2d ed. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Colbert, Prof. E. Humanity in its Origin and Early Growth. Chicago: *Open Court* Pub. Co. $1.50.
Crosby, Edith R. "Blessed are they that Mourn." James Pott & Co. 50 cents.
Dilke, Sir C. W., and Wilkinson, S. Imperial Defence. Macmillan. $1.25.
Evans, E. W. Walter Savage Landor: A Critical Study. Putnams. $1.25.
Goodwin, Prof. W. W., and White, Prof. J. W. The First Four Books of Xenophon's Anabasis. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.65.
In Tent and Bungalow. Cassell. 50 cents.
Johnson, Samuel. Rasselas, Prince of Abyssinia. [Knickerbocker Nuggets.] Putnams. $1.
Krause, Gustav. The Growth of German Unity. London: David Nutt.
Lawless, Emily. Grania: The Story of an Island. Macmillan. $1.
Lecomte, Maurice. Bouderie. Scenette en un Acte. W. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Le Gallienne, Richard. The Book-Bills of Narcissus. Scribners. $2.
Logan, Celia. How to Reduce Your Weight or Increase it. W. A. Kellogg. 50 cents.
Longmans' New School Atlas. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Longmans' New Atlas. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Lorne, The Marquis of. Viscount Palmerston. [The Prime Ministers of Queen Victoria.] Harpers.
Marshall, Frederick. It Happened Yesterday. Appletons.
Matthews, Brander. In the Vestibule Limited. Harpers.
Maurice, Rev. F. D. Sermons Preached in Lincoln's Inn Chapel. Vol. IV. Macmillan. $1.25.
Maxcy, C. L. Shakspere's Hamlet. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
McCaskey, J. P. The Franklin Square Song Collection. No. 8. 50 cents.
Meredith, George. Modern Love. Portland, Me.: Thomas B. Mosher.
Miller, Rev. Emory. The Evolution of Love. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Moore, George. Vain Fortune. Scribners. $1.
Mr. Leslie and Mrs. Lennox. Cassell. 50 cents.
Muirhead, J. H. The Elements of Ethics. [University Extension Manuals.] Scribners. $1.
Muller-Simonis, P. Du Caucase au Golfe Persique, à travers l'Arménie, le Kurdistan et la Mésopotamie. Washington: Université Catholique d'Amérique; New York: Westermann.
Murray, A. S. Handbook of Greek Archæology. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. $6.
Ohnet, Georges. Le Chant du Cygne. W. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Orr, Mrs. Sutherland. A Handbook to the Works of Robert Browning. 6th ed. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Pelletreau, Charles. Sylvester Romaine. James Pott & Co.
Perrot, Georges, and Chipiez, Charles. History of Art in Phrygia, Lydia, Caria and Lycia. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Perrot, Georges, and Chipiez, Charles. History of Art in Persia. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Pinkerton, T. A. A New Saint's Tragedy. Harpers. 50 cents.
Pollard, A. W. Herrick's Works. 2 vols. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners. $3.50.
Pool, Maria L. Roweny in Boston. Harpers.
Praeger, Ferdinand. Wagner as I Knew Him. Longmans.
Prince, J. T. Methods of Instruction and Organization in the German Schools. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Protestant Episcopal Layman's Handbook. 2d ed. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.25.
Recollections of a Happy Life: Being the Autobiography of Marianne North. 2 vols. Macmillan. $7.
Remondino, P. C. The Mediterranean Shores of America. Southern California, its Climatology, etc. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis. $1.25.
Richards, George. The Law of Insurance. Banks & Bros. $5.
Roberts, D. L. Browne's Religio Medici, and Other Essays. London: David Stott; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Rogers, Prof. J. E. T. The Industrial and Commercial History of England. Putnams, $3.
Rolfe, W. J. Scott's Lady of the Lake. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Rollins, Alice W. From Palm to Glacier. Putnams. $1.75.
Royce, Prof. J. The Spirit of Modern Philosophy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Ruskin, John. The Crown of Wild Olive. [Brantwood Edition.] Charles E. Merrill & Co. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 31, 1892.

The Week.

A BLOW so destructive as that which the Bar Association has inflicted on Judge Maynard has never, we believe, overtaken a judicial officer in this country, because no such tribunal has ever sat on judicial delinquency. Conviction on impeachment before the Federal or State Senate would be much less serious morally, although involving the loss of office and salary. A Senate is a political body, composed mainly of men in no way prepared, by training or character, for the exercise of judicial functions, and almost sure to make up their minds, to some extent at least, under the influence of considerations not furnished either by the law or the evidence. But the Committee of the Bar Association which has tried Judge Maynard's case are lawyers of the highest standing at the American bar. They would, if converted into a bench of judges, constitute a tribunal such as has not in many a long day, if ever, been seen in this State or any State in the Union. Moreover, seven out of the nine members belong to Judge Maynard's own political party. Their unanimous condemnation has been almost unanimously endorsed by the Bar Association, in itself a picked body of lawyers. The verdict would be, for a man of any moral sensitiveness, absolutely crushing.

The offence of which the Committee convict him is defined by the Penal Code, as they remorselessly point out, as grand larceny in the second degree. Any man who had the moral or mental constitution which the office of judge, even in its lowest stages, calls for, would, on hearing what the most eminent members of his own profession thought of him and what the whole intelligent community is thinking of him, either resign his place and go into obscurity, or resign it and challenge a trial in a criminal court. We fear Judge Maynard will do neither. He will sit still, render decisions which nobody will respect, draw a salary to which the mass of his fellow-citizens think he is not morally entitled, secure in the approval of Governor Flower, Senator Hill, Judge Earle, and his companions in misfortune, the members of the Canvassing Board. But none the less the air in his court and in all courts of the State has been purified by the Committee's report. It has lashed before it "the lazy elements which were stagnating into pestilence." It has shown that there is still, even when the days seem darkest, a public conscience somewhere which can be counted on to make itself thoroughly heard in times of danger, necessity, and tribulation. The community has been laid under obligations to the Bar Association which will not soon be forgotten, not for finding Judge Maynard guilty, but for taking a great case out of the atmosphere of politics, and deciding it with absolute indifference to political considerations and consequences.

Lord Salisbury's final proposal is that he will renew the *modus vivendi*, with a provision that the arbitrators shall be asked to decide, over and above the questions already submitted to them, whether the United States Government has inflicted "wrongful loss" on British subjects in Bering Sea, and whether the British Government has inflicted wrongful loss on American citizens, and that each side shall pay damages for such wrongful loss as may be charged to it. This seems reasonable enough. But he adds a warning that in the meantime he adheres to his old position that the right of seizure and search of foreign vessels does not exist on the high seas. The Harrisonian doctrine that this power, which we denied to British cruisers in the most celebrated controversy of this century, when exercised on behalf of African slaves, we may ourselves properly exercise for the protection of the Elkinsian seals, does not really call for argument, and does not receive it. What the organs say is, that they are going to exercise it, "by golly," whether it is lawful or not.

Some people are wondering whether there is any such person as the Secretary of State in Washington at the present time. The latest published correspondence between our Government and that of Great Britain on the Bering Sea question does not bear Mr. Blaine's signature. It is signed by Mr. Wharton as Acting Secretary. It is true that Mr. Blaine is ill, but he is not too ill to sign his name or to have it signed by somebody for him. One would suppose that after carrying on so long a correspondence on this subject he would follow it to the end, it being his official duty to do so. It is just possible that he disapproves of Mr. Harrison's Jingo policy and his attempt to force the doctrine of *mare clausum* on Lord Salisbury pending the arbitration, after he (Blaine) had expressly repudiated that doctrine, and that this is the reason why his name is not appended to the latest correspondence. It is not forgotten that Mr. Blaine took a position of dignified conservatism in the Chilian dispute, and that his relations with the President at that time were nearly as "strained" as those between the United States and Chili. It is surprising if true that the Plumed Knight has become a conservative force in the Government, while the Presbyterian elder has become a firebrand. It makes a great difference whether you are a Presidential candidate or not.

The first convention in the West to choose delegates to the Democratic National Convention was held in North Dakota last Thursday, and elected men every one of whom is strongly for Cleveland. A resolution was adopted declaring it "the sense of this Convention that ex-President Grover Cleveland is preëminently the best representative of Democratic principles." In this attitude and action North Dakota sets an example which it is evident will be followed very generally by the older States in that part of the country. Except so far as two or three States may choose delegations committed to at least complimentary votes for "favorite sons," the West promises to stand solid for Cleveland in the National Convention. What is more, its delegates seem likely to go to the Convention this year with a strong purpose to make their influence felt.

The election of Mr. Mills as Senator from Texas is far more than a personal victory for the man. It is the verdict of "the banner Democratic State of the Union" upon the issue between the two factions in the party. It means a deliberate and emphatic declaration by the masses of the party in that great commonwealth, in favor of relegating silver to the background and making the national campaign this year on the tariff issue. No man in the Democratic party has been so conspicuously the representative of one element in the organization as Mr. Mills, and there were in Texas, as everywhere else, men who supposed that he could be beaten because of his pronounced stand. The question was carried to the people, and their answer was so unmistakable that the reactionists were overwhelmed, and all opposition to Mr. Mills finally disappeared. Like the victory for Senator George on the sub-treasury-scheme issue in Mississippi a few months ago, this Texas incident illustrates the wisdom of courage and conviction on the part of a public man.

The Iowa Republicans have finally decided to stand by prohibition, and consequently to keep that question as the leading issue in State affairs. The Senate, through the coöperation of three Republicans with all the Democrats, recently passed a high-license and local-option bill, and there has been a chance that it might go through the House by a similar combination. But when the bill came up Tuesday week, the Republican side was solid against it, and it was indefinitely postponed by a strict party vote. The Republicans in the House were between the devil and the deep sea. On the one hand, notice had been served upon them by Republicans who believe in prohibition that any one who voted against it would commit political suicide. On the other hand, they had been warned

by many prominent Republican politicians and journals that the party would be ruined unless it should unload prohibition. Apparently the Republican Representatives put their own supposed advantage before the interests of the party. It is a notorious fact that many of them consider prohibition a failure, and believe in the wisdom of substituting high license; but they had been threatened with the vengeance of the prohibition Republicans if they should dare to vote according to their convictions, and they recorded themselves against a bill which they really favor. It remains to be seen whether the course such men have adopted may not prove disastrous to themselves as well as to the party. The people ultimately find out how a Representative really stands on a public question, and have a supreme contempt for the man who votes one way when he believes that he ought to vote the other.

Gerrymandering has never suffered a worse blow than was administered by the Supreme Court of Wisconsin last week, when it declared unconstitutional the act passed by the last Democratic Legislature redistricting the State for legislators and Congressmen in the most grossly partisan manner. Having carried Wisconsin with a sweep in the "tidal wave" of 1890, the Democrats set out to fix things so that the Republicans could not recover control of the Legislature, even if they carried the State by a large majority. In order to accomplish this end, they disregarded the fundamental requirement of the Constitution, that Assembly districts shall be bounded by county lines; cut up counties, lumped together parts of counties, made Republican districts large in population and Democratic small, and in general made as unfair an apportionment as ingenuity could devise. The performance was repugnant to the popular sense of decency, and the unanimous decision of the highest judicial tribunal in the State shows that it is as unconstitutional as it is unfair. The fact should not escape notice that the three Democratic members of the Wisconsin Supreme Court united with their two Republican associates in thus annulling the act of a Democratic Legislature and defeating the plans of the Democratic managers.

Rhode Island is not only the one State of the Union which now holds her State election during the first six months of the year, but also one of the fast diminishing list of States which still refuse stupidly to "lump" elections in November. Hence in this Presidential year her State contest, to be decided on the first Wednesday of next month, takes on a certain national character, especially as it involves the reëlection of Senator Aldrich, an active promoter of the Force Bill. The Democratic vote in the State during the last few years has been considerably increased from two causes: first, by an Australian ballot law which has checked the purchase of votes, in which the rich Republicans of the State have been proficient and lavish; and, secondly, the substantial removal of the old property qualification by a constitutional amendment adopted four years ago. In 1889 the Democratic candidate for Governor, in a total vote of 43,114, had the large plurality of 4,419, yet failed of a majority and lost his election in the Legislature, where the Republicans had a majority of ten on joint ballot. In 1890 the Democrats had a plurality of 1,560 in the popular vote, and chose their Governor through the Legislature. But last year, although they had a plurality of 1,254, the majority against them in the Legislature was no less than 51 in a total legislative membership of 109. Even in the Legislature of 1890, though it was Democratic on joint ballot, there was a Republican majority of 10 in the State Senate under the curious Rhode Island system which gives Providence, with a population of 132,146, a State Senator, and a Senator also to Jamestown, with a population of 707.

Legislative Governors, therefore, are the rule in Rhode Island, and "Carry the Legislature" is the cry of the parties, particularly in a year like this, when a Federal Senator is to be chosen. Thus local, State, and national questions come to be queerly intermixed. A Rhode Island voter who wants to elect a Democratic Governor may have to seek that result by supporting a bad candidate for the Legislature; or a voter who opposes the reëlection of Aldrich, but wants a Republican Governor, finds himself in practice between the hammer and anvil whether he votes the Republican or the Democratic legislative ticket. Thus such considerations as personal feud or friendship, or the local standing or lack of it of a candidate for the Legislature, under the "majority system" in Rhode Island, disguise the popular verdict just as they do in Connecticut. This year will be the first "hot" election in Rhode Island held under the new ballot law which was passed in 1889. The outcome will be watched with extreme interest, taking place in a State notoriously corrupt, and where, as in many other commonwealths, the Democrats have a natural majority of the votes, and the Republicans the money and a much stronger party machine. The canvass is already disclosing such Republican tactics as the hiring of all the large halls in Providence for the last two weeks of the campaign, "free railroad trains," and special efforts of a not too ethical nature by the same party to capture the new French-Canadian voters.

Maine continues to illustrate the folly of enacting laws which are not sustained by public sentiment. A year ago Neal Dow succeeded in getting the Legislature to pass a bill which was going to stop liquor-selling "sure," because the liquor-seller would have to go to jail every time he was arrested and convicted. Twelve months have passed, and more liquor is sold than ever. The reason is that the people do not sustain the law. On the one hand, juries will not convict though the evidence of guilt is plain, because they do not think the offence worthy of imprisonment. On the other hand, the judges themselves are so loath to inflict the penalty when conviction is secured that they will not send the criminals to jail, even though it seems questionable whether they legally enjoy any discretion in the matter. The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court presided at the recent term of court held in Bangor, a city where the liquor traffic is conducted openly, and he let off all of the sellers who were convicted, upon payment of fines, not a single jail sentence being imposed. A district lodge of Good Templars has passed resolutions declaring

> "That we view with indignation the action of the Presiding Justice of the Supreme Judicial Court at the February term held in Bangor, as tending to bring into disrepute our prohibitory laws, and defeat the ends of justice, said action being in our minds arbitrary and illegal, and in utter defiance of all law and right, nullifying the law and preventing the punishment of the criminals who have engaged in the liquor traffic in defiance of the expressed will of the people."

The Good Templars further resolved that the action of the Chief Justice was "illegal, unrighteous, and subversive of the rights of the people who desire to see the law rigidly enforced," and declared that "we will earnestly call upon our representatives in the Legislature to inquire into the matter, and take such further action as the facts ascertained demand." As to the legality of the action in question, most people will incline to the view that the opinion of the highest judge in the State is more valuable than that of a Good Templars lodge. The important fact in the matter is, the readiness of the Chief Justice to avoid imposing the severer penalty when he might have done so. In this he only reflects the dominant sentiment of the community, for everybody knows that an overwhelming majority of the people in Bangor do not believe it is the fair thing to send a man to jail for selling a glass of whiskey. So long as this remains the feeling of the community, it will be useless for Good Templars to adopt resolutions, or Legislatures to go through the form of enacting statutes.

The "White Cap" outrages in Indiana still continue. The latest occurred in Crawford County, and was perhaps the most extraordinary on the list. A band of men seized one Mattox on a charge of stealing, and dragged him some distance with a rope around his neck, when they discovered that he was innocent, and released him, after making themselves

known to him and exacting a promise that he would not betray them. Mattox finally concluded that such a promise was not binding, and gave the names of his assailants to the Prosecuting Attorney. The remarkable feature of the case is that among the names are those of two preachers, one County Commissioner, and two other well-known citizens, who are church members. Four of the number have been arrested and held to await the action of the Grand Jury. Although these outrages have been perpetrated in Crawford County for years, the Indianapolis *Journal* says that this is the first earnest movement which has been made to break up the White Caps. In all its aspects this White Cap business is one of the most surprising phenomena ever known in a presumably civilized community, and it is a terrible reproach to the State of Indiana that such outrages have been permitted year after year without any serious effort to stop them.

The "maple-sugar vote" in New England is greatly dissatisfied with the workings of the McKinley Law. That measure removed the duty on imported sugar, but offered the home producer a bounty as compensation. But the new system does not suit the Vermont owners of maple groves at all. They complain that they are being ruined by the pauper maple-sugar of Canada. Congressman Powers drew this alarming picture of the situation in a speech delivered in the House a few days ago:

"The maple-sugar production of Vermont is about 15,000,000 pounds. The production of Canada, just across the line, is 20,000,000. But the possibilities of production in Canada are perfectly astounding; 100,000,000 pounds might be produced there; and since this bounty was given to the maple-sugar producer there have been ten car-loads of maple-sugar imported into this country from Canada where before there was but one. It is imported to the city of Chicago, and there adulterated, and is sold, as I am told, through the West for Vermont maple-sugar."

So desperate is the situation of the Vermonters that Mr. Powers has introduced a bill to restore the old duty and to repeal the bounty. One of his objections to the bounty system is that the red tape necessary in order to get it compels the producer to lose the early market on maple-sugar, and forfeit more than two cents a pound if he undertakes to secure the bounty. Mr. Powers declares that, "if the old tariff upon sugar were restored, so as to keep foreign sugar out and leave the market to our own product, then our maple-sugar producers would be vastly better off than they are now." All of which illustrates again the difficulty of suiting people by any device to put money in their pockets by way of the Federal Treasury.

Again has British justice been taking a turn at literature, though this time its decision is not so bewildering as some others we have been obliged to record. The publishers of the London *Literary World* were sued for £1,000 damages for libel, the said libel asserted to consist in their review of a certain book. This was entitled 'Roughing it after Gold,' and was written by a Capt. Devereux, though published under an assumed name. His grievance was two-fold: first, his book was reviewed under the head of "New Novels," although it purported to be a faithful record of actual experience; and, second, the review stated, in substance, that the author was, on his own showing, a barefaced liar. The doughty Captain thereupon wrote the publishers, revealing the martial authorship of the volume and demanding a retraction. Not satisfied with the partial disclaimer which he received, he brought suit as stated. But on the witness-stand he was obliged to admit on cross-examination that one incident in the book—a description of election methods in Chicago, and of his own experience in running for office in that city—was highly colored, and, in fact, the thing that was not. Thereupon the learned Judge asked the jury if they saw anything in the plaintiff's case, and when those incorruptible freemen answered in the negative, gave judgment for the defendants with costs. This fable teaches that a critic sometimes knows how to classify a book better than its author; and also contains the moral that it is foolish to sue a writer for calling you a liar, only to have it proved in court that the charge was true.

At the time the correspondence in regard to the Spanish treaty was made public, it was seen that a clause in Mr. Blaine's last letter declared that the President would take into consideration the Spanish request for lower duties on Cuban tobacco, and that "this matter will be the subject of a separate note." It was alleged by some that this meant, what it certainly did not expressly say, that the President would send a special message to Congress on the subject. How the Spaniards themselves came to have the idea that such was the meaning of it may be seen from a letter of the Spanish Minister for Foreign Affairs to the Spanish Minister at Washington, made public in the course of the recent debate in the Spanish Senate. The letter was dated April 30, 1891, and gave a recapitulation of the negotiations leading up to the treaty. It then said that Mr. Foster, the special envoy, "promised, in the name of his Government, that the President of the republic would make use of his authority to ask Congress, on its reassembling, to make the reduction in the duties on tobacco which the Spanish Government so much desired." This promise was not kept, and it would seem to be in order for the two gentlemen who were responsible for making it and then breaking it, to explain their conduct.

"Fraternity with Claws" is the suggestive title of an article printed in a late number of *América en Paris*, a Spanish periodical published as the organ in France of Spanish Americans. It reviews the gushing days of the Pan-American Congress, and the stern realities of the McKinley Bill, with its retaliatory clause which followed, runs over the diplomatic relations of our Government with Hayti and Chili, and takes up the recent levying of discriminating duties on the products of Colombia, Venezuela, and Hayti. It says: "No one has a right to complain when he is abused or insulted in any place where he has gone to treat as an equal with one who is stronger than he is, and who has already shown his style of conduct." The writer says that if "any one in Spanish America believed in the sincerity" of the friendly professions of the United States, he never heard of him, and that, if there ever were such a credulous individual, the truth must have dawned upon him at last. In the case of Chili, he says, the "Washington Government imposed its will, and violated in the most shameless and flagrant manner the laws of international intercourse recognized by all civilized nations." After this has come the enforcement of retaliation, although in the case of Colombia, and probably Venezuela, preëxisting treaties were thereby overridden. A person who should act in this way in private affairs, says the article, would be considered as "either a lunatic or a rogue." It closes by saying:

"The great nation of North America has not, and never has had, any real liking for the other countries of the continent. If it wishes to win them over to-day, it is because, burdened by the weight of its protectionist chains, it desires to get them to help carry the load. That is the whole of it. Time will tell if our republics allow themselves to be deceived."

Argentine securities have been picking up in London for the past few weeks on the strength of a reported improvement in Argentine finance and commerce. There appears to have been a rally to some extent, due in part to the apparent settling of the political question, the starting up of new industries, and the expansion of agricultural production. Some important experiments in tobacco-growing point to an increase of resources in that direction, while the discovery of coal-fields, so considerable that the railway companies have declined to renew their contracts with English mine-owners for the supply of their fuel, and the working of some rich salt deposits near the harbor of San Blas, mark other encouraging developments. Still, the gravity of the situation should not be forgotten. Argentina is now paying no interest whatever on her foreign debt, yet even so is running behind. On the basis of the estimates for 1892, a deficit of $1,000,000 is to be looked for; and when we remember that an estimated surplus of $10,000,000 for 1891 turned out to be a shortage of $600,000, this forecast is far from reassuring.

THE END OF FREE COINAGE.

THE country passed a dangerous crisis last Thursday, when the silver-men in the House of Representatives were forced to postpone their attempt to pass a free-coinage bill, after a tie-vote had been taken on the question of tabling it. This vote was more favorable to the friends of sound money than we had anticipated. Most people had expected a majority of about twenty in favor of the Bland Bill, while Mr. Bland himself had been reckoning on forty. The Republicans came up to the fight nobly, and gave all of their votes, except eleven, against the measure. Sixty-six of the 148 votes cast against it were Republican. The eleven who voted in favor of it were either from the silver-producing States or from the far West, except one, Mr. Vincent A. Taylor of Ohio. If this gentleman had voted with his party the bill would have been killed instead of being postponed. By the subsequent decision of Speaker Crisp not to report a closure rule for a vote on the Bland Bill unless a majority of the Democrats in the House should request it in writing, it has practically been killed.

While awarding to the Republicans the credit they well deserve for their action, so nearly unanimous, on this bill, we must extend congratulations to the anti-silver Democrats for the splendid fight they have made. In this struggle the names of Tracey of New York, Williams of Massachusetts, Harter of Ohio, Rayner of Maryland, Brawley of South Carolina, and Cockran of New York will be long remembered. And it serves as a fresh illustration of the recuperative power of the nation that all of these names, except that of Mr. Tracey, are new in this controversy. Not one of them, except Tracey, was in the last Congress, and not one, except Tracey and Cockran, has been in any previous Congress. Among the Southern Democrats was one brave man whose lofty course recalls the example of Mr. Lamar in 1878. Mr. Lamar was then Senator from Mississippi. His Legislature had passed resolutions instructing him to vote for the silver bill of that day. He said he could not conscientiously do so, nor could he conscientiously refrain from voting. He believed that casting his vote against the bill would be signing his own political death warrant, but he nevertheless did cast it as his conscience told him was right. His State not only forgave him, but took him into higher confidence than ever, and promoted him by successive steps to the bench of the Supreme Court of the United States, where he now sits. In like manner Mr. Brawley has come forward, and after delivering one of the most convincing speeches against the Bland Bill, cast his vote against it at every stage. There is something touching in the conclusion of Mr. Brawley's speech. He said:

"If by my voice and vote upon this bill I have failed to satisfy the wishes of any portion of my constituents, and if my course herein puts an end to my public service, as many of my friends warn me that it will, I wish those of my people who have honored me with their confidence to know that my conclusions have been reached after most careful consideration, moved by the most sympathetic regard for their interests and wishes. There has been the strongest and most subtle temptation to earn their approval by hypocritical conformity with what is represented to be their will; but my convictions as to the injurious effect of this bill have been so strong that such mendacious compliances have been impossible to me, and dear as their approval would be to me, I hold my conscience higher than their praise."

There is one man on the other side of the chamber who has won golden opinions from all sorts of people, namely, ex-Speaker Reed. From first to last he has fought the Bland Bill on principle, not on grounds of mere party expediency. He has battled against the measure in order to beat it, not merely to "put the Democrats in a hole." Whatever step was parliamentary and calculated to prevent the bill from becoming a law, he has advocated and urged upon his party associates. In this he has shown the highest party wisdom. The business in hand is too serious for trifling and dodging and "skirmishing for position." Silver has taken another tumble, having fallen to 39 pence per ounce in London, and 85½ cents here. At this rate the bullion value of a silver dollar is only 65¾ cents. To take any step, or cast any vote, which may subject the fortunes of the people, their savings and their wages, to such a fluctuating standard of measurement cannot be good party policy for either Republicans or Democrats.

Looking at the subject in its broader aspects, we think that the country has passed the point of danger, not merely for this Congress but for all Congresses and all time. As there was a culminating point in the greenback craze seventeen years ago, so, we think, has the culminating point in the silver craze been reached and overpassed. Discussion, real discussion, where silver is not a side issue, but the main thing, is fatal to it every time and in every place. Discussion killed the greenback heresy in Ohio in 1875. It killed the silver heresy in the same State last year. It has killed it in the House of Representatives now—a House that was proclaimed to be "two-thirds silver" when it was elected (although elected on another issue) in the autumn of 1890. The American people are not prepared to sanction the principle of paying a hundred cents of debt with 68 cents worth of anything. The more that principle is discussed, the fewer votes will be found for it either in Congress or at the ballot-box.

THE MORAL OF JUDGE MAYNARD'S FALL.

WE do not believe it would be possible to explain how a man of Judge Maynard's position and antecedents came to commit the offence of which the Bar Association has found him guilty, without going back to the extraordinary growth of unscrupulousness in politics which we have been witnessing during the last ten or fifteen years. This unscrupulousness had its origin in a tradition of the war cherished by a great many Republicans, and in some degree excusable, that Democrats were a kind of traitors whom it would be highly unsafe to intrust with the conduct of the Government, and who, in fact, if they got into office, would probably destroy the public credit, and distribute the contents of the Treasury among old slaveholders and ex-rebels. This notion in some degree accounted for the process by which Tilden was defeated in 1876, and it was made to do more and more service as the party grew weaker with the country. It played a large part in the operations against Cleveland in 1884, when it died out.

But it did not die out without calling into existence a new type of Republican politician, of which Messrs. Quay and Reed and Ingalls are good specimens, each in his own field, who hold that anything that will beat the Democrats is lawful, that no man need be ashamed of any perversion or evasion of the law, or disregard of precedent, or abuse of power which helps his party to get what it wants. Ingalls committed the folly of putting the creed of these people into words, in his famous "iridescent dream" speech, and suffered for it; but the others secretly applauded him. They held with him that in politics as in war all was fair that succeeded. Quay carried the election of 1888 on this theory, and Reed ruled the Fifty-first Congress on it. Reed's performances were worse in their influence than Quay's, because Reed is a man of good personal character, as Quay is not, and because they were public, while Quay's were secret, and because they were accompanied by an immense amount of bullying which exasperated the Democrats all over the country to the last degree and made them thirst for vengeance. They were humiliated by their apparent helplessness. Their managers were taunted with inferiority to the Republicans in "smartness," and upon the ease with which they were cozened and put down. There thus grew up in their ranks a longing for tricksters who would match Quay and Reed and Dudley as cheats and bullies, and "get there" somehow.

If we are not greatly mistaken, it is this which explains that most mysterious phenomenon of American politics—the rise of David B. Hill to a commanding position in his party. If it does not account for this rise, certainly nothing else does. Hill, according to our view, came forward to supply a new party want—that is, a leader thoroughly competent to fight the devil with fire, and familiar with all the tricks of the political game as the Republicans were playing it, and as he had long played it himself on the ward and county stage. Ideas, or opinions, or eloquence, or magnetism were not required of him. All he was asked was if he knew how to bribe, to "deal,"

to make false counts, and, in short, by hook or by crook, to make majorities. He showed the wax on his finger-ends, the marks on the cards, the way of getting the aces up his sleeve, and produced a very complete thimble-rigging "layout." He proved so satisfactory to the new school that he received one bit of political preferment after another—

> "And moving up from high to higher,
> Became on Fortune's crowning slope
> The pillar of a party's hope."

It was not wonderful that Judge Maynard's imagination was affected by the apparently brilliant success of this disgraceful career. It surely seemed as if the true road to glory was traced out by Hill's tracks. It appeared after the November election as if the Democrats had been so dazzled by Hill's juggling dexterity that they had thrown overboard in disgust the one candidate produced by them in thirty years whom the country at large recognized as both a statesman and an honest man, and had resolved, in fact, on dismissing all "eminent counsel," and having their work hereafter done by shysters—like the firms in the dry-goods district who now send their lawyer in the cart to seize the goods when they hear of the sudden failure of one of their customers. There was, in truth, for a month after the last election, as we all remember with shame, much chuckling in the Democratic ranks over "Dave" Hill's dexterity. It was not till he began to prepare for his "snap convention," that is, to pick the pockets of his own companions, that disapproval of his ways began to develop itself.

It is not surprising that Judge Maynard and even such men as Mr. John Bogart and Mr. Rice should have been deluded into the notion that cheating was to be no longer damaging to reputation. They, one might say naturally, seized the first chance that offered itself of winning some of Hill's fame. But they came a little too late. The public forbearance was exhausted; the public conscience had waked up to a perception of the frightful consequences to the State and nation of further continuance on the path of competitive knavery and fraud. Judge Maynard's own profession felt the necessity of arresting him and bringing him to justice. There is no calling put in such peril as the lawyer's by the destruction among men of mutual faith and confidence, by successful defiance of the law. The action of the Bar Association has, therefore, come upon the political world like the action of Moses when he found the Israelites had in his absence set up the golden calf. He slew three thousand of them in spite of the excuses of Aaron, who said they insisted on his making "gods for them who should go before them, for as for this Moses, the man that brought them up out of the land of Egypt, they knew not what had become of him." So Aaron manufactured a golden calf for them, and doubtless all the weak heads thought a good-sized golden calf was as a leader worth ten Moseses.

SINKING FUNDS.

THE *Nineteenth Century* for March has an interesting article on the dilemma in which the London Metropolitan Council finds itself. Greater London, as it might be called, is an aggregate of parishes which has had a sort of unification of municipal interests (represented by the Metropolitan Board, now Council) for less than forty years. For general improvements, such as the building of sewers, the Council was authorized to borrow money and to establish sinking funds therefor. These metropolitan stocks, issued at 3½ and 3 per cent. interest, are now above par. The law is explicit that the Council can raise money by taxation only for the exact difference between its income and outgo. In the former it must include all interest on investments, and in the latter a stipulated amount for purchases of stock at or below par for the sinking fund. The Council lent its money to the vestries within the popularly understood, but not the corporate, limits of the city, and since the rate of interest on its loans exceeded the rate on its public debts, it took the difference towards paying the premium on the stock purchased for the sinking funds. This the *Nineteenth Century* says has been declared illegal, so that the whole of the income of the Council, from whatever source derived, must be credited in its accounts before the rate of taxation can be determined.

This leaves the annual appropriation for the sinking funds from taxation without the usual investment, since the public debt is above par and by law no premium can be paid and charged in the tax budget. This Metropolitan stock comes due in 1929 and must be paid from sinking funds. The Council under the present law has two courses open to it. One is to continue lending money to subordinate parishes. The difficulty here is that it will be impossible to collect all this large amount of money from these various debtors, so as to have in hand the cash necessary to pay off the public stocks in that year. The investment is no doubt safe enough, but a municipality does not levy taxes in order to invest the proceeds. The sole aim of the sinking fund is to pay off the public debt at maturity, but not before; and if its sums cannot be used to buy in its own debts at a premium, it is by no means easy to say what should be done with such large amounts of money. Even if uninvested, the taxpayers lose the interest on such part of the public debt as would otherwise be purchased.

Another course before the Council, and one pursued by that body, is to lend the money to itself by using the sinking funds for further improvements instead of creating new debt. But in this case the funds so used are credited to a sort of construction account, and this account by law is liable to the public debtors the same as a sinking fund would be. This practically leaves the difficulty as great as ever, for in 1929 the actual cash must be forthcoming from that account or from the particular sewers, etc., covered by it. This recalls the sinking-fund cases in New York city, in which it was contended that the city sinking funds should be deducted from the city's total debt before the limitation of 10 per cent. on the assessed valuation should be applied.

One of the suggested remedies in the London case is a Parliamentary law allowing the Council to purchase its debt in the open market at a premium. Very likely this would be better for the taxpayers than letting the funds lie idle or investing them in loans which could not be turned into cash at maturity of the municipal debt; yet this premium paid represents just so much loss to the municipality, for the creditor would have to accept par in the end. In spite of all this, the English writer is firm in the belief that all municipal debts should by some means—sinking funds presumably—be paid off in sixty years. Dr. Price advanced his theory of sinking funds a century ago, and though his views were afterwards critically examined and materially modified in public practice, there yet remains a feeling that a sinking fund has a mysterious efficacy for the removal of debt in national, municipal, and corporate affairs. Mr. Henry C. Adams, in his excellent work on 'Public Debts,' has made very clear the fact that governments have but one source of revenue—taxation—and so far as the expedient of laying aside moneys for the extinguishment of a public debt tends to confuse this fact, the practice is misleading. Cossa, in his work on 'Taxation,' says of sinking funds:

> "The complexity of the system, the expenses, the application of the funds for other uses which is inevitable in economic or political crises, and the need of fresh loans have almost always neutralized the advantages that were expected to result from this much-extolled extinction of the public debt."

The question of the wisdom of establishing sinking funds while borrowing fresh money may be illustrated by the practice of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad, one of the few railway companies which keep up large sinking funds carefully. In 1890 the direct application from income, together with the interest on the company's own bonds kept alive in those funds, amounted to more than 2 per cent. on the share capital. At the same time the company is issuing other bonds for further extensions and improvements. It would be difficult to show a good economic reason for such a policy. The stockholders certainly lose a possible dividend, while the lien of the bondholders is not made more valuable, because the property is worth more than the mortgage in any case. It should be borne in mind that national and corporation finance rest on different bases. The Federal Government is not "in business" in the sense that a railway is. We may agree that a nation ought to pay off its debt, without thereby committing ourselves to the theory that a corporation ought to do the same. Mr. Adams, in one of his statistical

reports to the Inter-State Commission, speaks of our railway debt as "coming to be a perpetual encumbrance on the industries of the country"; yet his theory just alluded to, that there is no debt payment possible except from revenue, applies also to corporate affairs. Our railways could clear off their bonded debt from earnings only by increasing their tariffs so as to earn annually an extra sinking-fund charge, a course we all know to be impossible. Turning bonds into stocks would not alter their character as capital, but would deprive the shareholders of the advantage of obtaining money at a low rate of interest, thus leaving to themselves any profit remaining.

A municipality, as to its finances, occupies a position midway between the general government and the private corporation. A city raises its revenues from taxation like the nation at large, but also may enter upon a business undertaking like the supplying of water and gas to its citizens, and may properly charge to the citizens benefited a sum sufficient to pay running expenses and to contribute something towards the extinguishment of that particular debt. But on the question of the general debt of the city, that part that approaches nearest to national financiering, it is not so clear that the establishment of a sinking fund adds all that was expected towards the solution of the problem. The constitutional limitation put on borrowing is much more of a safeguard to holders of municipal debt than any sinking fund can be, and with the rapid increase of wealth and population among our American cities it is a question whether under this limitation we need any further taxation for contributions to such funds. So far as London is concerned, to an outsider its difficulties seem largely technical; so that what that aggregation of parishes really needs is not sinking-fund refinements so much as full harmony of interests in what are really, though not yet altogether legally, matters of municipal concern.

THE DECAY OF PROFESSIONAL MANNERISMS.

We do not remember whether Carlyle, in his book on the clothes-philosophy, explained the origin of the old idea that each profession should have its distinctive dress. It may have been due to an unconscious imitation in human society of nature's method of "protective colors" in the animal world; so that a man need be in no more danger of taking a lawyer for a clergyman than a bird is of snapping up a poisonous caterpillar in the thought that it is a nutritious worm. However that may be, there can be no question that the use of a professional garb is rapidly passing away. Its greatest persistence has been in the two most conservative of all the professions—the ministry and the law—but even there it has lost a great deal of ground. In this country, at least, full-bottomed wigs and the dress of the old-style lawyer, such as the late B. H. Brewster used to array himself in to the end of his days, are now a pure anachronism. And as for the ministry, the alarming experience of the Westerner who hunted all day in company with a doctor of divinity without once "suspicionin' thet the chap b'longed to the prayin' gang," is growing more possible every year. We need not stop to point out the same process in other callings. The accentuation of a man's profession by his dress is mostly a thing of the past.

But this outward and visible sign is only a witness to an inward change even more striking. There used to be certain mental presumptions and prejudices connected with the several professions—a sort of lofty assumption of privilege, an air of professional mystery, a kind of waving away of the uninitiated—which were no less a mark and accompaniment of a particular calling than was a peculiar garb, but which, with that, have been very greatly broken down. Thus it used to be very common for a theologian to make some fine-spun distinction, and refuse to accept the inferences which the ordinary reason would draw from it, on the ground that only the "theological mind" was fitted to pass judgment upon it. When Lyman Beecher was introducing his improvements into Calvinism, he put forth the proposition that the Creator did not desire the damnation of the non-elect "in itself considered," but did, "all things considered." He was naturally indignant when some non-theological mind posted placards in Boston representing him, first as an angel of light, labelled "Lyman Beecher, in himself considered," and then as a messenger of darkness, with the inscription below, "Lyman Beecher, all things considered." Those were days in which privilege of clergy could be pleaded with some effect; but few theologians nowadays would claim exemption for their arguments from the ordinary canons of logic.

This city and State have recently seen a curious instance of the survival of a similar idea in the legal profession. A clear statement of fact was before the public, upon the strength of which the press in general and the mass of intelligent men pronounced a judicial officer of the State guilty of a villany, if not a crime. But there were those who came forward to tell ordinary people that they had no right to an opinion on the subject because they had not a "legal mind"; and they thereupon proceeded to becloud the matter with a technical argument in defence, bristling with citations of cases and precedents. Luckily, the committee of the Bar Association, with at least as large a stock of "legal mind" as Judge Maynard's defenders, swept away the obfuscation with which it was sought to enwrap the subject; but the important thing to notice is, that they came back to the same simple statement of actions and their natural interpretation, which had all along been dwelt upon in the press, and which had served to justify the popular verdict of condemnation. The entire incident is a very wholesome rebuke to the unfounded claim that a professional opinion of the morality of an act, or set of acts, is of more value than the judgment of any mind of average intelligence.

This is by no means to deny special aptitudes or attainments, or to impeach the value of expert and specialist work upon which so much of advance in knowledge is founded. There is undoubtedly such a thing as a "legal mind," in the sense of a mind naturally endowed with the power to grasp general principles of law and to deduce their fruitful consequences; and when such native powers are severely trained and fed by the results of prolonged industry, they go to make up a legal specialist of a high order. Such a lawyer's opinion of what the law, in any given case, is, or was intended to be, of the constitutionality of a particular enactment, or the legality of a novelty in legislative or corporate practice, must necessarily be worth more than an ordinary man's. Yet observe that what this amounts to is really only that he is best competent to tell us what the facts actually are; his judgment of the moral bearings of those facts may gain nothing from his exceptional legal attainments.

There is often a surprising failure to notice that a necessary implication of our modern system of specialists is, that a man out of his specialty is no better than any other person. Thus it was hailed as a knock-down blow for the pretensions of modern scientists when a distinguished lawyer declared, some years ago, that he had examined the writings of Darwin and Tyndall and Huxley, and found their conclusions not borne out by their evidence. What he meant was, that their conclusions could not be proved to a jury under the strict rules for the admission of evidence; not seeing how many of the propositions of modern science are built upon inductions of the widest scope, that necessarily include a great deal of moral and cumulative and analogical evidence of a sort which no judge would let go before a jury in a murder trial, but which is absolutely irresistible to the mind not tied down to the technicalities of legal evidence. Yet Tyndall himself did not stick to his last any better than the lawyer, when he essayed to lend his scientific authority to the condemnation of Mr. Gladstone's Irish bills. It is so easy, said the cynical French critic, not to write a five-act play, and it might seem in like manner to be very easy not to think you knew everything because you know some things better than any one else; yet experience shows that it is one of the hardest things in the world for some men.

We might show how the tendency away from professional affectation has had great effects in other callings than the legal and clerical. The novelist or the poet of to-day does not need to assume an air of peculiar wisdom, or maintain an ap-

pearance of great mystery about his art, any more than he needs to wear a dirty collar and long hair. The editor does not need to have it supposed that he is always seated at his desk, in telephone communication with all the world, surrounded by the accumulated learning of the ages, and making "copy" with the inspired air of a man sitting on the Delphic tripod. All around there is a decided gain in simplicity and unaffectedness. The old professional mannerisms linger on the scene only to be laughed at. Men were never so much respected for knowledge gained by tireless and long-continued application, and were never so much ridiculed for owl-like airs of supernatural wisdom, or for pretending that they are exempt from the fallibility and limitations of other mortals.

AN ATTEMPT TO NOBBLE THE NATIONAL GALLERY.

LONDON, March 5, 1892.

THE fame of Mr. Tate, millionaire sugar-refiner and patron of modern British academic art, may not have reached America, but for the last year or longer no name has been more prominent than his in the English art-world. Coming forward as a public benefactor, he has been treated, his friends complain, as a public nuisance. Having made a munificent offer to the Government, first of a collection of pictures valued by himself at I do not know what phenomenal sum, and next of £80,000 to build a gallery worthy of it, he raised, no doubt greatly to his own surprise, such a storm of abuse and opposition that to-day comes the news of the withdrawal of his offer. The story, interesting because it reveals a healthy reaction against the old British sentimentalism in dealing with all art matters, may be briefly told.

Mr. Tate, having accepted the Royal Academy as his standard and possessed himself of a long series of "pictures of the year," felt that it was selfish to reserve these treasures solely for his own delight, and presented them to the National Gallery. Of the generosity of his intention there could be little question; of the benefit of his gift to the nation there was far less certainty. Besides, he hampered it with conditions: the Trustees of the Gallery must take all his canvases or none. Now, too often the "picture of the year" is far from being a picture of all time, and the Trustees, with the good sense that distinguishes the present management of the collection in Trafalgar Square, politely but firmly refused the gift. They already feel the disadvantage of similar presentations and bequests made and accepted in the past. Their refusal, welcomed by the few, was violently criticised by the many at the time, and this criticism to Mr. Tate represented the eagerness of the British public to enjoy his rejected masterpieces. To establish a gallery of British art was the next proposition, and an anonymous benefactor, who in the course of a few days turned out to be Mr. Tate himself, came forward with a promise of £80,000 to build the necessary gallery, where British art could rally round his collection and be freed from the contamination of foreign schools, if the Government would provide a suitable site; and here again—fortunately as it now turns out—Mr. Tate made his conditions: he was to be the judge of the suitability of the site selected. On the other hand, he now agreed that only those of his pictures which were passed by a certain committee—the committee to be formed chiefly from Royal Academicians represented in the collection—need be hung. As has since been said, the jingle of golden guineas dazzled the Government and the public alike. But still there was more than one hitch. The original idea was to gather together in Mr. Tate's gallery not only the pictures given by him, but all the genuine British masterpieces from the National Gallery and the South Kensington Museum, thus despoiling two fine collections. But again the Trustees of the former institution objected, and there was so loud an outcry from influential quarters against such vandalism that this proposition was dropped. Then a new unlooked-for difficulty arose. Mr. Tate and the Government could not come to terms upon the question of site. One place after another was suggested and refused by either the former or the latter. For a vacant lot on the Embankment, which would have answered the city, its owner asked too extravagant a price. The piece of ground at South Kensington which Mr. Tate decided would please him, the Science Department, with some show of righteous anger, declared had been promised to them. And so it went on. Mr. Tate would not build his gallery where he could, he could not build it where he would. With the reopening of Parliament the matter was once more brought before the Government. Last week Mr. Goschen wrote to offer Mr. Tate a plot of land near the South Kensington Museum, for which the nation would have to pay £15,000. To-day is published Mr. Tate's answer, declining not only to build on the piece of land suggested, which seems to him wholly inadequate, but to build at all or to give his pictures to an ungrateful country: he withdraws his offer.

While disapproval of the site finally selected is given by Mr. Tate as the reason for this step, a clause in his letter referring to the "in some respects uncalled-for opposition" aroused by his scheme, supplies the real explanation. The opinion of the younger artists and art-critics, who are fast becoming a power in the land, was strong against his Gallery, and in the end they have carried the day. The war was fierce, for Mr. Tate had his supporters and defenders, but that many of these were found among dealers and time-servers who call themselves critics was scarce an argument in his favor. For a month past the daily and weekly papers have been discussing the matter with great earnestness and vigor, as it was known that upon the new decision of the Government depended the ultimate fate of Mr. Tate's now notorious collection. If his pictures were really great works of art, there would have been no opposition whatever; but they are chiefly the productions of popular painters of the day, whose fame in many cases is already on the decline, and in the course of another generation they would prove as great a burden upon the nation as the pictures of Sheepshanks and many another well-meaning man who has presented or left his private collection to the country. It is safe to say that not more than two would, as works of art, ever find their way into the National Gallery. When the plan of the one and only Gallery of British Art fell through, then it was said, why not let Mr. Tate's collection form the nucleus of a British Luxembourg? At a glance this proposition seemed plausible enough. But has not London already this nucleus in the pictures bought by the Chantrey Bequest Fund and hung at South Kensington—or rather would it not have, if the Fund were managed as it should be? Besides, the wretched daubs and rubbish that fill the German Luxembourgs, started in similar fashion, should serve as an awful warning against making a private collection the foundation for a public gallery; that is, if the public gallery is to be of the least value or service to anybody. Sentimentalists may exclaim at the generosity of the gift; practical men should consider its intrinsic merits and ultimate effects. That enough practical men to make their influence felt in sentimental England have been found is a triumph. An excellent precedent has been established, and far more good has been derived from Mr. Tate's offer of his pictures than if they had become the property of the nation.

N. N.

Correspondence.

CONFESSIONS OF A MYTH-MAKER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of the favorite situations of the modern novelists is the awakening of a once respectable character to its own turpitude; the sudden revealing of an unsuspected moral disintegration, the final result of a long series of bad acts. Tito denies his connection with Baldassarre in the Rucellai Gardens; Bartley Hubbard finds himself disgraced in the Cleveland station; MacPherson discovers that he is known to be the writer of Ossian. I felt myself Tito, Bartley, and still more MacPherson, when I read Mr. Samuel Willard's letter in the *Nation* of March 24, on "A Myth of the Confederacy." Under such painful circumstances of detection, the only solace of the criminal is to plume himself upon the magnitude of his offence. But even that comfort is denied me: I cannot conscientiously feel that I am entitled to such an advertisement as a successful circulator of reports "false in every particular," of "fabrication," and "slander," of "the *ex-post-facto* manufacture of history." However sensible of the compliment which Mr. Willard pays to my imaginative powers, it would be assuming to allow to go uncontradicted the insinuation that I invented the diverting episode of the secession of Jones County, Mississippi.

Nor have I even the lesser distinction, which seems also to be ascribed to me, necessary to repeat a story and then to refuse to give my authority. One must be a very reckless offender who has not the fear of the *Nation* before his eyes. It is quite true that Mr. Willard "addressed a note, . . . asking for the contemporary authority" for my statement, but as the note, the only one I have ever received, reached me *March 21, 1892*, when the printed letter must have been already in type, my speedy and sufficiently explicit reply probably did not reach Mr. Willard in time for him to withdraw his letter. To be sure, his note is dated December 14, 1891, and is post-marked, apparently, "Los Angeles, March 14, 1892"; but I am not quite so devoid of humor as to charge a presumably respectable man with a want of good faith for what any one must suppose is a simple accident; nor shall I write to the Postmaster at Los Angeles for information without giving Mr. Willard an opportunity of private explanation. The only persons, therefore, whose character appears to be seriously involved by Mr. Willard's investigation are the "slandered" people of Jones County and Mr. G. Norton Galloway, historian of the Sixth Army Corps. Mr. Galloway published in the *Magazine of American History* for October, 1886, (vol. xvi., pp. 387-390) an article entitled "A

Confederacy within a Confederacy," from which I drew my statement in the *New England Magazine*. To judge from the picturesqueness, humor, and straightforwardness of the article, Mr. Galloway is abundantly able to defend himself, even against the principalities and powers of Mississippi. His account has the ear-marks of truth; and I am so lost to propriety as to believe it still, and to hope that it "will run a long while."

Recent events suggest a delicacy as to delivering anything in the nature of a "professional warning," having any personal bearing: "Those be such desperate bloody-minded weapons." May I venture, however, to lay down four canons for the guidance of the inexperienced who may venture into the paths of historical criticism?

(1.) Never make a statement which you cannot support by good authority, if challenged; it is right to be cautious, it is also convenient.

(2.) Do not too hastily accept the testimony of two persons who never heard of a thing as conclusive against one who has heard of it.

(3.) If a stern sense of justice moves you to expose a fellow-craftsman who is engaged in "the *ex-post-facto* manufacture of history," be sure that your letters of inquiry are not also "*ex-post-facto*."

(4.) "To Roast a Hare.—*First catch your Hare.*"—Respectfully,

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, March 25, 1892.

THE GOVERNMENT AND THE PEOPLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: No one who, in persistently advocating a cause, has not felt the freezing effect of indifference can appreciate the gratitude I feel o Mr. Harrison for furnishing a point of restance, or it might be better to say a staff to ean upon.

It is nearly a quarter of a century since I began to urge the importance of giving to the Cabinet officers seats in Congress. The same principle next presented itself with startling force in relation to municipal government. But it is only within a few years—in fact, since the appearance of Mr. Bryce's book—that I have seen that the State governments furnish the most important as well as available point of attack. It is perfectly astounding, as one bores into the subject, to see how obvious and how imperative is the necessity for such a change. There is, however, one thing in the State government which makes the work much more difficult. The Federal administration is organized on a sound principle—one man in every place, and that man appointed in a direct line of subordination, from the President down. All that needs to be done, therefore, at the outset is to make a connection between the Executive and the Legislature. In the States, on the other hand, the heads of departments are elected separately from the Governor, and are wholly independent of him. As administration under these circumstances is impossible, the Legislatures have set up a number of anonymous and irresponsible commissions which really govern the State. This dislocated administration has, therefore, to be got into working order before a responsible Cabinet in the Legislature can be thought of, and the former task is, perhaps, the harder of the two. There is another difficulty common to both the Federal and State governments. The objective point is to strengthen the Executive, and thereby obtain greater personal responsibility. Now, there are two things which by its nature a Legislature does not want and is thoroughly hostile to: one, strengthening the Executive; and the other, personal responsibility. It is, therefore, quite useless to try, as Mr. Harrison suggests, to get a bill through the Massachusetts or any other Legislature, or through Congress. The work can be done only in one of two ways: (*a*) by crusaders like William Lloyd Garrison and Wendell Phillips, who shall arouse the people to compel the Legislatures and Congress to do the work; or, (*b*) by some Governor or President who shall appeal directly to the people on behalf of his office.

Mr. Harrison doubts whether much advantage would be gained. "No system or agency can long keep our politics much above or below the level of our national character, and it is at least a question whether any change in methods or machinery would stimulate the essential elements of the stage of civilization which we have reached." I cannot reply to this better than by a quotation from Macaulay relating to the first Parliament of William III. after the Revolution of 1688:

"But the King of England could do nothing without the House of Commons. And the House of Commons, though it had hitherto supported him zealously and liberally, was not a body on which he could rely. It had, indeed, got into a state which perplexed and alarmed all the most sagacious politicians of that age. There was something appalling in the union of such boundless power with such boundless caprice. The fate of the whole civilized world depended upon the votes of the representatives of the English people, and there was no public man who could say with confidence what the representatives might not be induced to vote within twenty-four hours.

"The truth was that the change which the Revolution had made in the situation of the House of Commons had made another change necessary, and that other change had not as yet taken place. There was Parliamentary Government, but there was no Ministry, and without a Ministry the working of a Parliamentary Government such as ours must always be unsteady and unsafe. It is essential to our liberties that the House of Commons should exercise a control over all departments of the administration. And yet it is evident that a crowd of five or six hundred people, even if they were intellectually much above the average of the members of the best Parliament, even if every one of them were a Burleigh or a Sully, would be unfit for executive functions. It has been truly said that every large collection of human beings, however well educated, has a tendency to become a mob; and a country of which the Supreme Executive Council is a mob is surely in a perilous position."

The remedy in this case was found in an Executive Ministry having seats in the Parliament, and there are few things more interesting in political history, and none more instructive, than the development of this Ministry till it has become in this century the instrument of the greatest peaceful reform, in the interest of the whole people, which this world has ever seen. The whole history of France from 1789 to this hour is that of a struggle to work out this problem of establishing an Executive strong enough to govern, but held responsible to the nation. It is to be feared, notwithstanding the twenty years of the Third Republic, that final success has not been attained. We also in this country have got to work out the same problem, or go to pieces.

G. B.

BOSTON, March 25, 1892.

CHAUCER'S AGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Prof. Lounsbury's excellent monograph on the life of Chaucer ('Studies in Chaucer,' i., 32 *ff.*), certain arguments are advanced against the assumption of 1340 as the birth-year of the poet. On p. 48 the author remarks that the only way to break the force of references made to Chaucer's old age, both his own laments and the allusions of his contemporaries, is to take the ground "that the average duration of human life in the fourteenth century was so much shorter than in the nineteenth that a man would then be termed old at a much earlier period than now." A quotation to this effect is made from Hampole; and an utterance of Innocent III., two hundred years earlier, is shown to hold the same tenor. Such evidence, however, is condemned by Prof. Lounsbury as mere religious rhetoric, and useless to prove the point. In this opinion we all cheerfully concur. But there is other evidence of a much more convincing character. I do not say that this evidence will dispose of our author's assertion that the individual life was no shorter then than now (p. 49); but I feel sure that it will show what fourteenth-century people meant by old age. Jacob Grimm ('Rechtsalterthümer,' 416 *f.*) brings proof, for several Germanic races and for different times, that sixty and often fifty years were regarded as the terminal point of active manhood. From twenty to fifty for men, from fifteen to forty for women, said the West Goths, may be reckoned as active life. Above sixty, ran a German maxim, men were come "beyond their days," or had "arrived at their days." An old German poet, after naming various stages of a life well spent, ends by saying: "How fairly comes one to the fifty years!" Among the Romans, *senectus* began at fifty (see J. Grimm, *über das Alter*, Kl. Schr. i., 190). An old German proverb, quoted in Grimm's essay, says:

"30 Jahr ein Mann,
40 Jahr stille stahn,
50 Jahr geht Alter an."

Such popular wisdom is worth the rhetoric of a thousand sermons; and it shows how easily Chaucer's friends might call him old at fifty, or even a few years earlier. When he calls himself old, we need not take him too seriously: think of Thackeray's "forty year."

It is almost superfluous to add that what I have written applies simply to the use of this particular argument, and not to the conclusions of Prof. Lounsbury in regard to the birth-year of Chaucer.—I am, etc.,

F. B. G.

HAVERFORD COLLEGE, March 25, 1892.

"PSYCHOLOGY IN AMERICA."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We have lately flattered ourselves on the way in which we teach mathematics in America, and now it seems that we are to do so on the score of our psychology as well. Prof. Cattell, in your issue of March 17, presented things in a very optimistic light, although there are at present not half-a-dozen institutions in the country where courses in scientific psychology are given. The kind of "psychology" generally taught bears as little relation to science as the teachings of the "Metaphysical Medical College" bear to medicine or metaphysics. I have actually found one institution in which the only course in mental science was conducted with Bowne's 'Introduction to Psychological Theory' as a text-book. This little-known work is a tirade against the employment of scientific methods in psychology, and was written during an attack of what G. Stanley Hall calls "hylophobia," or "materialism-madness"; and I am sure that the author never dreamed of its being used as a text-book. The experience of many of us will suggest other places where the in-

struction is no better. Prof. Cattell does not do justice to the supporters of the new psychology, himself included. The difficulty of raising the standard in mathematics is comparatively small. In psychology we have to struggle for the first introduction of scientific methods; what this means when it comes to the question of an appropriation for a laboratory can well be conceived. To be sure, President Hall has founded two laboratories, of which the one at Baltimore no longer exists, and Prof. Cattell is to be credited with a like number. But the success achieved by the pioneers ought not to blind us to the fact that by far the large majority of our so-called universities teach a psychology which would call a blush of shame to the face of old Aristotle, the father of the science, for the degeneration of his offspring in the last two thousand years. To attempt to console ourselves by pointing out the entire lack of psychological facilities in England (except in the Cavendish Physiological Laboratory) is like trying to persuade the New Yorkers of the charms of bossism because the Czar of Russia is worse than Hill.

Respectfully, E. W. Scripture.

WOMEN IN EUROPEAN UNIVERSITIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The "woman question" in Europe is a much more simple thing than in America; the head and front of the offending seems here to be that women desire admission to all the universities. Yet this demand alone is so vital, so pressing, that you should really have a monthly bulletin from all the university centres to note the degrees of progress in opinion and opportunity. The latest event of importance here at the seat of the renowned University of Zürich has been the installation of Dr. Emilie Kempin as privat-docent. This took place to-day at eleven o'clock in the auditorium of the University. Mrs. Kempin is well known in America as a lecturer in the law school of the University of the City of New York. She made her second application for a privat-docentship here last fall and was appointed, though not without opposition from the conservatives. The installation is an affair quite simple enough to suit the undemonstrative Swiss character; it consists of the first public lecture of the privat-docent, to which he (or now she) comes attended by the rector and by members of the special Faculty in which the candidate is to work, as well as also by the gloriously caparisoned verger, and to which the public also are invited. The audience that came to hear Dr. Kempin discourse upon "Modern Trusts" was large, gave close attention, and showed appreciation by hearty applause at the close. I have heard that the students in law were specially pleased, and it is to be hoped that the new privat-docent will have a good number to attend her course in English and American law next semester.

This is the first time that such an honor has been conferred upon a woman in German-speaking countries; and it is especially noteworthy because the University of Zürich is a State institution. But it is the only university where such a thing could be done, because it is the only place where women are officially admitted. Here all doors are officially opened wide to women up to the examination and degrees of doctor of philosophy and doctor of medicine. But where in other universities a woman now and then appears in the lecture-halls, it is always through the personal favor or invitation of individual professors. At Leipzig a larger number of women than elsewhere brave public opinion, and, led by their strong desire to hear the lectures of great specialists, ask for permission to attend. They are never molested in any way, but their position is always an ambiguous one.

In Baden a recent movement towards opening the universities of that Grand Duchy to women has awakened a great deal of interest. An exact statement of facts will perhaps account for some of the misapprehensions that have been caused. The "Frauen Verein Reform" of Weimar, under the leadership of Frau Kettler, sent to the Baden Landtag a petition praying for the opening of the universities of Baden and for the founding of a gymnasium for young women. The petition was referred to a commission, and they reported to the Landtag that they were not in favor of opening the universities or of founding a gymnasium for young women, but that young women might take the *Maturitäts* examination at the gymnasiums for boys now existing. As to the attendance of foreign women upon the university lectures, the Commission said that their visit (*der Besuch*) should be exceptional and liable to recall at the will of individual professors; and that such a visit should be allowed to those women of Baden who should have taken the *Maturitäts* examination.

This report was not exactly recommended by the Landtag, but commended to the consideration of the Government. But the representative of the Government in the debate, while declaring that the Government was favorable to the advance of opportunity for women, and would keep further developments of the woman question in mind, still expressed timidity about taking definite steps until other German States showed a disposition to advance also. The stormy opposition, he said, on the part of university professors (presumably at Heidelberg) to opening the doors to women would lead the Government to consider well and go slowly. I am quoting at present from memory of the report of his speech as given in the Baden papers, but I believe I give the main features correctly. That something has been gained by the debate over the matter is clear, but perhaps not so much as has been reported. The Government is to consider the matter, but what its decision will be is uncertain.

The petition of the "Frauen Verein Reform" emphasized the need on the part of women for scientific training, and because of this, perhaps, has gone out the word that scientific and mathematical courses are open. Recent news from Heidelberg leads me to say that there are no women students there. At Freiburg there have been two or three in the past year, but they were working in laboratories only as "guests." The Faculties of both these universities have to this time refused to consider the application of any woman for official recognition.

There has been this year a movement in Austria looking towards the opening of the university at Vienna to women, and the Emperor of Russia has within a few days given permission for the refounding of the medical school for women in St. Petersburg, which has been closed since 1886.

Martha Foote Crow.

Zurich, March 4, 1892.

THE EDUCATION OF YOUNG MEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article in your paper of February 25 entitled "An Interesting Question," and also the letter in your issue of March 10 on "The Education of Southern Youth," I read with much interest. Permit me to say a few words on the other side of the question. Is it a fact that the young women of this generation are intellectually superior, that is to say, better educated, than the young men? That, as a whole, they are better read in certain branches of literature cannot be denied; and they certainly profit by joining literary societies, which, as a rule, men do not avail themselves of. But the question is, are they better educated?

What is education? Is it not the acquiring of knowledge, irrespective of how it is acquired? The young woman may learn more from the study of books, but the young man who enters into business, whether in a professional branch or otherwise, is undoubtedly receiving valuable information daily. Business is now reduced to a science, and requires study on the part of the young man who would succeed, and experience is constantly thrusting knowledge upon him. His brain is necessarily kept in a state of activity. Is the knowledge thus obtained of less value to him, either as an exercise for the development of the mind or as information worth retaining, than that acquired by the young woman wholly from books? It is obvious that the dearth of men in literary societies is caused by want of time on their part, while this is not usually the case with women, who frequently have much leisure at their command. The man, after an active day's work in his office, requires rest and recreation. He is naturally not inclined to spend his evening in study, although he often uses it to advantage by reading an instructive book of an entertaining order. On the other hand, an evening of study is recreation for the woman, who has had household duties to attend to during a greater part of the day. The man's work has been of a higher mental order—generally speaking—than that of the woman.

In reference to small towns and sections of the country removed from the large cities, is it not a noticeable fact that a large majority of the best young men leave and seek the business centres, and on this account the young women, who remain at home, are compelled to admit into their social circles and often to accept as husbands men who are inferior to them intellectually? This has been the case in the observations of the writer here and in the East.

Mr. Jas. G. Holmes may account in part for the superiority of the young women over the young men in the South, but in the North we have not had the same cause, nor do I believe a like effect. W. W.

Milwaukee, March 16, 1892.

A PHILOLOGICAL ANALOGY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *t*, that in time became affixed to the ending of the second person in Old English, has been explained as a forgotten remnant of the postpositive pronoun. In the second person the pronoun is particularly apt to stand after the verb (questions and commands), and being weak, amalgamated with it; then one of the two fricatives became stopped (Sievers, §201, 6), and *bindes-thu* became *bindestu*; but when *thu* was used before the verb, the *t* still adhered to the latter, hence *thu bindest*, and so *bindest thu*.

Those who have regarded this reasoning as far-fetched, will find it confirmed by a somewhat similar case in colloquial modern English. The hortatory *let us* becoming contracted to *lets*, the *s* has come to be (of course unconsciously) regarded as a part of the word, and is frequently retained, though *us* or some word of

like function be used after it. Thus, "Lets us go over to Jones's," "Lets you and I stay here, and John go down to the river and get the girls." GEORGE HEMPL.

ANN ARBOR, MICH., March 14, 1892.

NAMES FOR CHURCHES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: On reading your review of the 'Dedications of American Churches' in the issue of March 24, I am impelled to make mention of one more unique than any your reviewer has adverted to. We have in this diocese a church whose dedication is "The Good Samaritan." Is this not the only recorded instance of the dedication of a Christian church to an admittedly fictitious person?—Yours truly,

OBSERVER.

PHILADELPHIA, March 26, 1892.

Notes.

GINN & Co., Boston, have nearly ready 'A Primer of English Verse,' by Prof. Hiram Corson.

The volume next to appear of 'The Poets and Poetry of the Century' (London: Hutchinson & Co.) will be devoted to the women poets. Dr. Garnett is to write of Emily Brontë and others; Mr. J. A. Noble of George Eliot and Mrs. Browning, etc., etc.

'Examples of Early English Pottery,' by J. Eliot Hodgkin and Edith Hodgkin, is now to be had of Bernard Quaritch, London. The work figures and describes upwards of six hundred pieces of pottery, and is put out in an ordinary edition of 500 copies and a large-paper issue of but 50.

Mr. Rudyard Kipling has collected his fugitive verse of the past few years, which, revised and with the addition of some unpublished pieces, will be printed early in April by Macmillan & Co., under the title 'Barrack Room Ballads.' The same house has now ready 'The Soteriology of the New Testament,' by the Rev. Dr. Du Bose of the University of the South, Sewanee, Tenn.

An historical novel, 'Columbus and Beatriz,' by Constance Goddard Du Bois, is announced by A .C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Funk & Wagnalls Co. will publish early in April 'Ethical Teachings in Old English Authors,' by Prof. Hunt of Princeton.

The second volume of Rehatsek's translation of Mirkhond's 'General History' is announced by the Oriental Translation Fund agents as now ready for delivery. It contains the Moslem version of Bible stories between Moses and Jesus, as well as biographies of Alexander the Great and certain Persian philosophers and monarchs. Applications for the volume, which is sold at ten shillings, should be addressed to F. F. Arbuthnot, Royal Asiatic Society, No. 22 Albemarle Street, London, W.

The Appletons have ready their 'History of the Centennial Celebration of the Inauguration of George Washington as the First President of the United States,' edited by Clarence W. Bowen. It is a folio of 650 pages, profusely illustrated, and the edition is limited to 1,000 numbered copies.

Rand, McNally & Co. issue a timely map of the Indian and Oklahoma Territories, on the generous scale of twelve miles to the inch, and folded to pocket size.

The Trow Directory Co. send us their 'Copartnership and Corporation Directory' for 1892 (the fortieth year of issue), which contains a great mass of information of the highest value to legal, banking, and commercial houses. Another volume of great, though local, interest, is the 'New York Charities Directory' for 1892, the fifth volume of the kind published by the Charity Organization Society. It should be in the hands of all those who have to do with the relief of the poor and unfortunate, or the reformation of criminals.

The Putnams have done well to include Mr. Louis R. Ehrich's two papers on 'The Question of Silver' in their "Questions of the Day" series. Mr. Ehrich's thorough information and effective power of homely argument have already become widely known.

Fifteen sermons by Theodore Parker, hitherto unpublished, come to us from Roberts Bros., Boston, entitled 'West Roxbury Sermons.' As might be inferred, they do not bear the polemical stamp of his discourses of the later Twenty-eighth Congregational Society days, being, in fact, almost entirely "practical" sermons; yet they have their interest, both intrinsically and as helping to show how the man came to his power.

A collection of contributions to *Garden and Forest* by Mary C. Robbins, makes a lively and pleasant book, 'The Rescue of an Old Place' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Many an amateur gardener will sympathize with the writer's denunciation of that "shameless weaver," the web-worm, and of the rose-bug, desolator of whole counties that he is; nor will he fail to admire the discipline of those shrubs, here described, which grew so accustomed to being dragged out of their holes and set in a new place that they minded moving-day no more than the most peripatetic New Yorker.

Miss Jane E. Harrison's 'Introductory Studies in Greek Art' (Macmillan) does not call for extended notice. As its name implies, it is a handbook, intended principally for beginners; and as its name does not imply, half of it is taken up with a description of the arts which preceded the Greek, namely, Egyptian, Assyrian, and Phœnician. To the last of these is devoted a chapter of no less than seventy-eight pages, much of which might well have been spared in so small a book, especially as the writer's chief purpose is to develop one thought, which finds its culmination in the sculptures of the Parthenon; and the long digression on the history and characteristics of the Phœnicians makes it difficult for the reader to keep the leading motive in mind. The best chapter by far is that on Egyptian art, which is a clear, simple, straightforward statement, undisturbed by those emotional qualities which frequently mar Miss Harrison's style, and admirably successful in bringing out those points which are of most interest to the student who cares for Egyptian art mainly in its relations to the art of Greece. The second half of the book really amounts to a series of four sermons, taking for their texts, respectively, the Metopes of Selinus, Pheidias, the Hermes of Praxiteles, and the Altar of Pergamon. These deal with the moral or ethical aspect of Greek art; and, excellent as are the precepts they enforce, we cannot help feeling that the preacher is rather inclined to take a lurid view of matters, as, for example, when she says that the Marble Faun, in the Capitol, is "doubly satisfactory to some because he is the euphemistic expression of an evil thing."

The steady increase of interest in the art of bookbinding is shown by the constant publication of volumes in which the art is discussed and in which the best specimens are reproduced. It is to be hoped that a full bibliography of bibliopegy will soon be forthcoming. The latest addition to the list of books on the subject is 'Historic Bindings in the Bodleian Library, Oxford, with reproductions of Twenty-four of the finest Bindings,' by W. Salt Brassington (London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.). Of course, in any work of this character the text is secondary to the illustrations. Mr. Brassington's remarks are judicious: he is learned on the subject, and he has not the absurdly high opinion of British bookbinding held by some of his fellow-countrymen who write about the art. The illustrations are excellent. They are photogravures, colored by hand, and are quite equal to any to be found even in recent French books about bookbinding. Plate 4, for example, reproduces a Latin Psalter bound in silver gilt, partly covered with translucent enamel in various colors—a most difficult specimen to render adequately, and most satisfactorily accomplished. Equally beautiful as reproductions are plates 22 and 23, one a Book of Common Prayer bound in canvas embroidered with colored silks, and the other a Prayer Book and Bible bound in white satin and also embroidered in colored silks. It is in these embroidered bindings and in bindings enriched with metal work and with ivory carvings, that the Bodleian is richest, rather than in the simpler and, at bottom, finer bindings of leather relying on their tooling for their beauty.

Still another batch of unpublished drawings by Thackeray is to see the light. This one is to appear in the April *Greyfriar*, the paper of Charterhouse School, and will relate, fittingly enough, to the artist's school days, from which most of the collection dates.

Poet-Lore makes a spring-moving from Philadelphia to Boston, in the latter of which cities it is hereafter to be published under the same editorship and with the same aims and scope as before. The removal is mainly due, it is announced, to the interest taken in the magazine by Mr. Dana Estes, and to the inducements which he held out to it to make the change.

The February number of Petermann's *Mitteilungen* contains an account, by Th. Thoroddsen, of the first of two journeys into the interior of Iceland for geological research. It is accompanied by a chart. The editor, Dr. Supan, gives the results of the deep-sea explorations during the years 1888–'90. From the chart on which are drawn the routes of the different vessels, with the soundings in metres, the *Albatross*, U. S. N., seems to have surpassed all others in the extent of its surveys, having gone from Cape Horn to Bering's Straits and taken soundings the whole length of the North American and a considerable part of the South American coast. No greater depths have been found than those previously discovered, namely, 8,515 metres in the North Pacific, and 8,341 metres in the Atlantic just to the north of Porto Rico. A supplemental number contains an orographic description of the Atlas Mountains of Morocco, by Dr. Paul Schnell, mostly compiled from the reports of recent travellers.

The small trades of the Caucasus are the subject of an article by Victor Dingelstedt, in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for March. The country has great natural resources, as yet undeveloped, the principal occupations of all the inhabitants, both villagers and townspeople, with the exception of merchants and officials, being to cultivate the soil, breed cattle, and rear horses. They supplement these occupations by a number of petty home industries which are described in detail. The writer's information was obtained from the reports of the various schoolmasters throughout the country to the Superintendent of Public Instruction, published by him last year in Tiflis. All their appliances are very simple, the work be-

ing done in their huts and tents, or in the fields and streets, while the profit is, in nearly every case, ludicrously small. Every Tartar household has a loom on which carpets, saddle-bags, and other woollen goods are woven by the women. After this the most important industry is the rearing of silkworms, which are "known as Jobs' worms, an ancient tradition relating that the worms which attacked the patriarch were transformed into silkworms as a reward for his patience under suffering." "The eggs are hatched by the women in the hollow of their armpits." Recently silk-mills after European models have been introduced, in which "a working-day is from fourteen to sixteen hours," with wages ranging from twelve to eighteen cents a day. Other trades are tanning and fur-dressing, embroidery, pottery, and basket-making, and the manufacture of arms. The last art is declining, "many famous armorers, who knew how to produce a weapon capable of cutting in two an iron bar of 0.3 inches diameter, having carried their secrets with them to the grave." A short account of "The Mapping of the United States" is given by Mr. Henry Gannett, chief topographer of our Geological Survey. From this it appears that "an area of 50,000 to 60,000 square miles is surveyed annually, and the entire area thus far surveyed is about 650,000 square miles, the area of the United States being about 3,600,000 square miles."

An interesting account of a journey in northern Korea by Mr. Charles W. Campbell opens the March Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. The principal object of the expedition—to explore the famous White Mountain in Manchuria—was unfortunately not attained on account of the lateness of the season, but a large part of the way to and from this place was through a region never before visited by a European. Much of the scenery was fine, the agricultural villages being picturesque in appearance and situation. The soil, though very fertile and capable of bearing two crops a year, is cultivated in a slovenly way, very unlike that of the more thrifty Japanese and Chinese. Gold is very extensively found, but not as yet in large quantities, "placer" mining being resorted to by the natives only when the ground is too sterile for profitable cultivation. The White Mountain is surrounded by a great forest, the resort of the sable-hunters and the gatherers of the gen-sing. When one of these valuable roots is found, a clearing is made in the forest about it by the finders and it is left to grow, perhaps for a year or two, and the men who found it are perfectly certain that it will not be stolen. The sole authority recognized in the forest region is that of the guilds of the hunters of sable and gen-sing, formed for their mutual protection.

Statistics of present-day publications in the Welsh language are furnished by Mr. Gwynfe Evans in a late number of the *Welsh Review*, which will give most readers a new idea of the persistent vitality of Welsh. He enumerates seventeen weekly papers published in 1887, besides several monthly, bi-monthly, and quarterly magazines, one of which has a circulation of 37,760. There was also a regular output of books, from a pamphlet to the ten-volume 'Gwyddoniadur.' A Welsh-English Dictionary is now in course of publication on such a scale that the first volume of four hundred quarto pages covers but one letter of the alphabet. A leading Welsh firm of publishers estimates the total annual value of publications of all kinds in Welsh at more than £200,000.

Dr. Gill, Astronomer Royal at Cape Town, has urged upon the Admiralty the necessity of establishing a magnetic observatory there, and the Committee of the British Association appointed for the purpose of reporting on the best means of comparing and calculating observations on terrestrial magnetism, strongly favor the recommendation. The importance of systematic record of the magnetic elements in that part of the world, and of thorough study and discussion of the results, is so great that it is to be hoped that the Admiralty may see fit to furnish a suitable equipment and provide for its proper use and maintenance. Researches in cosmical physics and the ends of navigation will alike be fostered by the early execution of this plan. The necessity of delicate apparatus and careful manipulation is such that astronomers are well fitted for this work by their previous training. The most successful magnetic observatories of the world are those which are connected with astronomical observatories. That isolation which is necessary for the best location of an astronomical observatory is no less imperative for the stability of the foundations which carry instruments for work in practical magnetics.

We have received from Tokio, Japan, a copy of a handsome zylographed life-size picture of Commodore Matthew C. Perry. On the broadside of white Japanese paper, five feet by two in size, is also printed an autograph poem written by the famous scholar Sakuma Shozan. This man in 1853, and for two decades previously, was a student of the Dutch language and literature, and by his writings and eloquence did much to change the opinions of his countrymen in favor of western civilization. He was assassinated in Kioto, August 12, 1864, while riding a horse caparisoned with a foreign saddle and bridle, but his principles survived his life. In the imperial proclamation issued on the day the new Constitution was given to the people, February 11, 1889, the name of Sakuma Shozan was covered with honor, because he had, as early as 1841, advocated representative government. The zylographic picture is a good specimen of popular art, and the likeness is photographically accurate and full of expression. At the top are the seals, autograph, and original title of commendation bestowed on Perry, as being "well-disposed to benevolence and friendly to neighbors," written by the late premier, Sanjo Saneyoshi. The prose and thirty-one-syllable stanza may be translated as follows:

"In the Land of the Morning, whither I went, aiming to reach the Eastern capital, many days passed while the ships lay at anchor in a place called the harbor of Yokohama in Musashi. One day, in order to beguile the tedium of the time, we gathered on board ship, and held a feast. After sunset, the moon rose resplendent. In playful mood, I sang this stanza:

On Musashi's bright sea
The rising moon
In California
Makes setting gloom.

Taira Hiraka [literary name, Sakuma Shozan] composed this for pastime, in the place of the American envoy."

The nineteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction is to be held at Denver, June 23-29. The Executive Committee announce a provisional programme, and promise a second announcement early in May, in which will also appear the arrangements made to secure reduced rates of railroad fare and hotel accommodations.

—The growth of Minneapolis is shown in a nut-shell as we compare the census of 1880 with that of 1890. The twenty foremost cities of the country at the former date remained still foremost at the latter, except that Minneapolis had come among them, Providence having fallen out. Minneapolis, standing now No. 18 among our cities, had not only passed by Providence, which had been No. 20, but also outwent Jersey City, whose standing in 1890 was No. 19. At the beginning of the last decade it seemed unlikely that Minneapolis could soon, if indeed ever, rank in the most populous score of our cities. As its number in 1880 was 38, seventeen competitors were ahead of it in the populational race, before it could reach the threshold of the foremost score. In 1880 the inhabitants of Minneapolis were 46,887, while of the seventeen cities with which she was to compete, all but two showed a census of over 50,000, six of over 60,000, and one of over 90,000. All the seventeen have also at the close of the decade shown a fair, and some of them a phenomenal, percentage of increase. Some of them, accordingly, have risen in rank, but most have fallen. Four rose in relative standing, namely, Kansas City from No. 30 to No. 24, Syracuse from No. 32 to No. 31, Columbus from No. 33 to No. 30, and Toledo from No. 35 to No. 33. One only of the seventeen, Rochester, retained the same rank, No. 22, at the end of the decade as at the beginning. Of the twelve competitors which meantime declined, one, namely, Paterson, fell from No. 34 to No. 36. The position of two cities was lower by three each—Indianapolis falling from No. 24 to No. 27, and Fall River from No. 37 to No. 40. Worcester sunk from No. 28 to No. 32, Alleghany from No. 23 to No. 28, and Albany from No. 21 to No. 29. Still greater was the relative decline of the remaining six, Richmond and New Haven each falling off nine numbers, from No. 25 to No. 34, and from No. 26 to No. 35, while Lowell and Cambridge stood No. 37 and No. 41 in 1890, instead of No. 27 and No. 31 in 1880, and the numbers of Troy and Charleston went down respectively from No. 29 to No. 46, and from No. 36 to No. 53. The percentage of increment during the decade at Minneapolis was 251.35; the largest in any of the competing cities was 137.91, at Kansas City. All but four of the eighteen cities distanced by Minneapolis in populational advance are situated on the Atlantic slope.

—Some years ago Prof. Karl Hegel of the University of Erlangen published a work entitled 'Geschichte der Städteverfassung in Italien,' in which he showed, first, the influence exerted by the cities of the Roman provinces, and especially of Italy, in assimilating the hordes of German conquerors and the more numerous conquered population, and, secondly, the changes produced in the organization and evolution of the cities themselves through the introduction of Germanic institutions. The same scholar has recently issued another work, 'Städte und Gilden der Germanischen Völker im Mittelalter' (Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot), which forms a proper sequel to the preceding one, tracing as it does the later development of cities among the Germanic nations, and their corporate and industrial character as affected by the rise and growth of guilds. The Frankish guilds were put under ban by the Church and prohibited by the State as strongholds of paganism. In the capitulary of 779, Charlemagne characterizes the *geldonias* as conspiracies, and in a later edict accuses them of fostering drunkenness. As pagan sacrificial rites were more or less festal and convivial, they readily degenerated, with the decline of the ancient cult, into banquetings and drinking-bouts. The first volume contains a history of guilds in the principal

cities of England, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway; the second volume embraces the towns of northern France, Normandy, Flanders, Brabant, the Netherlands, and northern Germany. In connection with each of these sections the author gives the literature of the subject, and expresses his great indebtedness, so far as England is concerned, to the researches of Mr. Toulmin Smith.

—The celebration of the centenary of Franz Bopp's birth on September 14, 1891, was the occasion of many warm expressions of personal esteem and scholarly appreciations of his labors as a pioneer in the province of comparative philology. Of the latter class of works the most important is Dr. Lefmann's 'Franz Bopp, sein Leben und seine Wissenschaft,' of which the first volume has been published by Reimer in Berlin. A little more than half of it is devoted to the biographical narration; the rest consists of an appendix containing Bopp's correspondence with Karl Joseph Windischmann and other scholars, and his reports sent from time to time to the Bavarian Academy of Sciences, from which he received a yearly stipend of a thousand florins while pursuing his studies in Paris and London from 1812 to 1820. This collection of papers, which have never before been printed, is exceedingly interesting, and alone enables the reader to follow the young Orientalist's career step by step through his severe and often disheartening struggles until the earnest efforts of William and Alexander von Humboldt secured his appointment to a professorship in the University of Berlin in September, 1821. It is curious to note how even the philologists of that day failed to appreciate the importance of Sanskrit. In 1820, fifteen years after Colebrooke's 'Grammar of the Sanskrit Language' and essays 'On the Vedas,' and four years after Bopp's 'Conjugationssystem der Sanskritsprache' had appeared, Silvestre de Sacy wrote to the latter that the relations of this tongue to classical or theological studies were not sufficiently intimate and immediate ever to make it obligatory in the course of instruction, and gave him the following advice: "While continuing to cultivate Sanskrit for your own satisfaction and that of the learned world, you ought absolutely to render your talents more directly useful to the youth of your country by teaching Arabic." In the same year Bopp wished to be made professor of Sanskrit at Würzburg, but the University refused his request on the ground that Sanskrit was a "mere literary luxury." "These erudite professors" are characterized by Bopp in a letter to Schlegel in August, 1820, as men who "wish to teach only what supplies the cupboard with bread; and what they do not know, others should not have an opportunity of learning." Although Bopp spent some time in London, he does not seem to have formed any close friendships or cordial relations wtih Englishmen, whom he deemed extremely conventional and unapproachable. "I have not found a single foreigner," he writes, "who likes it in England."

—A translation of the 'Iliad' of Homer by Mr. John Purves, M.A., late Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford (London: Percival & Co.; New York: Macmillan), is a work of great merit, which makes its appearance under some disadvantages. The translator *feels* his author and is carried on by his inspiration; he makes the reader feel it, too. In this respect the rendering has something of Chapman's quality; its prose has also, more definitely than Leaf and Lang's translation, the quality of sustained and consistent style. It moves more easily than theirs, is more articulate and less verbose. The paragraphs are sustained and vigorous, mounting successfully towards the music and eloquence of the finer passages in the original. In details it would be easy to find fault. One lights occasionally on odd or affected words which do not harmonize with the generally easy and straightforward diction —"pinnated ships," "slaughterous Hector," "mishandlement," "all to-burst," "bronzen spear," "Troyland." "Green fear" is very strange; within a few hundred lines the word δαιμόνιος is successively represented by *madcap*, *headstrong*, and *faint spirit*. In this special instance, the variety of phrase is rather a happy expedient, for the epithet is a chameleon that takes its color from the person addressed and the circumstances; in many other cases, more consistency ought to have been maintained. It is superfluous, however, to criticise in detail a production which was never revised as a whole by the author, although it was the chief literary work of his life. If he had finally reviewed it, some of the oddities we have cited might still have remained, while others would undoubtedly have disappeared. The total effect would have been much the same—a performance which justifies the pains of the editor, Mr. Evelyn Abbott, and which, though in some sense a broken column, deserves to stand beside the finished achievement of such scholars as Leaf and Lang and Butcher. The introduction, by Dr. Abbott, presents a very clear and fair summary of the incidents in the poem which have been cited for and against the unity and continuity of the 'Iliad.' It is interesting to note, apropos of Mr. Palmer's 'Odyssey,' that one of the chief liberties the editor permitted himself was the transforming or rearranging an occasional passage in which Mr. Purves had "declined and fallen" into blank verse.

—Mr. E. B. England's 'Iphigeneia at Aulis' (Macmillan), without claiming original views as to the state of the text and its history, is nevertheless a work of painstaking and independent scholarship, which, in addition to a full body of notes, presents a detailed statement and comparison of the readings of the principal MSS., accompanied by many original suggestions and emendations. It is, on the whole, a valuable contribution towards the elucidation of a play which, notwithstanding all the mutilations and interpolations it has undergone, remains still powerful and impressive, replete with genius and with beauty. It has, besides, the fascination for scholars of offering many insoluble problems and many passages as to which each new editor will have his opinion and his reason. In discussing these subjective questions, Mr. England shows good sense and good taste, and his reason is generally quite as good as another's. His conclusion, in the main, is, "that the play was left by Euripides in too unfinished a state to be put on the stage; that the man or men who prepared it for such representation not only added passages at the end and in the body of the play, but rearranged the prologue; and, lastly, that of small casual interpolations of later date the text of this tragedy contains an exceptionally large share." As to the character of the heroine, Mr. England remarks rather strikingly, that if, as some have believed, the 'Bacchæ' was Euripides's recantation of the heresies of former plays, his picture of *Iphigeneia* is the palinode in which he atones for earlier imputations on the sex.

—The Chairman of the Managing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens has received from the Director, Dr. Charles Waldstein, under date of Athens, March 6, the following informal report with regard to the important excavations of the School at the Heræum, near Argos:

"At the Heræum we have been successful beyond all hopes. We are clearing the whole site of the second temple, cutting far into the hill below. The whole foundation will be clearly visible now (there having been nothing to see before). We have done enough digging on the surrounding sites to discover the interesting foundations of the first temple (even with the remains of the charred wood of the superstructure, burnt in 429 B. C.), and have found a stoa and other interesting buildings on the lowest terrace. The harvest of ancient pottery of the earliest periods, terracottas, and bronzes, is perhaps the richest yet made in these regions, including Mycenæ, and I do not doubt will have the most important bearings upon the early history of art and ritual—a subject much under discussion at the present moment. We have also discovered many beautiful pieces of the architectural decoration of the second temple, and I trust we shall be able to make a restoration of it. Last, but not least, we have found most interesting pieces of sculpture, among them three well-preserved heads —one of them, I believe, the most perfect specimen of the art of the fifth century B. C. to be found in any extant head. The numerous other marble fragments will become the more valuable the further the excavation goes. I trust that we are just now at a point where further finds may be made. At the end of this or next week, the work at the second temple will come to a point where we can well stop for this year; we shall continue our work next year at the other portions of this excellent site. The Greek authorities, who have visited us while excavating, approve highly of our method of working. We are digging on a large scale, which the liberal contribution of the Archæological Institute of America enables us to do, and the form of excavation has proved advantageous to the scientific aspects of the work. We have employed on most days (fortunately no rain and no holidays) from 150 to 180 workmen, and 20 to 30 carts with horses. Four students have been with me. I shall have a cast of the beautiful head taken at once, and shall send the mould to you, that casts may be made in America and forwarded from there. I have also made arrangements for good photographs, and shall have a set of selected specimens issued in phototype, as a preliminary publication, and shall add a short explanatory text. At Sparta this year I mean only to make excavations on one site in the city which belongs to the Government, and perhaps some trial excavations on the most promising private sites, leaving the chief work for next year."

—The Greek Government has granted to the American School at Athens the permission to carry on excavations in the province of Laconia, and particularly in the vicinity of ancient Sparta and of Amyclæ. The conditions are similar to those made with the German Government for the excavations at Olympia, and with the French Government relative to those at Delphi. The permission is granted for a period of seven years. The School is allowed to take moulds and casts of the antiquities discovered, and to be the first to publish the results of the excavations and of the discoveries thereby made. The Greek Government certainly seems desirous to afford the School as good a recompense as possible for the loss of the opportunity of conducting excavations at Delphi, and the American School is taking an exceedingly honorable part in archæological work in Greece. During the last half-dozen years, the School (as the readers of the *Nation* may remember) has dug at Thoricus, Sicyon, Icaria, Platæa, Eretria, and the Heræum, besides slighter work at two or three less important places—determining the site of an ancient deme, bringing to light much material for the history of the Greek drama and its theatre, finding what may be the grave of the philosopher Aristotle, some fine pieces of ancient sculpture, etc., etc.

CARSON'S SUPREME COURT.—I.

The Supreme Court of the United States: Its History. By Hampton L. Carson of the Philadelphia Bar. And its Centennial Celebration February 4, 1890, prepared under direction of the Judiciary Centennial Committee. Philadelphia: John Y. Huber Co. 1891.

THIS book is a magnificent tribute to a great tribunal. A ponderous, unwieldy volume for working purposes—a folio in form, 12x9 inches on the cover and 3 inches in thickness, containing 761 pages of heavy paper, and 53 cardboard illustrations—it is nevertheless a work which every owner of a good library will recognize as well entitled to shelf-room and exceptionally in keeping with its subject. About 600 pages are the work of Mr. Carson, the remaining 150 containing the account of the centennial anniversary, and the addresses which were then delivered. The two parts are not unfitly joined together in one book, for the work of Mr. Carson comes down to the centennial, and is a combination of judicial history, biography, and album (in its fifty-three portraits of the judges), while the addresses then delivered, especially those of Mr. Butler, Mr. Hitchcock, and Mr. Semmes, are the incisive commentaries of able and accomplished lawyers, and well worthy of preservation in an accessible and lasting form. The two parts thus united give a certain majesty of proportion to the whole, and they have one element in common—panegyric.

Panegyric is not unhealthy reading for the citizens of a republic when it is given to that branch of the Government which depends upon the Executive for its material, and the Legislature for its jurisdiction, and whose office is frequently to repress and never to excite the political or popular movements of the day. The future President of the United States who studies this book while a young man will give the country better judges for having read it; the future judge will deem it all the more incumbent to live up to the ideal standard that has been ascribed to his office; the good citizen will curb his personal opinion, and be more than ever a law-abiding American, bowing to the court of last resort as if infallibility were an attribute of exalted judicial station. As we pass over Mr. Carson's chronological review of the statutes defining jurisdiction, of the personnel of the Court, of its decisions, of the support it needed but did not receive, of the opposition it encountered but overcame, of the low estimate put upon it by its earlier members—Harrison declining his commission in 1789 to accept the Chancellorship of Maryland; Rutledge leaving its bench in 1791 to become Chief Justice of South Carolina; Jay surrendering the all-important office of Chief Justice of the United States because he had been elected Governor of New York—until at last we reach the glowing commemoration of its century, we are more than ever before impressed with the significant fact that the branch of our Government which has neither power nor patronage, which appeals most to the judgment and least to the imagination, and which has been assailed more by the public press than it has been extolled, is the one which has grown most in real strength, in the high opinion of foreign observers, in the hope and reliance of thinking men, and in the esteem and confidence of the great mass of good citizens.

When we observe the reverence which is now rendered to the Court, and listen to the volume of laudation that is poured out on its wisdom past and present, it seems indeed well-nigh incredible that this respect is a growth and not an inheritance. The young lawyer of the present day can hardly believe that when the Supreme Court, during its first decade, rendered judgment against the State of Georgia, the Legislature immediately enacted that if any person should attempt to execute the process of the Court within the State, he should suffer death; or that when the Court, during its second decade, issued a peremptory mandamus to the United States district judge in Pennsylvania commanding him, by proper process, to enforce a judgment of his court, the Governor called out the militia to resist the execution of the writ. But passing these by as occurring in the infancy of the Court (the latter in 1809, within twenty years from its organization), we come, in 1832, to the case of Worcester v. The State of Georgia. The Supreme Court was then approaching the end of its first half century. Marshall had become venerable as well as great, and was within three years of the end of his illustrious service. Yet even then the Governor of Georgia defied the authority of the Court, and the general Government made no attempt to enforce its decree. A more just and righteous decision, moreover, was never made by a court.

Samuel A. Worcester, a citizen of Vermont who had entered the country of the Cherokee nation "in the capacity of a duly authorized missionary of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, under the authority of the President of the United States," was "engaged in preaching the Gospel to the Cherokee Indians and in translating the sacred Scriptures into their language, with the permission and approval of the said Cherokee nation." For so doing he was arrested, tried, and convicted under a Georgia statute, and the State court sentenced him to "hard labor in the penitentiary for the term of four years." The decision of the Supreme Court of course was, that "the law of Georgia, which subjected to punishment all white persons residing within the limits of the Cherokee nation, and authorized their arrest within those limits, and their forcible removal therefrom, and their trial in a court of the State, was repugnant to the Constitution, treaties, and laws of the United States, and void." Yet the Governor of Georgia declared that he would hang the missionary before he would give him up, and the missionary accordingly continued for eighteen months at hard labor in the penitentiary after his imprisonment had been declared unconstitutional and void. When we contrast the masterly opinion of the Chief Justice in this case, its temperate statement, its scrupulous fairness, its unerring analysis and unanswerable demonstration, with the savagery that resisted the mandate of the Court, and set itself against Christianity, humanity, and civilization as well, we may well wonder that such incongruous elements could have existed in the same Government at the same time, and congratulate ourselves that the growth of the Supreme Court in popular esteem during these two generations has not been because the tribunal has grown greater, stronger, wiser, or more just or learned, but because the nation has grown in intelligence, humanity, civilization, and all those things that make for righteousness.

The dangers that beset the Supreme Court in the first decade of its second century are of another kind. Panegyric may do something towards giving the nation better courts, and making the people better citizens, but there its services cease. The Supreme Court is no longer subjected to factious opposition, but it is exempt from healthy criticism. At the present time there is a great deal more adulation poured upon it than is good for any tribunal. And much of this adulation comes in a personal form, which is not good for any man, and especially not for those who hold the final balances of human judgment. During the last twenty years the American capital, like the capitals of Europe, has become the resort of wealth and fashion. Its beautiful avenues and matchless pavements, and temperate winter climate, and picturesque environs, are magnets which draw the rich and idle, the pleasure-seeking society of the country, from every quarter of our wide domain. Hitherto in our Anglo-Saxon system, with the judiciary as with the clergy, something different and better has been expected in their lives than in the lives of other public men. There have been roystering judges as there have been roystering bishops; but the good sense and good taste of two nations have never approved of them. If a man will be a judge or a clergyman, we expect not merely that he will keep out of the penitentiary, but that he will keep out of bad influences. When we commit our things temporal or our things spiritual to a man, we instinctively rely upon his living a life not merely moral, but above suspicion, and especially above the suspicion of inferior surroundings. The unhappy Cabinet officer (a brave soldier, in private life an honorable gentleman) who a few years ago was dragged before the country and the Court of Impeachment, owed his fall to the same influences that now surround every member of the Supreme Court. There was also, it will be remembered, another Cabinet officer about the same time, who bought a fashionable landau which appeared on the inventory of the department as his official wagon, but which in fact was his wife's carriage, the wife, too, being a partner of the Washington ring. None of these reproaches have fallen on the Supreme Court, but two of its members—it is not too much to say its most respected members—have died leaving wives and daughters in comparative penury, their private fortunes dissipated and their official salaries spent in keeping up a style of living beyond their means, but supposed to be required by their official station.

By a most unhappy chance the families of our highest court have drifted into the stream of blended political and fashionable life in Washington, and become a part of it. People in political life think they must do, and are permitted to do, both in England and America, many things that would not be tolerated in private life. The Duchess of Devonshire might let a butcher kiss her to secure the re-election of Mr. Fox; our high political officers may open their houses in sham hospitality, and let their wives shake hands with anybody and everybody who chooses to walk into their private residences. This is deemed a political requirement, a thing that must go on while the office is held, but which would be deemed vulgar and ridiculous after the family returns to private life. By some unaccountable confusion of ideas, the families of the Supreme Court have supposed that they are political personages, and have led the same kind of semi-public life, though of all the families in the country they are the ones who ought to maintain a dignified reserve, and be inaccessible to every unknown adventurer who desires to make their acquaintance. How absolutely absurd it would seem in New York or London, every time an eminent lawyer was raised to the bench after living a quiet, sensible, retired life, for the world of fashion to rush to his door and leave cards, and make him and his wife prominent figures in society. Moreover, people at summer re-

sorts or winter resorts are not as careful about the persons they meet as when living in their own homes; and in Washington society there is a large political element which shuns unprofitable inquiries. Shady characters walk on the sunny side of the street. Not many years have passed since the notorious "king of the lobby" caught four or five judges by simply baiting his hook with the late Lord Houghton, and caught Lord Houghton by baiting his other hook with the Honorable the Justices of the Supreme Court. And as we write, the Washington correspondents inform the world that one, if not more of the judges, was a guest at a dinner given by one of the "Big Four" of Tammany to the most unscrupulous and notorious politician of the time, and this immediately after his infamous attempts to use and degrade the judiciary of this State. In Washington society public men seem to hang on their front doors a placard, "All invitations accepted, and no questions asked." This kind of thing is not compatible with either hard work, serene thought, or exalted character, and the sooner public opinion requires that it shall stop, the better it will be for the Court, for the judges, and for their wives and children. The Supreme Court, we believe, is the only court in England or America to which this vulgar publicity has been attached, or which has descended into these exceedingly questionable currents of political and society life.

Chief-Justice Cooley has said, in his 'Constitutional History of the United States,' and Mr. Carson reiterates that opinion, that "the real importance of the Supreme Court was never greater than at first"; and that "the judges who occupied the bench before the time of Marshall are entitled to have it said of them that what they did was of incalculable value to representative institutions." Nevertheless, the more we turn over these pages, the more it becomes apparent that the commoner view—the instinctive verdict of the American mind—is the right one, and that the Supreme Court owes its present strength and greatness to one incomparable cause, which was the presence of Marshall upon its bench. If at the beginning of this century there was one man in the world whose opinion of the Supreme Court as it then stood, both in common estimation and public usefulness, cannot be questioned, that man of course was John Jay. He had been Chief Justice; he had been selected by Washington in conformity with his "best judgment," and by Adams as being in his opinion "the greatest mass of worth" "collected in one individual." His opinion was not given in a moment of irritation, or when it can be supposed to have been tinged by a sense of personal disappointment, for it was written at the time of his receiving the highest compliment that has ever been paid to an American lawyer—that of being a second time nominated and confirmed as Chief Justice of the United States. What was that opinion? "I left the bench," he wrote to the President as he returned the second commission, "perfectly convinced *that under a system so defective it would not obtain the energy, weight, and dignity which were essential to its affording due support to the national Government; nor acquire the public confidence and respect which, as the last resort of the justice of the nation, it should possess.*" In the same month that this letter was written, January, 1801, Marshall was commissioned as Chief Justice. In less than five weeks he administered the oath of office to the new President, the most inveterate enemy of the Supreme Court among our public men, and beheld the beginning of an intense political revolution whose leaders were bent on the destruction of at least a part of the Federal judiciary, and ready to overthrow the Supreme Court itself by an amendment to the Constitution. For thirty-three years, with one brief interval (the Administration of the second Adams), he had opposing him on every national question a combination which would have overcome a dozen ordinary men—the Legislature, the Executive, the appointing power, the local violence of half-rebellious States. The first President of his official life denounced the Supreme Court as "the subtle corps of sappers and miners," "the reprobated system," "the canker" which should be exterminated "before its venom has reached so much of the body politic as to get beyond control"; and, by a legislative artifice, virtually suspended the functions of the Court for fourteen months. Yet here it should be noted, before Jefferson had been two years in office (February, 1803), came the great decision in Marbury v. Madison—the boldest, strongest, highest assertion of the rights of the American citizen that has ever come from that Court, which subjects the acts of ministerial and administrative officers to judicial remedies, and declares that this is "a government of laws and not of men." The second President of Marshall's official life placed on the bench a young man, thirty-two years of age, but of extraordinary ability and learning, for the purpose of contesting the authority of the Chief Justice. But Story yielded to the greater mind beside him, and it must have brought bitterness and confusion to the souls of Jefferson and Madison when, five years later, he delivered the opinion in Martin v. Hunter (1816), upholding the constitutionality of the Judiciary Act, subordinating the State courts to the Federal judiciary on constitutional questions, and overruling the decision of the Virginia Court of Appeals. This opinion of Story Mr. Henry Adams rightly pronounces one of Marshall's "greatest triumphs." The last President of Marshall's time appointed Henry Baldwin of Pennsylvania (1829) to doggedly dissent from substantially every constitutional principle which the Supreme Court had established during the preceding forty years, and rounded out the adverse circumstances which encircled the noble career of the Chief Justice by leaving the mandate of the Court unenforced and contemptuously saying of what was substantially his last constitutional decision, "John Marshall has made his decision; now let him execute it."

It was during this stormy, adverse period of thirty-four years that Chief-Justice Marshall accomplished what had been deemed impossible—the task of imparting to "the defective system" "*the energy, weight, and dignity that were essential to its affording due support to the national Government,*" and of acquiring for it "*the public confidence and respect which, as the last resort of the justice of the nation, it should possess.*" It is true that the virtues, ability, and patriotism of Chief-Justice Jay cannot be over-esteemed, and that when he wrote the letter we have quoted, he had heroically wrecked his health and personal popularity in harassing diplomatic service; but nevertheless Marshall, tried by an adversity such as never vexed a judicial soul, went steadfastly forward, with a calmness, dignity, uprightness, and intellectual majesty that are unapproachable in all the judicial annals of the world.

It is also, we think, incontrovertible that a tone of moderation and sound sense came with Chief-Justice Marshall upon the bench. One secret of the reverence in which he is held is, that the Court for the next quarter of a century made no mistakes and took no backward steps. It was not so prior to 1801. Brief as was the time, and few as were the decisions, the Court made serious mistakes. In its conscientious upholding of the Federal principle, it went too far and decided too much. The ground taken that there was a common-law jurisdiction of the United States in criminal cases had to be abandoned; and certainly a more unfortunate decision than that in Chisholm v. the State of Georgia was never made. Mr. Carson calls it "the first clear trumpet-note which had been sounded by the new nation, in striking contrast with the feeble wail against State power uttered by the Committee of the Continental Congress." Brave enough it undoubtedly was, but disastrous in its consequences. It divided the Supreme Court upon a question of constitutional authority and State sovereignty, at the beginning of its work, when it was vital that it should move with caution and with unanimity. It violated the pledge of the *Federalist* that suits could not be brought against States without their consent; that that objection to the Constitution was without "a color of foundation." It set at naught the assurance of Marshall in the Virginia Convention, when he was struggling to secure the adoption of the Constitution: "It is not rational to suppose that the sovereign power [of a State] shall be dragged before a court." It called out the powerful dissent of Iredell, which furnished a quasi-judicial foundation for the State-right doctrines of the next thirty years. It was not essential to the integrity of the national Government, but aroused and united all the opponents of a Federal power, and awakened distrust where there had been none before. And, finally, it brought down on the Federal principle the reaction of defeat, for the decision was substantially reversed two days after it was announced, by the introduction into Congress of the Eleventh Amendment.

Looking at the opinions of the majority of the Court, now that time has clarified our views of the Constitution, we see that they are able and conscientious and thoroughly moral arguments for a legislative assembly or a constitutional convention, but that they are not judicial. The fallacy which runs through them is, that a grant of jurisdiction to a court creates a liability to process on the part of every one who may be a suitor. "*To controversies to which the United States shall be a party,*" "*To controversies between a State and citizens of another State,*" are constitutional provisions of no distinguishable difference. No one dreamed that the national Government was amenable to the process of a court under the former; yet it was under the latter that the Supreme Court maintained that a State could be sued whether it would or not, and its appearance in court be enforced by process. Sovereign rights were the real objects for which the people of "these colonies" had gone to war; a real sovereignty had been attained by the war; it seemed to them incredible that it could have been surrendered by an ambiguous phrase in an article which related to the judiciary and not to the States. Assuredly, it was an unfortunate decision.

RECENT POETRY.

GOETHE said of English poets that the least of them had yet Shakspere at his back and the ocean at his feet. It is true, however, that it is easy, even for a poet, to ignore what is directly behind him; and easier to emulate the

vague distances of the sea than its measure and its rhythm. Hence the multitude of new volumes of poetry that come from London are as ineffectual, perhaps, as the multitude proceeding from New York; while those that come, in increasing numbers, from our far-off inland cities have almost always some local coloring and hence some value, although this is often to be found in the obscurest corners of the book. Of recent English volumes, the most thoughtful by far is one bearing the somewhat enigmatical title, 'One in the Infinite' (Longmans), the author being George Francis Savage-Armstrong, whose agreeable earlier book, 'A Garland from Greece,' was noticed with cordial enjoyment in these pages some years ago. This present book records the not uncommon theme of a soul first struggling with doubt and depression, but coming by degrees to hope and faith. The theme is old, but the force and freshness of the treatment are new; the doubts are real doubts, the joys are actual triumph, and it is saying little for the book to say that if read and digested faithfully, it is worth several alcoves full of controversial treatises and sermons. Even in the treatment of the ethnic religions, the author has a zest and an originality, as in the following (p. 66):

THE MENDICANT.

1.

Sakya-Muni, Gautama Buddha, what dost thou proffer of hope or of mirth?
"What shall I do to be saved" from the sorrow, passion, and terror, and madness, of earth?
What is thy gospel, O prophet of India? What hast thou left to me, child of the sun?
What is the balm for my pain thou hast promised me? What is the crown when the race hath been run?

2.

"What shall I do to be saved?'—Thou hast answered it. "Labour not ever, but beg for thy bread;
Live as a Mendicant; marry not; mortify flesh; let a life of Nirvana be led.
So shalt thou find in the death of thy passions, growth of thy spirit, composure and rest,
Passing through indolent days of humanity on to intangible joys of the blest."

3.

Sakya-Muni, Gautama Buddha, bending I heed thee, but find in thy law
Something that baffles me, doubtful consistency,—Lo, in the weft of thy wisdom a flaw!—
Look to it, Gautama!—Sakya-Muni, sweet is the bulbul, but hollow her egg.
How shall thy gospel suffice for the Many?—If all men are Beggars, from whom shall men beg?

And here we have him again, at his tenderest phase, not in the final triumph, but when the light is breaking (p. 287):

"THE FATHER."

1.

If it were only a dream,
Were it not good to cherish,
Seeing to lose its beam
Is in despair to perish—
Maker and Father and Friend,
Yearning in pity to guide me,
Leading me on to the end,
Ever in love beside me,
Never in storm or gloom
Deaf to a cry of sorrow,
Kindling beyond the tomb
Light of an endless morrow?

2.

Yea, if 't were only a dream,
Better it were to clasp it,
Brood on it until it seem
Real as the lives that grasp it.
Helpless, feeble and lost,
Groping in Wisdom's traces,
Whirled like a leaf, and tost
Out in the awful spaces—
Oh, how the heart betrayed
Bounds, into life upleaping,
Trusting that He who made
Watch over all is keeping.

Throughout the book there is no cant, nothing merely technical, but a wholesome human flavor, and a religious life beyond all conventionalism.

Next to this we should rank first, among the English books of poetry issued in the last few months, 'A Summer Night, and Other Poems' by Graham R. Tomson (London: Methuen). No one now living in English-speaking countries has the ballad-touch like Mrs. Tomson; and as we have pointed this out in her former books, we may reaffirm it now, and quote in sufficient proof of it the following (p. 33):

THE FARM ON THE LINKS.

Grey o'er the pallid links, haggard and forsaken,
Still the old roof-tree hangs rotting overhead,
Still the black windows stare sullenly to seaward,
Still the blank doorway gapes, open to the dead.

What is it cries with the crying of the curlews?
What comes apace on those fearful, stealthy feet,
Back from the chill sea-deeps, gliding o'er the sand-dunes,
Home to the old home, once again to meet?

What is to say as they gather round the hearth-stone,
Flameless and dull as the feuds and fears of old?
Laughing and fleering still, menacing and mocking,
Sadder than death itself, harsher than the cold.

Woe for the ruined hearth, black with dule and evil,
Woe for the wrong and the hate too deep to die!
Woe for the deeds of the dreary days passed over,
Woe for the grief of the gloomy days gone by!

Where do they come from? furtive and despairing,
Where are they bound for? those that gather there,
Slow, with the sea-wind sobbing through the chambers,
Soft, with the salt mist stealing up the stair?

Names that are nameless now, names of dread and loathing,
Banned and forbidden yet, dark with spot and stain:
Only the old house watches and remembers,
Only the old home welcomes them again.

The new book of skits and fantasies by the late Mr. J. K. Stephen, 'Quo Musa Tendis?' (Macmillan), is generally regarded as a great falling off from his 'Lapsus Calami,' once reviewed in these columns, and certainly has in it nothing so good as his "Rudyards cease from Kipling," which seemed to "fill a long-felt want"; but its author should have endeared himself to Americans by this warm-hearted tribute to the memory of Lowell (p. 65), dated August 13, 1891:

Lowell: the labors of your noble life,
Your state-craft, and your high poetic skill
Were aye a force that made for union, till
The peace now reigning hushed the ancient strife
Between the mighty land that gave you life,
And that whose kinship distance could not kill.
I think your death has drawn us nearer still!
Now with your praise our island home is rife,
While rings your continent with equal praise;
And here, as there, we sadly quote your lays.
And Lowell! I who knew you, also know
Some that you loved in England, who to-day
Not only share your countless readers' woe,
But mourn a dear old friend that's passed away.

Other recent English volumes do not seem remarkable. 'A Dream of Other Days,' by Lieut.-Col. Fife-Cookson (Putnams), is an East Indian tale of some animation, in which the author claims to have contrived a stanza of his own; the 'Poems' of the late William Caldwell Roscoe, edited by his daughter (Macmillan), are chiefly remarkable for two dramas, which have in them a touch of Elizabethan fire and flavor, reminding the reader of Beddoes; and 'A Vision of Life,' by the late William Gifford Palgrave (Macmillan), is a long and often abstruse and Dantesque poem, the fruit of the long studies and varied wanderings of one of the most Ulysses-like of modern Englishmen. Indeed, his last book published during his lifetime bore the name of the much-roaming Greek hero; and his biographer says that he knew Dante almost by heart, had learned many Oriental languages, had lived on every continent, and had gone in and out of several different churches. The vast material of his book requires a good deal of yeast to give it lightness, and this adjunct is not always forthcoming; yet the work is certainly a contribution to the history of the human mind.

Of recent American volumes the wittiest verse is undoubtedly to be found in 'Original Charades,' by Prof. L. B. R. Briggs of Harvard University (Scribners), which is as clever as a London volume of *vers de société*, and much less cloying. But the most valuable and enjoyable is the first complete edition of Maurice Thompson's 'Poems' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), which is all the more enjoyable because it comes from that very Crawfordsville, Indiana, which Matthew Arnold immortalized by his mistaken disdain. But it is a part of the very merit of these fresh and vigorous poems that they were born wholly outside that Europe which stretches, Emerson says, to the Alleghanies; and all their literary material, even when the poet longs for England, is American throughout. Even the very flavor of the words must be indigenous, as thus (p. 160):

"If I were a poet, my sweetest song
Should have the bouquet of scuppernong,
With a racy smack in every line
From the savage juice of the muscadine.

"The russet persimmon, the brown papaw,
The red wild plum and the summer haw,
Service-berries and mandrake fruit,
Sassafras bark and ginseng root,
Should make my verse pungent and sweet by turns;
And the odor of grass and the freshness of ferns,
The kernel of nuts and the resins of trees,
The nectar distilled by the wild honey-bees,
Should be thrown in together, to flavor my words
With the zest of the woods and the joy of the birds.

"Who sings by note, from the page of a book,
So sweet a tune as the brawl of a brook?
Shall Homer or shall Anacreon
Suggest as much as the wind or the sun?"

We have here the old favorites of Mr. Thompson's muse, "The Death of the White Heron," and "Between the Poppy and the Rose," and "In Exile"—the last touching vigorously the chord which still vibrates in American hearts, beyond all jealousy or injustice, to the touch of the mother-country. In a still higher spirit he now sings "To an English Sky-lark," "To an English Nightingale," in such strains of transatlantic cousinship as those much-sung birds never heard before; introducing them, with true Western cordiality, to the mocking-bird and the brown-thrush. Mr. Thompson wholly lays aside in his verse that polemic spirit which sometimes intrudes upon his prose: and hence his verse, at least, rarely fails to be fresh and free and agreeable; and nothing can be manlier than his hearty acceptance of the results of the war (p. 194):

"Not so! I am a Southerner:
I love the South; I dared for her
To fight from Lookout to the sea
With her proud banner over me:
But from my lips thanksgiving broke
As God in battle-thunder spoke,
And that Black Idol, breeding drouth
And dearth of human sympathy
Throughout the sweet and sensuous South,
Was, with its chains and human yoke,
Blown hellward from the cannon's mouth,
While Freedom cheered behind the smoke!

In marked contrast with the healthfulness and outdoor vigor of Mr. Thompson's lay is the new volume of posthumous poems of the late Mr. Francis S. Saltus, just now published, 'Flasks and Flagons—Pastels and Profiles—Vistas and Landscapes' (Buffalo: Moulton). The title well indicates the extraordinary exuberance and variety of this poet, who groups his themes for us collectively—so many kings to be celebrated, so many wines, so many nations—and then distributes to each a song or a sonnet. The reader wonders anew over the wealth and profusion of this wasted young life, for the portrait of the author reappears in every volume of the series to assure us, if the verse did not, that wasted it was. In this book there is less that is repulsive and ghastly than in its predecessors; and though it contains a poem on absinthe, there is less evidence in its pages of what the author calls the "glorious Lethe" of that beverage. Mr. Saltus died, it seems, on June 25, 1889, and his friend, Mr. John Ernest McCann, prefaces the volume with a memorial sonnet.

Mr. Edgar Fawcett, whose 'Songs of Doubt and Dream' have just appeared (Funk & Wagnalls), has much of the varied wealth of Mr. Saltus, though the fates have been kinder to him and made him a New York social reformer instead of an estrayed Paris *flaneur*.

He is indeed at his best when he is most a reformer, since then his spirit of defiance is employed for better purposes than where he seems defiant merely for amusement. His poem, "By a Window"—the reveries of a lost girl—has a touch of real nobleness, as well as much of dramatic power; but his purely literary poems are apt just to miss their mark through a flavor of self-consciousness, as in the following (p. 22):

A RETROSPECT.

Wandering where mortals have no power to gauge
The enormity of night that space outrolls,
Floated or paused, in shadowy pilgrimage,
Two disembodied souls.

One towered a shape with dark wild-trailing shroud,
With face by sorrow and anger seamed and drawn;
One loomed a holy glory, as when some cloud
Swims deep in baths of dawn.

World after world they gazed on, till beguiled
They flew toward earth, and hovering where she swept,
One with a saturnine dejection smiled,
And one with slow tears wept.

"On that star," said the spirit of sombre mien,
As Dante I passed through pain's most blinding heats." . . .
"On that star," said the spirit of look serene,
"I suffered, and was Keats!"

The increasing cosmopolitanism of our country yields fruit in several volumes bearing Italian surnames on their title-pages; as for instance, the graceful 'Lyrics' by Cora Fabbri (Harpers), which are full of a just longing for Florence, and are adorned with "stornelli" and "strambotti," but, after all, leave it a little uncertain whether they were written in New York or London. More vigorous, though often cruder, are the 'Poems of Humanity, and Abelard to Heloise' (San Francisco: Griffith), by Lorenzo Sosso, who is elsewhere said to be general-delivery clerk in the San Francisco Post-office. These poems show a good deal of reading and are drawn from varied sources; but although they flow easily, the rhythm often halts, and there is a good deal of monotony in the note drawn.

In taking account, at periodical intervals, of any accumulated shelf of recent American poems, there are certain constantly recurring types, seldom to be missed. There is pretty sure to be the Indian or Aztec epic, the latter being represented on our table by Hanna H. Foster's 'Zululu, the Maid of Anahuac' (Putnams), and the former by a statelier tome, illustrated with a wealth of exceedingly wooden pictures, 'The Feast of the Virgins,' by H. L. Gordon (Chicago: Laird). Then there is the long religious poem, represented this time by 'Methodism: a Retrospect and an Outlook,' by Prof. Charles William Pearson of Northwestern University (Hunt & Eaton), this example being more simple and genuine than the average of its class. Then there is usually a volume of the verse called "passionate," with a somewhat repellent flavor about it, and enhanced by devout poems intermingled, as has been the fashion of erotic literature, since Marguerite of Navarre; this is usually by a woman, and it is conspicuously represented, for the present purpose, by the 'Unrest' of Mme. Higgins-Glenerne (Lida Lewis Watson) (Dillingham), who dedicates her unwholesome mixture in part to her parents and in part, "with palms of peace and the pulse of passion," to her husband. Then there is the highly wrought romance of chivalry, of which the most obvious recent type is 'Yvernelle, a Legend of Feudal France,' by Frank Norris (Philadelphia: Lippincott), a book whose wealth of costly illustrations only makes the verse seem tamer.

There is the philosophic volume, here represented by the 'Dramatic Sketches and Poems' of Louis J. Block (Philadelphia: Lippincott); the Oriental poem, which is to be found richly and agreeably rendered in 'The Perfume Holder,' by Craven Langstroth Betts (Saalfeld & Fitch); the volume of vivacious verse, here jauntily typified by 'A Beauty of Thebes, with Other Verses,' by John Goadby Gregory (Milwaukee: The Author); and the book of pure and elevated sentiment, with only too abundant a facility for metrical expression, as exemplified in 'Sonnets—Songs—Laments,' by Cara E. Whiton-Stone (Boston: Cupples).

Of more real value, perhaps, than any of these are the few volumes—often dingy and ill-printed—in which there lurk, amid inflation or commonplace, a few pages of genuine local coloring, affording us something that is valuable, not so much because it is new as because it is true. What Mr. M. J. Gorton prized in his 'Drama of the Cycle' (Boston: Cupples) was probably the title-poem, but what the reader prizes is "A Ballad of Life on the Up-Grade [of the mine]," or the few Arkansas ballads. Mr. Albert E. S. Smythe sends forth 'Poems, Grave and Gay' (Toronto: Imrie & Graham), of which the best part really consists in the "Peanut Ballads," which are in the Belfast dialect. Mr. Meredith Nicholson, in 'Short Flights' (Indianapolis: Bowen), although he writes well and earnestly of Omar Kháyyàm, yet charms us most when he describes "Fire-Hunting," or tells us how "My Paddle Gleamed"; and Marguerite E. Easter, in 'Clytie, and Other Poems' (Boston: Philpott), most arrests the eye when she tells us that the later species of wild aster are poetically christened "Summer's Farewells" in Virginia (p. 103). Mrs. Piatt, writing from Ireland, still gives us some of the local coloring of her American home in her 'An Irish Wild-Flower, etc.' (Stokes), for she longs among primroses for the peach and apple-blooms by the Ohio (p. 37), and stoutly maintains the superiority of the blue-bird to the sky-lark (p. 15). She also shows her wonted sympathetic power in the title-poem of the book (p. 1):

AN IRISH WILD-FLOWER.

(A Barefoot Child by —— Castle.)

She felt, I think, but as a wild-flower can,
Through her bright fluttering rags, the dark, the cold.
Some farthest star, remembering what man
Forgets, had warmed her little head with gold.

Above her, hollow-eyed, long blind to tears,
Leaf-cloaked, a skeleton of stone arose. . . .
Oh, castle-shadow of a thousand years,
Where you have fallen—is this the thing that grows?

Charles Haddon Spurgeon, Preacher, Author, Philanthropist. With anecdotical reminiscences. By G. Holden Pike. Funk & Wagnalls Co.

From the Usher's Desk to the Tabernacle Pulpit. The Life and Labors of Charles Haddon Spurgeon. By the Rev. Robert Schindler. A. C. Armstrong & Son.

THE two lives of Mr. Spurgeon already out are specimens of that fungoid growth which is generally so luxurious on the new-made graves of famous or notorious persons. If there is any help in these towards making up a judgment on Mr. Spurgeon's life, and the degree to which it lends itself to biographical treatment, it does not appear to any great extent. We shall some time have a much better biography of him than either of these hasty and scrappy compilations, but his life was uneventful, and the strength of it went so largely into his preaching and the organized activities of his church that there was little left to be expressed in other ways. He printed, we are told, 2,200 sermons. No biography can ever report him as they do. They are the man himself.

The best part of Mr. Pike's volume is not his own, but an introduction written by Dr. W. C. Wilkinson; though here also something must be allowed for the warmth of the writer's admiration and the freshness of the common loss. It is certainly very dangerous to say of Spurgeon's preaching: "Nothing less meteoric, nothing more solar, in its quality of radiance, has ever been set by God among the merely human and uninspired lights of the world to shed illumination on any Christian age." The teeth of time are very hard on such contemporary praise. But Spurgeon's diligence or sincerity cannot be overrated; and few, if any, writers of his time have been more widely read. One of his books, one of a multitude, reached a sale of 320,000 copies. Dr. Wilkinson lays much stress upon the quality of Spurgeon's voice, loud enough without apparent effort for the farthest off of the 5,000 in his Tabernacle, and not too loud for those close up to him. In this connection it may be well to note the fact that he despised all emollients for his throat and believed in such astringents as strong vinegar and beef-tea well peppered. Dr. Wilkinson praises his gift of language as unparalleled. He says its simple, easy flow was "so uninterrupted and so easy that it seemed like lubricity itself"—which suggests that he is no more disposed to let the devil have the good words than the good tunes.

Both of these volumes give the same impression of the suddenness and the stability of Mr. Spurgeon's London fame. He was a mere boy when he went to London after three years preaching in a Cambridge suburb, and in a few years he reached the height of his popularity. The gain after that was in the esteem of the better part of the community, in the correction of mythical reports, in the extension of his influence through the printing of his sermons and the elaborate organization of his parochial and propagandist work. To compare him with Beecher is quite unavoidable. His preaching was more picturesque than Beecher's; its picturesqueness was its greatest charm for the multitudes who flocked to hear him and who read his sermons with delight. Spurgeon had also a sustained sobriety and solemnity of speech and manner to which Beecher did not attain. The London preacher was the more possessed by his message. But Beecher's advantage over him was very great as a poet and as a humorist. Here there was no comparison. As for shocking the conventional proprieties of pulpit speech, Beecher probably did this a hundred times where Spurgeon did it once. The two men had a harmless vanity in common and they delighted equally in a strain of personal reminiscence. Spurgeon had great ability as an organizer, where Beecher had none at all.

Mr. Pike's volume makes no mention of Spurgeon's rupture with the Baptist Union, but Mr. Schindler's has a chapter on "The Down-Grade Controversy." It is brief, but it makes plain how complete that rupture was. Spurgeon was a Calvinistic Baptist, and the Baptist Union has decided that the Arminian doctrine has its unqualified sympathy. The same Union represents those general tendencies of "Progressive Orthodoxy" which need not be indicated here. This is a pregnant comment on the effect of Mr. Spurgeon's great and multiform activity. Genial, hearty, shrewd, and eloquent, taking the color of his style from the tinker of Bedford and the Puritan divines, the most heard and read of any preacher of his time, the object of enthusiastic admiration, his London pastorate of thirty-eight years' duration was a losing battle. He

"Strove against the stream, but all in vain."

It swept the English Baptists ever further and further from that Calvinistic course on which he would have had them sail for ever. The force of his genius measures the strength of the stream. But his own resistance to "the new theology" was not so absolute as he believed. The time-spirit did its work on him also. The temperature of his later sermons was much lower than that of the earlier. His tongue lost something of its daring in describing the misfortunes of the damned.

Sir William Johnson and the Six Nations. By William Elliot Griffis. [Makers of America.] Dodd, Mead & Co.

Sir William Johnson's American career extended from 1738 to 1774. During this period, when American settlement encroached upon Western savagery, and when France and England contended for Indian allies in the struggle for the possession of the West, he was the leader along the Mohawk line, preserving harmony between the English and the Indians, and winning victories against the French in the final conflict. Mr. Griffis has presented a clear and interesting view of this stirring period on the frontier, and has given us a sympathetic study of the masterful Irish pioneer. He has also given a very readable account of the Iroquois Indians. The Six Nations, by their location in the region controlling the water systems east of the Mississippi, by their peculiar organization, and by their priority in securing firearms, became the most powerful Indian confederacy on the continent, and contributed to the victory of the English over the French. It is one of the merits of the book that Mr. Griffis has dwelt upon the importance of the Indian influence in this formative period of our history. In some of his generalizations, however, the author is not free from rashness. For example, the assertion that it was the agricultural basis of their civilization which made the Iroquois superior to their neighbors, needs much modification. But a still more incautious declaration of Mr. Griffis's is that "our Government is in a measure copied from that" of the Iroquois. Aside from the absence of evidence that American statesmen in any measure "copied" the confederacy of the Iroquois, the author shows a lack of appreciation of the distinction between *societas* and *civitas* in comparing the two. A favorite contention with Mr. Griffis is that the origins of many of the most important of our political institutions are to be sought in Holland rather than in England. He goes somewhat out of his way to urge this view in the present work; but it is a well-taken point that the composite middle region of the old colonies has not had its proper place in our histories as a factor in producing the present United States.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Oscar F. The Presumption of Sex, and Other Papers. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Alexander, W. D. A Brief History of the Hawaiian People. American Book Co.
Bernhart, W. Andersen's Bilderbuch ohne Bilder. Boston: D. C. Heath. 35 cents.
Bowen, H. W. Losing Ground: A Series of Sonnets. Boston: J. G. Cupples. $1.25.
Coleridge, Stephen. The Sanctity of Confession: A Romance. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Crim, Matt. In Beaver Cove and Elsewhere. Chas. L. Webster & Co.
Denning, David. The Art and Craft of Cabinet-making. London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Ehrich, Louis R. The Question of Silver. Putnams. 75 cents.

MARCH
EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

Articles.—Public School Pioneering in New York and Massachusetts, Andrew S. Draper; Can English Literature be Taught? Brander Matthews; Defective Vision in School Children, Samuel D. Risley; The Prussian Elementary Education Bill, Nicholas Murray Butler; The College President, Charles F. Thwing; The Catholic Controversy about Education, Thomas Bouquillon; The Study of Pedagogy at Cornell University, Samuel G. Williams.

Education in Foreign Periodicals.—The Study of Greek in Germany—Syllabus of Mr. Sully's Lectures on the Science of Education.

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The English Language and Eng- LISH GRAMMAR. An Historical Study of the Sources, Development, and Analogies of the Language, and of the Principles covering its usages. Illustrated by Copious Examples by Writers of all Periods. By SAMUEL RAMSEY. 8vo, $3.00.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 7, 1892.

The Week.

THE country has received with supreme satisfaction the news that the Senate has ratified, by unanimous vote, the treaty with Great Britain by which the Bering Sea dispute is referred to arbitration. The arbitrators, in addition to those appointed by the United States and Great Britain (two by each), are to be appointed by France, Italy, and Sweden (one by each). Thus there will be seven in all, and a majority will decide each question, and the decision will be binding on the United States and Great Britain, but not necessarily so on any other country. The main question is the fifth in the list of questions to be passed upon, viz.:

"(5.) Has the United States any right, and, if so, what right, of protection or property in the fur seals frequenting the islands of the United States in Bering Sea when such seals are found outside of the ordinary three-mile limit?"

The other questions to be brought before the Court of Arbitration are mostly, if not wholly, historical or geographical. They may all be decided in our favor without affecting the fifth or main question at all. The terms of the *modus vivendi* pending arbitration have not been fully made public, but they seem to be based upon the idea that damages shall be paid by the losing party. This ought to be satisfactory in principle. There may be some embarrassment in carrying out the details, but there is no longer any danger of "tension" between the two countries. For this we are duly thankful, and we shall not examine too closely the terms of Mr. Wharton's despatch of March 22, which seemed to negative any plan for a *modus vivendi* on the basis of reciprocal payment. The country will now dismiss the subject from its thoughts and cares. Not one person in ten thousand ever really cared whether the seals were taken on the islands or in the open water, or whether they were taken by Americans or by British Columbians.

In the recent silver debate in the House, Mr. Bartine of Nevada contributed a new idea, being a sort of amendment to Gresham's law that where two kinds of money coexist, the poorer always drives out the better one. Referring to a fact which the silverites have at last been compelled to take notice of, namely, that France did *not* have a concurrent circulation of both gold and silver during all the seventy years from 1803 to 1873, Mr. Bartine said:

"Not one single piece of silver coin was ever 'driven' from France. *It was drawn out by commercial currents.*"

If Mr. Gresham were alive, he would probably snap his fingers at the distinction here made between driving and drawing. He would say that the order of its going made no more difference to him than it did to *Lady Macbeth* when she told her guests not to stand upon their order, but go at once. But to one who looks upon silver as an abused female (as no doubt Mr. Bartine does), it makes the greatest difference whether she was gently coaxed out of *la belle France* or driven with a bludgeon. And as we all know that the French are the politest people in the world, we must conclude that when they got rid of their silver, they used no unnecessary violence. Instead of clubbing silver out of their country, as ruder people would have done, they offered an inducement (of say 1½ per cent.) to other nations in order to create a "commercial current" in which silver could sail cheerily all the way to India if she were so inclined.

No other State in the Union illustrates the transitory nature of the free-coinage craze so well as Kansas. Two years ago the Republicans of that commonwealth seemed to have lost their heads on this question. Both of the Republican Senators and five of the seven Republican Representatives voted in Congress for free coinage. The Republican State Convention heartily sustained their position, adopting the following resolution:

"The practical operation of the Silver Act now in force, recently passed by a Republican majority and opposed by a Democratic minority in both houses of Congress, in rapidly increasing the value of silver, is a good step in the right direction, but *we, the Republicans of Kansas, demand free coinage of silver*, a measure strongly opposed and vigorously denounced by the late Democratic Administration, led by ex-President Grover Cleveland."

Less than two years have passed since this resolution was enthusiastically adopted, but a despatch from Topeka says that "at present four-fifths of the Republicans are opposed to free coinage," and the State's delegation to the National Convention will sustain the President who in 1890 was condemned for his opposition to free coinage.

A change of the same sort as has already occurred among the Republicans of what used to be called "the banner Republican State of the Union," is coming over Southern Democrats. The chief strength of the free-coinage movement, in the West and South alike, has been the fact that Kansas, and all that part of the country, was suffering two years ago from "hard times," and that the low price of cotton still prolongs a similar condition of things in the South. The farmers have wanted more money, and the free-coinage advocates assured them that they would get it if Congress would only pass, and the President would sign, a certain bill. As long as the politicians of both parties cultivated this delusion, and nobody seriously disputed the claim, it was natural enough that it should be generally accepted. But discussion makes short work of any delusion. It is only necessary to ask a question or two, and its folly is exposed.

Mr. Lodge's bill providing for a new international monetary conference and for a suspension of silver purchases by the Government meanwhile, betrays the uneasiness felt in the Republican party over the present Silver Law. The Democrats, partly by blundering and partly by set purpose, have got themselves into a position of determined hostility to that measure, which they call the Sherman Silver Law. They opposed it unanimously when it was before Congress. The majority opposed it because it did not go far enough in the direction of silver, the minority because it went too far. But the effect of the vote was to put the party squarely against it, so that the State conventions subsequent to its passage felt bound to pass resolutions against it. Now that the Bland Free-Coinage Bill has been put out of the way and is no longer a terror, the public mind turns to the existing law, and people begin to ask how long this purchase of seven tons of silver bullion per day can continue without bringing us to the silver standard. While the Bland Bill was darkening the horizon, nobody saw the other thing, but now everybody sees it, and the saying of Mr. Lodge's colleague, Congressman Williams, that "the Democrats have done all the threatening and the Republicans all the mischief," is likely to cut some figure in the campaign this year. But Mr. Lodge's bill will not pass. We shall go into the Presidential campaign buying seven tons of silver bullion per day. That will be the silver-producers' share in the protective tariff.

There is a very mistaken notion, in some financial quarters, that the decline in silver bullion prices has been caused by speculative operations in this country. The truth of the matter is that all sensational operations of the kind, during the last two years, have been efforts to advance the price. The "bull movement" in silver in the summer of 1890, for instance, when the price was put up on the New York Stock Exchange to $1.21 per ounce, was as clear a piece of manipulation as the old-time "rigging" of Erie or New York Central stock. The end of the 1890 experiment was disastrous, and all the frequent attempts since that time to excite the public into speculation for a rise have had a similar origin and a similar result. If there has been any market speculation in silver since the collapse last year of the last of these

efforts, it has been done by the London bullion brokers, and been merely a shrewd "working" of the market to take advantage of the constant overproduction; nor have even these operations been of a permanent character. If the English silvermen put the price down, it was only for the purpose of checkmating the American pools and buying at an advantageous price the silver needed for India. Two months ago the agents of our largest smelting works, apparently more far-seeing than their friends in Congress, gave up even the effort to hold back their surplus product, and, throwing it all on the market, started the decline which culminated on Monday week. In other words, the break in silver prices is as true a reflection of trade conditions as the break in the price of iron. In the one case as in the other, overproduction tells the whole story. The silver-producers played for a higher stake, and, in consequence, strained far more recklessly their producing capacity. It is not strange, then, that the reaction in their case should be the more severe.

The London *Economist* of March 26 mentions the shipment of £1,500,000 gold to Austria by the house of Rothschild. The Berlin correspondent of the *Economist* says that the Disconto-Gesellschaft of that city, in conjunction with the Rothschilds of London, has undertaken the Austrian gold loan, about which there has been so much talk lately in connection with the resumption of specie payments, and that fifty or perhaps one hundred million florins will be issued in April or May. The fact that Austria-Hungary is to pass from the silver to the gold standard at no very distant period seems therefore to be settled. Then Russia will be the only silver-standard country in Europe; but as she is still on a paper basis, the question of the standard is of no greater importance than it was with us in 1873. In India the silver crisis is severe. The savings of the natives are mostly in the form of silver coin or silver ornaments—the coin being changed into ornaments, and the ornaments into coin, on the same principle as money is deposited in savings banks and drawn out again in this country. The natives do not perceive the decline in silver until they have to buy something with it, and then it takes the form of a rise in the prices of commodities. The greatest difficulty in India lies in the fact that the land taxes are collectible in silver rupees, and that the rate cannot be raised without danger of producing a revolution. When the British East India Company came into power there as the successor to the native rulers, it found existing a system of land tenure by virtue of which the holder paid a fixed rent to the Prince, and neither he nor his heirs could be disturbed so long as they paid it. This system has run on to the present time. The Indian cultivator could not be made to understand the reasons for raising his rent. Consequently the Government is helpless. Its own expenses rise as the purchasing power of the rupee falls, but it cannot recoup itself by raising the land rent.

The Democrats of Minnesota met at St. Paul Thursday to appoint delegates to the National Convention at Chicago, and instructed them "to vote as a unit for, and to engage every manly endeavor to secure, the nomination of Grover Cleveland as the candidate of the Democratic party for President of the United States." It also passed some resolutions on the silver question which call for attention, since they may point the way to a solution of the silver question in its political, although not in its financial, aspects. The resolutions were these:

"We hold, in accordance with the traditional policy of our party, to the use of both gold and silver, and the sole coinage function of the Government is to examine the relative values of the metals of coinage, as established by the commercial world, and, if there has been a sufficient fluctuation in the value of either to make the existing ratio unequal, then to readjust the ratios, so that the number of grains of either metal in the unit of coinage, the dollar, shall be equivalent in value, and then to permit the free, unrestricted coinage of both metals.

"We join the Democracy of New York in demanding the repeal of the Sherman Silver-Coinage Act. We condemn this act as an attempt to distract the friends of honest bimetallism, and denounce it as calculated to debase our currency, contract the circulating medium, and wreck the confidence and safety of the business world."

No silverite ought to object to the first resolution. Mr. Bland and Senator Stewart and all of their followers contend that free coinage would bring the two metals to a parity and keep them there, so that we should actually have bimetallism, and not merely the single silver standard, with gold demonetized and selling at a premium. The Minnesota Democrats say in substance: "Then you cannot object to making the silver dollar commercially equal to the gold dollar. If, upon the adoption of free coinage, silver should *not* advance to $1.29 per ounce (it is now 86 cents), we merely ask that you shall put enough metal into the dollar to make it worth a dollar. Then we will join you. Then you may have coinage *ad libitum*. This is the real dollar of the fathers."

We say that this may be the political solution of the silver question. It offers a common standing-ground to the factions of the party. The fact that we cannot make a silver dollar that will *continue* to be of the same value as the gold dollar (neither more nor less), is no reason why we should not have it in our platforms. We have been making fools of ourselves on this subject so long that it is only a question of greater or less folly, and we think that the Minnesota resolution is the very least folly that we shall be likely to get in any national platform this year. The chief value and importance of the Minnesota Convention, however, is to be found in the challenge it gives to the snap delegation from New York. The doctrine that no candidate can be nominated without the delegation of his own State—a doctrine that makes any single State more powerful *ad hoc* than all the others taken together—this undemocratic doctrine the men of Minnesota have trodden under their feet as did those of Rhode Island and of North Dakota a few days or weeks earlier. It is certain that the Democrats of Wisconsin, of Michigan, of Nebraska, and of Missouri will set their heels upon it. It is probable that those of Indiana, Illinois, and Iowa will do likewise, and long before that time the snap delegation of New York will be begging for mercy.

The House did a disgraceful thing on Monday in passing, with only forty-two dissenting votes, a bill which proposes to abrogate the existing treaty between China and the United States, and to prohibit absolutely the coming into the United States of Chinamen, as well as those who are now here and may hereafter leave, except those who may come as diplomatic representatives or agents of the Chinese Government. Vigorous speeches against the measure were made by Mr. Hitt, an Illinois Republican, and Mr. Hooker, a Mississippi Democrat. Mr. Hitt said that the bill was a cold-blooded proposition to abrogate a treaty—a thing unparalleled in the diplomatic history of nations—and for perfidy of expression could not be exceeded by language. The most insulting proposition of the bill, Mr. Hitt thought, was the provision which permitted the Chinese to "attend the World's Fair under guard." But such protests were of no avail when it was a question of catering to "the-Chinese-must-go" demand of "the Pacific Coast vote," and the bill was passed by more than four to one. It is believed that the Senate will not consent to so gross a piece of demagogism, but it is a reproach to the national reputation that such a measure should have passed one branch of Congress.

The investigation of the Pension Bureau is piling up evidence that this branch of the Government, disbursing about $130,000,000 a year, is conducted in a scandalously partisan and corrupt manner by Commissioner Raum. The most convincing testimony to this disgraceful state of things is furnished by Mr. Raum himself, in his answers—and his even more significant refusals to answer—to the questions which are put to him. During Thursday's session he admitted that for all practical purposes the Pension Bureau was a political machine run in the interests of the Republican party. Here is an extract from the proceedings:

"Question—If you found that examiners in the field were using their places to aid the Democratic party, what would you do?

"Answer—Call them in. I always give preference in every way possible to Republicans

because this is a Republican Administration. I am in my position because I am a Republican. I never assign men to the field without knowing their politics. I want only Republicans."

Mr. Harrison must now perceive what a sad mistake he made in refusing to remove Raum a year ago. His management of the Pension Bureau is the worst blot upon the record of the Administration. It recalls the Grant days of the Robesons and Belknaps and Babcocks. Worse still for Harrison, he has been repeating that worst of Grant's blunders in refusing to remove a corrupt official "while he is under fire." If Raum had been discharged, as he ought to have been, a year ago, and a good man put in his place, the scandal would have been forgotten before this time. As it is, the whole thing is kept before the public, and Mr. Harrison suffers for it. Apparently he has concluded to shoulder the load through his canvass for reëlection. This shows an extraordinary lack of shrewdness—or can it be true, as Raum himself has hinted, that he has such a "pull" that the President of the United States does not dare to remove him, no matter what is proved against him?

The prompt way in which the French have disposed of the Anarchist dynamiters shows the virtue there is in grasping the nettle firmly. Before the police were fairly roused there was some danger of a panic in Paris, owing to the popular belief that there was a powerful body of fanatical Anarchist conspirators diffused through the city, with whom society could not make terms, and who could not be successfully watched, and from whom an incalculable amount of damage to persons and property might still be expected. As soon as the police went vigorously to work, however, this theory was rapidly exploded. The chief of the Anarchists was found to be an ordinary criminal named Ravachol, who had already committed many murders and robberies, and, instead of being fanatical, was simply ferocious. The other sixty to seventy were apparently as easily frightened as any other malefactors, as easily discovered, arrested, and expelled from the country or held for trial. The *Temps*, which has examined the situation rather minutely, estimates the total number in Paris of avowed and recognizable Anarchists at 200, but these 200 claim to have behind them about 3,000 others in all ranks of society. It is, of course, opposed to Anarchist principles to have an organization of any kind which would control individual action, and they meet in "groups" for discussion, but all explosions are carried out by one person only. They have had several organs, such as *La Révolte*, the *Père Peinard*, *L'Insurgé*, and *Le Conscrit*. At one time the "Groups" had names, such as "the Batignolles Panther," "the Flat Feet," "the Gunshot," and the "Wolf's Cubs" — somewhat like our "Plug Uglies" and "Bloodtubs" of long ago. Their creed is very simple—that property ought to be divided equally; that there ought to be no government, or at all events no government composed of the bourgeois class; and that anybody who objected to this ought to be blown up.

The legal precautions in France against the illicit manufacture of explosives are very minute and stringent, but the facility with which explosives can be compounded or stolen has made these precautions of little value. The manufacture is permitted only to licensed companies, giving heavy bail for obedience to the law, and submitting themselves to incessant official inspection. Any one who wishes to purchase an explosive must give his name, address, and calling; the use he proposes to make of it; the day on which he will use it; the place in which he will keep it, and the route he will follow in transporting it from the factory. But, as the *Temps* points out, what is the use of all this, as far as anarchy is concerned, when every miner or quarryman who uses dynamite, can, by secretly putting aside a cartridge or two now and then, soon accumulate a considerable stock, of which the authorities will know nothing? The true means of safety seem to lie in the close observation of suspicious characters by the police, who, as a general rule, are pretty sure to be aided by the owners of the houses in which they meet. The trouble with explosives is that they may go off in the manufacture, and everybody who lets rooms or buildings, however much he may sympathize with anarchy, feels uneasy if he thinks they are being compounded on his premises. Still, there is no doubt that a new and formidable weapon has been put into the hands of the criminal and the fanatically discontented.

At a meeting of the General Court of the Bank of England on the 17th ult., Mr. Lidderdale, the Governor, presented a statement of the present phase of the Baring liquidation. The whole amount of liabilities assumed was £30,000,000. Of this sum £22,000,000 was in existence at the time of the crisis, October 31, 1890, and £8,000,000 was incurred subsequently. Against this sum there has been received from the assets and dues of the house £23,000,000, leaving £7,000,000 due to the guarantors. The securities held against this liability consist of £5,800,000 Argentines, £2,000,000 Uruguayans, £924,000 South Americans other than those mentioned, and miscellaneous assets amounting to £1,546,000. Respecting the character of these assets Mr. Lidderdale would express no opinion except that, in his judgment, the guarantors would get out without loss. He did not think that the time had yet come for forming a syndicate to relieve the Bank of its responsibility. The debt needed to be reduced a good deal lower before such a step would be practicable. The court then declared a half-yearly dividend of 5 per cent. on its £14,000,000 capital, out of the earnings of the past six months, and carried £25,000 to the "rest" or surplus fund. From this it appears that the business of John Bull has not gone to the dogs yet. The Baring rescue and salvage is probably the greatest feat of its kind ever undertaken and carried through since the world began. The extent of the ruin that would have followed an actual failure and protest of the Barings' paper is almost unimaginable.

The Buenos Ayres *Standard* has been making some valuable exposures of the inflated character of Argentine statistics of foreign commerce. It shows that the official valuations, both of imports and exports, have been greatly exaggerated, the former by about 50 per cent., and the latter by 20. Thus, sugar has been valued for the past three years by the customs authorities at $190 the ton, while its actual price in the Buenos Ayres market has averaged only about $80. Kerosene has been assessed at eighteen times its real commercial value. The same inflation, though in a less degree, has been practised in the case of many other imports, so that the paper cited maintains that the official figures of imports for the past three years ought to read $249,500,000 instead of $373,500,000, as officially declared. In like manner it analyzes the statistics of exports, showing how the Government figures for them are too great by $64,000,000, for the past three years. All this goes to show how the Argentine bubble has been blown up all around, and at the same time furnishes a new warning against putting implicit confidence in official figures relating to commerce.

The present anomalous position of the Brazilian President is seen from a glance at the provisions of the Constitution and the election laws bearing upon his status. The Constitution provides (Article 42) that in case a vacancy occurs in the Presidential office during the first two years of a Presidential term, the Vice-President succeeds only temporarily, and a new election is to be ordered. According to the new election law, promulgated on January 26, this new election is to be ordered within three months from the time the vacancy occurs. It seems clear that President Peixoto is subject to both these provisions of the law, and yet he has shown no disposition whatever to comply with them. Some of his friends maintain that the exceptional circumstances under which the "vacancy" was created—by the navy's deposing Fonseca—make it unnecessary to apply the strict letter of the law. We should think a safer defence for him would be that as Congress when it adjourned voted him "plenary powers," he is thereby authorized to be both law and Constitution unto himself. At any rate, that is what he appears to think.

A CAMPAIGN FOR PRINCIPLE.

A good many political observers in various parts of the country are greatly surprised at the sudden revival of Mr. Cleveland's prospects as a Presidential candidate, and are seeking reasons in explanation of it. We think they will find them in his speech in Rhode Island on Saturday, and especially in such sentences of it as these: "Splendid achievements await those who bravely, honestly, and stubbornly fight in the people's cause"; and "Demonstrate to the people the merits of your cause and trust them." That has been his political creed from the beginning of his public career to the present moment. He acted in accordance with it when, as Governor, he vetoed the five-cent-fare bill, and ran the risk of being denounced as the friend of the railway corporations rather than the friend of the people. He acted in accordance with it when, as President, he vetoed the Dependent Pension Bill, and, above all, when he issued his famous tariff message. He acted in accordance with it again when he wrote his letter against free silver coinage in February of last year.

On all these momentous occasions he put his trust in the people and in their capacity to recognize the justice and honesty of the cause for which he was fighting. In each instance the politicians declared that he had ruined himself politically, but time has shown that he was a shrewder politician than they, for he has to-day a wider and more enduring popularity than any other citizen of his time. His kind of politics is that described by Lowell in his definition of a statesman: "He is not so much interested in the devices by which men *may* be influenced, as about how they *ought* to be influenced; not so much about how men's passions and prejudices may be utilized for a momentary advantage to himself or his party, as about how they may be hindered from doing a permanent harm to the commonwealth. He trains himself to discern evils in their causes that he may forewarn if he cannot prevent, and that he may not be taken unawares by the long bill of damages they are sure to bring in, and always at the least convenient moment."

The great revival of Democratic faith in Mr. Cleveland, which is now sweeping all opposition before it, is due to the fact that he has made it his constant political practice to show his party and his countrymen what they ought to do rather than what they might do. More than any other public man of his time, he has sought to hinder his party from doing a permanent harm to the commonwealth. It is because he has done this that the whole country believes in his honesty and fearlessness—believes he would do right in every emergency, no matter what the personal cost might be.

If any man doubts the value of the service which Mr. Cleveland has done his party by his course, let him read the resolutions which the Democratic Conventions of Rhode Island, Minnesota, and other States are adopting as they are sending their Cleveland delegations to the National Convention. He will find therein the kind of material which begets lasting enthusiasm in a Presidential canvass. They are not empty and meaningless declarations, but pledges to sustain an honest man, and to sustain him in upholding principles which are of vital interest to the prosperity and welfare of the country. There is no dodging or "straddling" necessary, because the whole country knows exactly where the candidate stands now and where he will stand if he is elected. The American people do like an honest man as well now as they ever did, and they do like to be trusted to take the honest, patriotic view of all public questions.

No man ought to realize the truth of all this to-day more forcibly than David B. Hill. He has been trying to succeed in obtaining a Presidential nomination by precisely opposite methods to those pursued by Mr. Cleveland. Surely his "long bill of damages" has been brought in "at the least convenient moment." He sought only to find the "devices by which men may be influenced," and they have all failed him. The grand final result of all his labors is to set him before the country as a politician without principle, the leader of a band of political brigands who have been detected in stealing control of a Legislature, and have been exposed and denounced for that crime by the leading lawyers in their own political party. In fact, Mr. Hill has, by his conduct, succeeded in bringing out to public view a class of voters whose existence was, till within the past few weeks, generally questioned—that is, independent Democrats who hold the honor of their party so high that they do not hesitate to censure and repudiate leaders who commit crimes in its name and for its supposed advantage.

The enthusiasm with which the Democratic masses are flocking to Mr. Cleveland's support is undoubtedly increased by the sense of relief which they all feel at the failure of the Hill conspiracy to prevent his nomination. If Hill had not started his garroting expedition against the party, there would have been no question of Mr. Cleveland's renomination. Hill's failure simply means the collapse of the most formidable effort that can be made to prevent Mr. Cleveland's candidacy, and the reaction which is now so apparent and pervading in all parts of the country is the natural result. The party feels not only that it is going to have the candidate of its choice, but that it is going to save its self-respect and enter a campaign with its head erect and its conscience clear.

LEGISLATOR AND CONSTITUENTS.

The Keokuk *Gate City*, an Iowa Republican newspaper which discusses public questions with independence as well as intelligence, questions the justice of our statement that "the Republicans in Iowa have finally decided to stand by prohibition." It holds that the action of the Legislature was not the act of the Iowa Republicans as a party, but was the vote of so many legislators from so many prohibition districts who had been elected upon the pledge to the voters of their counties that they would stand by the prohibitory law, and who could not have been elected if they had not so promised. It admits that a few of the Republicans who voted against the bill were personally in favor of local option, but it says that they had assured their constituents that, no matter what their personal views were, they would stand by the Prohibitory Law.

The *Gate City* proceeds to discuss the wider question of the relation between legislator and constituents. Among other things it says:

> "Certainly it will not be maintained that candidates for the Legislature should promise their constituents one thing and then go to the Legislature and do the precisely opposite thing. No one should want to make politics and legislation a matter of open falsehood and debauchery like that. But for the position taken by the Republican candidates for the Legislature in the fifty-four districts that elected Republican legislators, the Republicans would not have carried the Legislature. That is a perfectly patent fact to any one here in Iowa, whether he is a Prohibitionist or anti-Prohibitionist. And there was nothing for those legislators so elected to do but to keep their word."

The question here raised is not a new one, but it is always full of interest. It is more than a question of good faith. It involves the whole matter as to the proper relation of the legislator to his constituents, the extent to which he shall turn himself into a mere machine to record their opinions (or their supposed opinions) at some time in the past, the degree to which he shall be conceded the right to exercise his own discretion as to what is the best thing for the community. It is a question which has just been raised in Congress over the Silver Bill, and it is a question which is sure to come up periodically in the future.

It is by no means a one-sided question. It is something more than whether a man ought to keep a pledge. To take an illustration which will make plain the wider issue involved: in 1890 a popular craze in favor of the free coinage of silver swept over the country, afflicting the Republicans hardly less than the Democrats. The Republican State Convention in Indiana, Harrison's own State, adopted on the 10th of September, 1890, a resolution which "cordially commended the action of the Republicans in Congress on the subject of silver coinage," condemned ex-President Cleveland for having "strongly opposed all legislation favorable to silver coinage," denounced the Democrats in the House as foes of silver because "the law recently enacted was passed in spite of persistent Democratic opposition," and commended this law as "*a long yet prudent step towards free coinage.*" The Republicans of Iowa the same year came out in favor of free coinage as the ideal towards which the Government should move as rapidly as possi-

ble. Their platform, adopted on the 25th of June, 1890, contained this plank:

"We are in favor of such an expansion of the currency as will meet the growing demands of the increase in population and trade, and offset the contraction resulting from the continual withdrawal of the national-bank circulation. That to this end we favor such legislation as will utilize as money the entire silver product of our mines, and we favor such laws as will aid in the ultimate unrestricted use of both of the precious metals as money."

It was upon such resolutions that the Republicans of Indiana and Iowa ran their candidates for Congress in 1890, and such of them as were elected may be held to have pledged themselves to carry out these resolutions by their votes. That is to say, according to the *Gate City's* theory, when a bill looking toward free coinage comes before Congress in 1892, Republican representatives from Indiana and Iowa are bound to vote for it, because in 1890 their constituents commended the Silver Bill, then just passed, as "a long step towards free coinage," and instructed them to "favor such laws as will aid in the ultimate unrestricted use of silver as money." According to this theory, all that the Representative in Congress has to do when any question comes up is to try and find out what his constituents thought (or thought they thought) about it two or three years before, and then vote accordingly.

This does not seem to us a rational conception either of "the popular will" or of the Representative's obligations to his constituents. It requires any fleeting craze which gets possession of a convention to be regarded as the deliberate and final verdict of the people—which is a gross injustice to the people. The party managers who constructed the Indiana and Iowa Republican platforms of 1890 thought that the nation was bent upon the ultimate free coinage of silver, and that the popular thing to do would be to fall in with this supposed popular demand. They were badly mistaken. There was far less sentiment in favor of free coinage then than they thought, and there is far less now than there was then. The Republicans of Indiana and Iowa in 1892 are obviously and overwhelmingly against any further step towards free coinage, and the Congressman from either of those States who had voted last week according to the platform of 1890, would have misrepresented his party.

Of course nobody at this distance can judge correctly whether there has been any material change in the attitude of Iowa Republicans towards prohibition since last summer, when the State Convention declared in favor of it, but it certainly looks as though there had been. Many Republican newspapers which formerly supported the policy have come out in favor of dropping it. Three Republican Senators voted for the Local-Option Law when it was before that body, and, as we understand it, they claim that they find their action endorsed by a large proportion of the party in their respective districts. If there were enough Republican Representatives to pass the bill in the House who believed that their constituents now favor it, they ought to have made it a law, according to the narrow theory of simply representing the opinions of their constituents at the time they were called upon to vote.

But the truth is, that no right-minded man will accept the commission of Representative or Senator if he is only to record the popular will. His first duty is to do what he believes to be best for the interests of the State. If a member of the Iowa Legislature thinks in March, 1892, that, in view of the conditions now existing, the passage of a local-option law would promote the cause of good morals, he ought to vote for it. The man who wins the enduring respect of his constituents is the man who votes against their prejudices, or even their convictions, if he thinks he ought so to vote. The greatest name in the history of Iowa is that of James W. Grimes, and the reason is because—at a crisis in the history of the Republic—he, a Republican Senator, had the courage to vote, at the dictate of his conscience, against the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, when 99 out of every 100 Republicans in Iowa demanded that he should vote for it.

MORE LIGHT ON THE BRAZILIAN TREATY.

WHATEVER may be the truth in regard to some of the assertions of the London *Times's* Buenos Ayres correspondent, in his despatch of Thursday last, cabled anew to this country, there can be no doubt that he was strictly correct in saying that, according to the declarations of the Brazilians themselves, the reciprocity treaty with them was "obtained under promises which have not been fulfilled." We have several times produced evidence going to show that this was the fact, but it has met with the usual overpowering rejoinder that no newspaper which did not worship at the shrine of protection could tell the truth, and that any charges made against Mr. Blaine must be inspired by "British gold," and therefore false, no matter how strong the proof might appear to be. It was also said that no responsible person appeared in Brazil to father the charges, and that anonymous and journalistic assertions were beneath notice.

This whole defence has been swept away by a long communication from Ruy Barbosa published in the Rio de Janeiro *Combate* of February 24. He, it will be remembered, was Minister of Finance and virtual Premier in the Cabinet of the Provisional Government, and was the one man in Brazil mainly responsible for the negotiation of the treaty. With him were associated in that matter Senhor Cesario Alvim, Minister of the Interior, and Senhor Wandenkolk, Minister of Marine. They lend their names and authority to the account of the negotiation which Senhor Barbosa makes public, so that the story now stands upon their united testimony and personal responsibility.

The ex-Minister begins by asserting that the Provisional Government advocated the projected treaty with the dominating idea that it would give Brazilian sugar especial advantages in the United States. He quotes a letter addressed to him by the Brazilian Minister in Washington, in which the latter said: "The general exemption of sugar from customs duties will not avail us, as that will be a very slight advantage. What we need is an exclusive favor shown our product." It was this "exclusive favor," says Barbosa, which the Brazilian Government sought to obtain, and which it supposed it did obtain, from the Government of the United States. He proceeds to give various proofs, documentary and otherwise, in support of his position.

His first citation is from an official letter written by the Brazilian Minister at Washington, under date of April 22, 1890, in which that diplomat, Mr. Mendonça, urged his Government to accede to the proposed treaty, and said in so many words that "no similar treaty would be made with Spain." This proviso was constantly in the minds of the Brazilian Cabinet, and it was solely in view of it that they authorized Mr. Mendonça to proceed with the affair. Ample proof of this is furnished by Barbosa in his quotations from another letter of Mendonça's and his telegraphic reply thereto. The letter was dated September 17, 1890, and said: "We ought to lose no time in being the first to take possession of a field in which we shall have a practical monopoly, for as long as the United States do not make similar treaties, as they will not, with Spain and England, no other country can compete with us here." This letter reached Rio de Janeiro on October 20, and Barbosa immediately telegraphed in reply: "You may continue the negotiations according to the terms of your letter, just received." Later on, Mendonça was in Brazil, and in all his conferences with Barbosa, and with the entire Cabinet, he "emphatically declared that the agreement would not depart from that essential condition."

Corroboration of all this is supplied in a letter written to Baron Lucena, the last Premier of Fonseca's Administration, by ex-Minister of the Interior Alvim. He was giving an account of the whole negotiation, and wrote as follows:

"When our representative in the great American Republic, Salvador de Mendonça, came to this capital for the purpose of pressing the negotiations to a close, he gave me, as he gave all my colleagues in the Cabinet, in the conferences which we had, the most perfect assurances that, in the treaty which was to be made, it would be determined by a special clause, or by a promise of the American Government, that no similar agreement should be made with any monarchical Power of Europe. This makes clear the reason for our haste in the matter, as the American Government had previously consented to the agreement, according to the information given us by our diplomatic agent, who assured us that he had been very careful about this particular, and had encountered a most favorable disposition on the part of the

illustrious statesman, Mr. Blaine, who had motives of high policy easy to understand."

Moreover, on December 17, 1890, Minister Mendonça, before leaving Brazil for Washington, wrote to Barbosa that if the Democrats returned to power they would alter the tariff, but would scarcely extend to other countries "the advantages, as concerns sugar, which we alone are to enjoy to the exclusion of European colonies in America." The same gentleman, when again in Brazil in 1891, after the treaty had been ratified, and when there was much public dissatisfaction with it, wrote to Barbosa asking for a conference, and saying: "I believe that in the interview which I request I can prove to you the advantage we have won, and clearly vindicate my position in affirming to you that I had a promise from Mr. Blaine that no treaty should be made with Spain."

All this evidence puts beyond possibility of doubt the fact that Minister Mendonça did assure his Government that the United States would not, in case Brazil accepted the treaty, make a similar agreement with Spain or any European monarchy. "The question comes back, then," says the *Jornal do Commercio* in commenting upon Barbosa's letter, "to whether Mr. Blaine ever did make to Salvador de Mendonça the promises which he so repeatedly and emphatically said were made him. For our part, we are obliged to believe that our Minister told the truth, all the more so in view of the fact that two successive Governments have kept him at Washington." Now, we know this is a painful subject to the *Tribune*, and that it "closed the controversy" some months ago, after it had failed to obtain a denial from either Mr. Blaine or Mr. Mendonça. We also know how difficult is its position in an affair where Mr. Blaine is concerned, and how it has to suppress all news reflecting upon him, as it did the London *Times* despatch referred to above. Neither do we forget the muzzle it wears in virtue of being a member of the Administration—a muzzle which Commissioner Raum unfeelingly exhibited to a scoffing world the other day in Washington. It will remember that it sneered at our former evidence as being "private" and "confidential"; what has it to say about publications made in the journals of Brazil, over the names of ex-Ministers, seriously impugning the good faith and honor of our Government?

WALT WHITMAN.

WALT, or Walter, Whitman was born in West Hills, Long Island, on the 31st of May, 1819, and was educated in the public schools of Brooklyn and New York city. He afterwards learned printing, and worked at that trade in summer, teaching in winter. Later on he acquired a good deal of skill as a carpenter. For brief periods of his career he edited newspapers in New Orleans and on Long Island, and in 1847–48 he made long pedestrian tours through the United States, generally following the courses of the great Western rivers. He also made pedestrian explorations in Canada. His 'Leaves of Grass' was first published in 1855. During the war his brother was wounded on the battlefield, and he hastened to visit him in camp, becoming a volunteer army nurse, in which capacity he served for three years in Washington and in Virginia. His experiences are recorded in 'Drum-Taps' and other poems. Want of rest and nervous strain brought on a severe illness in 1864, from the effects of which he never fully recovered. In 1870 he published his 'Democratic Vistas.' From 1865 to 1874 he held a Government clerkship in Washington. In the latter year he was stricken by paralysis and retired to Camden, where he was gradually recovering when the sudden death of his mother in his presence caused a relapse, and he had remained in a crippled condition ever since, although until lately in generally fair health. His intellectual powers remained unaffected. In his prime Mr. Whitman had a magnificent physique, and to the last his presence was imposing, his white hair giving him a most venerable appearance in his later years. At times he felt the pinch of poverty, but his wants were few and simple, and he had friends who were always ready to contribute to the relief of his necessities. Among his published works may be mentioned 'Leaves of Grass,' 'Passage to India,' 'After All, Not to Create Only,' 'Two Rivulets,' 'Specimen Days and Collect,' 'November Boughs,' and 'Sands at Seventy.'

It has been the curious experience of Walt Whitman to find his inspiration almost wholly in his own country, and his admirers almost wholly in another. The rhythmic apostle of democracy, he has had, in the words of one of his stanch admirers, "absolutely no popular following" at home; and the gradual increase of his circle of special readers, even here, has been largely due to the class he least approves—those who desire to be English even in their fads. The same thing was true, years ago, of "Joaquin" Miller; but while he has gradually faded from view, the robuster personality of Whitman has held its own, aided greatly by his superb physique, by the persistent and somewhat exaggerated panegyrics on his services as an army nurse, and by that rise in pecuniary value which awaits all books classed by the book-venders as "facetiæ" or "curiosa." All this constitutes a combination quite unique. To many the mere fact of foreign admiration is a sufficient proof of the greatness of an American; they have never outgrown that pithy proverb, the result of the ripe experience of a young Philadelphian of twenty-one, that "a foreign country is a kind of contemporaneous posterity." But when we remember that the scene of this particular fame was England, and that it was divided with authors now practically forgotten—with "Artemus Ward" and "Josh Billings" and the author of 'Sam Slick'; when we remember how readily the same recognition is still given in England to any American who misspells or makes fritters of English, or who enters literature, as Lady Morgan's Irish hero entered a drawing-room, by throwing a back somersault in at the door—the judicious American will by no means regard this experience as final. It must be remembered, too, that all the malodorous portions of Whitman's earlier poems were avowedly omitted from the first English edition of his works; he was expurgated and fumigated in a way that might have excited the utmost contempt from M. Guy de Maupassant, or indeed from himself; and so the first presentation of this poet to his English admirers showed him, as it were, clothed and in his right mind. Again, it is to be remembered that much of the vague sentiment of democracy in his works, while wholly picturesque and novel to an Englishman—provided he can tolerate it at all—is to us comparatively trite and almost conventional; it is the rhythmic or semi-rhythmic reproduction of a thousand Fourth of July orations, and as we are less and less inclined to hear this oft-told tale in plain prose, we are least of all tempted to read it in what is not even plain verse. There is, therefore, nothing remarkable in the sort of parallax which exhibits the light of Whitman's fame at so different an angle in his own country and in England.

But while an English fame does not of itself prove an American to be great—else were we all suing for Buffalo Bill's social favor as if we were members of the British aristocracy—it certainly does not prove that he is not great; and it is for us to view Whitman as dispassionately as if he were an author all our own, like Whittier or Parkman, of whom an English visitor will tell you, with labored politeness, that he has a vague impression of having heard of him. The most distinct canonization ever afforded to Whitman on our own shores was when Mr. Stedman placed him among the *Dii majores* of our literature by giving him a separate chapter in his 'Poets of America'; and though it is true that this critic had already cheapened that honor by extending it to Bayard Taylor, yet this was obviously explained in part by personal friendship, and partly by the wish not to give New England too plainly the lion's share of fame. Possibly this last consideration may have had influence in the case of Whitman also; but it is impossible not to see in this chapter a slightly defensive and apologetic tone, such as appears nowhere else in the book. Mr. Stedman's own sense of form is so strong, his instinct of taste so trustworthy, and his love-poetry in particular of so high and refined a quality, that he could not possibly approach Whitman with the sort of predetermined sympathy that we might expect, for instance, from Ella Wheeler Wilcox or Amélie Rives.

There seems to be a provision in nature for a class of poets who appear at long intervals, and who resolutely confine themselves to a few very simple stage properties, and substitute mere cadence for form. There is, or was, an Ossian period, when simple enthusiasts sat up at night and read until they were sleepy about the waving of the long grass on the blasted heath, and the passing of the armed warrior and the white-bosomed maiden. Ossian is not much read now, but Napoleon Bonaparte admired him and Goethe studied him. Neither is Tupper now much cultivated; but men not very old assure us that his long, rambling lines were once copied by the page into extract-books, and that he was welcomed as relieving mankind from the tiresome restraints of verse. It would be a great mistake, doubtless, to class Whitman with Ossian on the one side, or Tupper on the other; but it would be a still greater error to overlook the fact that the mere revolt against the tyranny of form has been made again and again, before him, and that without securing immortal fame to the author of the experiment.

It is no uncommon thing, moreover, for the fiercest innovating poets to revert to the ranks of order before they die—as Wordsworth gradually became conventional and Swinburne decent. Whitman has abstained, through all his later publications, from those proclamations of utter nudity which Emerson called "priapism," in connection with 'Leaves of Grass';

and is far more compressed and less simply enumerative than when he began. True poetry is not merely the putting of thoughts into words, but the putting of the best thoughts into the best words; it gives us, as in painting, the *O* of Giotto; it secures for us what Ruskin calls "the perfection and precision of the instantaneous line." It fires a rifle-bullet instead of a shower of bird-shot; it culls the very best phrase out of language, instead of throwing a dozen epithets to see if one may chance to stick. For example, Emerson centres his "Problem" in "a cowled churchman"; Browning singles out an individual bishop or rabbi, as the case may be; but Whitman enumerates "priests on the earth, oracles, sacrificers, brahmins, sabians, llamas, monks, muftis, exhorters." In "The Song of the Broad-Axe" there are nineteen successive lines beginning with the word "Where"; in "Salut au Monde!" eighteen beginning with "I see." In "I sing the body electric," he specifies in detail "Wrists and wrist-joints, hand, palm, knuckles, thumb, fore-finger, finger-joints, finger-nails," with thirteen more lines of just such minutiæ. In the same poem he explains that he wishes his verses to be regarded as "Man's, woman's, child's, youth's, wife's, husband's, mother's, father's, young man's, young woman's poems." It is like bringing home a sackful of pebbles from the beach and asking you to admire the collected heap as a fine sea view. But it is to be noticed that these follies diminish in his later works: the lines grow shorter; and though he does not acquiesce in rhyme, he occasionally accepts a rhythm so well defined that it may be called conventional, as in the fine verses entitled "Darest thou now, O Soul?" And it is a fact which absolutely overthrows the whole theory of poetic structure or structurelessness implied in Whitman's volumes, that his warmest admirers usually place first among his works the poem on Lincoln's death, "My Captain," which comes so near to recognized poetic methods that it actually falls into rhyme.

Whitman can never be classed, as Spinoza was by Schleiermacher, among "God-intoxicated" men; but he was early intoxicated with two potent draughts—himself and his country:

"One's self I sing, a simple separate person,
Yet utter the word Democratic, the word En Masse."

With these words his collected poems open, and to these he has always been true. They have brought with them a certain access of power, and they have also implied weakness; on the personal side leading to pruriency and on the national side to rant. For some reason or other our sexual nature is so ordained that it is very hard for a person to dwell much upon it, even for noble and generous purposes, without developing a tendency to morbidness; the lives of philanthropists and reformers have sometimes shown this, and when one insists on it for purposes of self-glorification, the danger is greater. Whitman did not escape the danger; it is something that he outgrew it; and it is possible that if let entirely alone, which could hardly be expected, he might have dropped "Children of Adam," and some of the more nauseous passages in other effusions, from his published works. One thing which has always accentuated the seeming grossness of the sensual side of his works has been the entire absence of that personal and ideal side of passion which can alone elevate and dignify it. Probably no poet of equal pretensions was ever so entirely wanting in the sentiment of individual love; not only has he given us no love-poem, in the ordinary use of that term, but it is as difficult to conceive of his writing one as of his chanting a serenade beneath the window of his mistress. His love is the blunt, undisguised attraction of sex to sex, the physical appetite for the requisite quantity of white flesh; and whether this flesh belongs to a goddess or a street-walker, a Queensbury or a handmaid, is to him absolutely unimportant. This not only separates him from the poets of thoroughly ideal emotion, like Poe, but from those, like Rossetti, whose passion, though it may incarnate itself in the body, is inseparable from the very profoundest and most subtle yearnings of the spirit.

In preaching this gospel of unbounded self-indulgence—or, as his admirers would prefer to call it, self-expression—he has constantly made his own personality, and especially his own fine physical manhood, a factor. It is therefore fair to introduce this factor into criticism, in a way that would be wholly unfair if we were dealing with an objective poet like Browning. Thus, in his poem of "Native Moments," Whitman says:

"Native moments—when you come upon me—ah, you are here now.
Give me now libidinous joys only.
Give me the drench of my passions, give me life coarse and rank.
To-day I go to consort with Nature's darlings; to-night, too.
I am for those who believe in loose delights; I share the midnight orgies of young men."

Much more has Whitman written to the same purpose, and with a bad influence—we speak from personal observation—on the lives of many young men; an influence that can scarcely be estimated. This passage is probably not among those extracts from Whitman which are now read for charitable purposes at Congregational rooms or in the parlors of Episcopal churches; but it represents what the poet would once have recognized as the vital principle of his muse. And he constantly represents himself as the living example of what he sings:

"I now, thirty-seven years old, in perfect health, begin,
Hoping not to cease till death."

This is his theory, this his invited test. No matter, for the present, what the moralist would say of the theory; what the physiologist would say of it is, that a man who undertakes to act upon it will end in bankruptcy, will not live out his life; that those who thus claim to be Nature's darlings end as Nature's warnings; that paralysis, insanity, premature old age are the retribution for "the drench of the passions" in youth. Was there ever a sadder personal commentary on all this than when we find this same poet, who at thirty-seven exulted in his manly strength, addressing school-children at fifty-five from the point of view of extreme age ("An Old Man's Thoughts of School"), and having constant appeals made for him, when hardly past the prime of life, as for one broken down by years and infirmities? Compare this premature senility of the poet of "life coarse and rank," with the old age of the chaster poets—with Bryant's eighty-four clean and wholesome years, with Whittier's, almost a life-long invalid, and yet busy and useful when eighty-four years are told. It is the easy device of admirers to attribute this want of physical staying power to Whitman's army services, but the land is full of men who encountered during the civil war, and without boasting, an ordeal of bodily exposures to which those of Whitman were as nothing, in that comparatively sheltered position which he chose for himself, and who are still in health and vigor. We have no wish to dwell on the bodily calamities of any one, but where a man deliberately invites the personal test, and where the application of that test points a moral for coming generations, it would be cowardly to shrink from its recognition.

On purely poetic grounds it must be said of Whitman that he has in a high degree that measure of the ideal faculty which Emerson conceded to Margaret Fuller: he has "lyric glimpses." Rarely constructing anything, he is yet gifted in phrases, in single cadences, in single wayward strains as from an Æolian harp. It constantly happens that the titles or catch-words of his poems are better than the poems themselves; as we sometimes hear it said in praise of a clergyman that he has beautiful texts. "Proud Music of the Storm," "When Lilies Last in Door-yard Bloomed," and others, will readily occur; and if they were sometimes borrowed or duplicated, as "The Sobbing of the Bells" from Poe, it is no matter. Often, on the other hand, they are inflated, as "Chanting the Square Deific," or affected and feeble, as "Eidolons." One of the most curiously un-American traits in a poet professedly so national is his way of interlarding foreign, and especially French, phrases, to a degree that recalls the fashionable novels of the last generation, and gives an incongruous effect comparable only to Theodore Parker's description of an African chief seen by some one at Sierra Leone—"With the exception of a dress-coat, his Majesty was as naked as a pestle." In the opening lines, already quoted from his collected volume (ed. 1881), Whitman defines "the word Democratic, the word En Masse"; and everywhere French phrases present themselves. The vast sublimity of night on the prairies only suggests to him "how plenteous! how spiritual! how *résumé*," whatever that may mean; he talks of "*Mélange* mine own, the seen and the unseen"; writes poems "with reference to *ensemble*"; says "the future of the States I *harbinge* glad and sublime"; and elsewhere, "I blow through my *embouchures* my loudest and gayest for them." He is "the extolled of *amies*," meaning apparently mistresses; and says that neither youth pertains to him "nor *delicatesse*." Phrases like these might be multiplied indefinitely, and when he says, "No dainty *dolce affettuoso* I," he seems vainly to disclaim being exactly what he is. He cannot even introduce himself to the audience without borrowing a foreign word—"I, Walt Whitman, one of the roughs, a kosmos"—and really stands in this respect on a plane no higher than that of those young girls at boarding-school who commit French phrases to memory in order to use them in conversation and give a fancied tone of good society.

But after all, the offence, which is a trivial affectation in a young girl, has a deeper foundation in a man who begins his literary career at thirty-seven. The essential fault of Whitman's poetry was well pointed out by a man of more heroic nature and higher genius, Lanier, who defined him as a dandy. Of all our poets, he is really the least simple, the most meretricious; and this is the reason why the honest consciousness of the classes whom he most celebrates, the drover, the teamster, the soldier, has never been reached by his songs. He talks of labor as one who has never really labored; his 'Drum-Taps' proceed from one who has never personally responded to the tap of the drum. This is his fatal and insurmountable defect; and it is because his own countrymen instinctively recognize this, and foreigners do not, that his following is mainly abroad, not at home. But it is also true that he has, in a fragmentary and disappointing way, some of the high ingredients of a poet's nature: a keen eye, a ready sympathy, a strong touch, a

vivid but not shaping imagination. In his cyclopædia of epithets, in his accumulated directory of details, in his sandy wastes of iteration, there are many scattered particles of gold—never sifted out by him, never abundant enough to pay for the sifting, yet unmistakable gold. He has something of the turgid wealth, the self-conscious and mouthing amplitude of Victor Hugo, and much of his broad, vague, indolent desire for the welfare of the whole human race; but he has none of Hugo's structural power, his dramatic or melodramatic instinct, and his occasionally terse and brilliant condensation. It is not likely that he will ever have that place in the future which is claimed for him by his English admirers or even by the more cautious endorsement of Mr. Stedman; for, setting aside all other grounds of criticism, he has phrase, but not form—and without form there is no immortality.

BARANTE'S MEMOIRS.

PARIS, March 15, 1892.

THE second volume of the 'Souvenirs du Baron de Barante,' which has just appeared, is even more interesting than the first. We left M. de Barante, in 1813, at Nantes, where he had been sent as prefect; in this capacity he had to organize the new levies ordered by the Emperor. A great coalition was formed against France: Prussia had joined Russia, and even Sweden had entered into the league. Barante tells a curious anecdote about Bernadotte. In September, 1813, Talma came to Nantes and gave a few performances. He told M. de Barante that the famous Mademoiselle Georges, who had left France a few years before to go to St. Petersburg, passed through Sweden on her return to France. Bernadotte, knowing that she was on her way to Paris, where she certainly would see Napoleon, gave her a letter for him. Mademoiselle Georges had the letter sewn in her stays, and did not take it out till she was alone with the Emperor. He read it, and, speaking to himself, said: "It is too late." Mademoiselle Georges knew nothing more; but M. de Barante is not wrong in inferring that Bernadotte hesitated much before joining the coalition, and never was a safe ally of the Powers leagued against France.

The levies of Napoleon had already exhausted France; they were made in virtue of *sénatus-consultes*.

"The Senate gave the Emperor, January 10, 1813, 100,000 men from the national guard, 100,000 from the conscripts of 1810, 1811, and 1812, who had not been called to service, and 150,000 of the conscription of 1814; in October, 1813, 280,000 more from the classes of 1812, 1813, and 1814; and a month afterwards, 100,000 from the classes anterior to 1813, back to the year 1803. These pitiless levies, made without any drafting, without any deliberation by the Councils of Revision, the requisitions of horses, for which no credits were open to me, so that I could not pay them—such was now the habitual occupation of my days. There was no longer any law or any rule. Though the administration could act as arbitrarily as it liked, I tried to exercise my powers with equity and mildness."

Mildness, humanity, were the chief qualities of M. de Barante; and they were not purely negative: he did not hesitate sometimes to risk his position or to incur responsibilities in order to do some good. He is sincere when he tells us that nothing in his administration at Nantes gave him so much pleasure as when he succeeded in saving the lives of two conscripts who were on the point of being executed because there had been some brawl between conscripts and gendarmes.

M. de Barante does not give the history of the great events of 1814; he contents himself with telling what came under his personal observation. His judgments on the men of the time are very interesting. Read this, for instance:

"Louis XVIII., as belonging to the House of France, considered himself of a race superior to all the reigning families. He assumed a sort of patronizing and aristocratic superiority towards all the other sovereigns. The Emperor Alexander was for him only a cadet of the House of Holstein. He was cold with the Czar and kept him at a distance. The Emperor wished to marry his sister, the Grand Duchess Anne, to the Duc de Berry; the King feigned not to understand his overtures on the subject. He did not even confer on him the Order of the Holy Spirit, which he had some notion of getting. M. de Talleyrand, either because he wished to play the courtier, or because he already contemplated an alliance of France with England against Russia, was careful not to give other advice. The Emperor Alexander left Paris highly discontented."

M. de Barante judges Talleyrand with much acuteness; he describes well his liberal and constitutional tendencies, his love for the great combinations of politics, as well as his laziness, his hatred of details. Talleyrand had at first wished Louis XVIII. to keep on with the tricolor cockade; he soon saw that he had expected too much from a King who signed his decrees "from the eighteenth year of my reign." Long afterwards, speaking to M. de Barante of the hopes which he had cherished in 1814, and which had been disappointed: "I must repeat," said he, "the word of Madame de Créqui: This is not the son I had in my head."

The Abbé de Montesquieu, one of the framers of the *Charte*, "had no very fixed political principles. . . . His love of liberty did not go beyond the States of Languedoc or the provincial assemblies; the Restoration was for him the *ancien régime* becoming reasonable. More of a *grand seigneur* than a courtier, he had the monarchical superstitions. Nobody would have more frankly told the King what he believed was the truth, having little of that civility of the ante-chamber into which the old nobility had fallen. But, this duty once accomplished, the will of the King became sacred to him."

It is impossible better to describe the state of mind of the best part of the French Legitimists—a state of mind which has always persisted since, notwithstanding many changes and revolutions. "To be in any sort of opposition to the King seemed to him a moral dereliction." Barante was amazed at seeing how the new France, the France of the Revolution and the Empire, was unknown to the *émigrés;* it was to them *terra incognita.* All the *émigrés* were not from foreign parts: there were some who had, so to speak, emigrated to their provinces. The new Chancellor, M. Dambray, "lived for twenty years in Normandy, honored on all sides, respected in his province, charitable, just, affable, yet foreign to all; never going to Paris, without any relation with the new men, not knowing the new laws, not reading a new book, or, it was said, even a newspaper; spending his days with country neighbors, and his evenings in playing piquet with his *curé* and his aunt."

We need not give the portrait of Beugnot; he has described himself better than anybody could do in his invaluable Memoirs (a book, by the by, which has become very rare). Barante speaks of Baron Louis, the first Minister of Finance of the Restoration, with much respect; M. Thiers, who pretended to be a great financier, always said that he had learned everything from Baron Louis. The Duke of Angoulême made a journey to Nantes, and Barante wished that the Prince should not appear to the populace surrounded by the Vendéens alone. His task was not as difficult as he expected:

"Not remembering the *ancien régime*, he little regretted it. This equality in obedience, this suppression of the aristocracy, this regularity of the administration and of the law—all this suited him well enough. A sort of instinct or confused reflection advised him that it was a good foundation for an absolute power. He did not feel the repugnance of the old *émigrés* to the imperial régime. If his impressions could ever have been lively, I would have said that it made his mouth water to hear how, in great and in small things alike, was exercised the authority of the government which had given way to the Restoration. I found in him no gratitude, no affection, no preference for any opinion, for any party, for any class. In his mind, he was under obligations to nobody. The *émigrés* had done nothing for royalty and now embarrassed it; the Vendéens had never succeeded and now wished to be recompensed as if they had."

The picture is not flattering, but bears the impress of truth.

Barante was in his prefecture at Nantes when Napoleon returned from Elba. The Duke of Bourbon came to Angers for the purpose of raising the west of France against the Emperor. M. Louis de la Trémoille came also with an undefined mission. When Napoleon reached Paris, M. d'Autichamp, one of the Vendéen chiefs, merely advised the Duc de Bourbon to leave France. The Prince went only to Beaupréau, in the Bocage; some of his friends still wanted to see if anything could be tried. It was with difficulty that twenty peasants were found to mount guard at his door. Having received a passport, the Duc de Bourbon went away and embarked for England.

Barante sent his resignation to Paris as soon as he heard that the imperial authority was reëstablished in the capital. He left directly for Barante with his wife and children; he regularly received news from his friend the Comte de Montlosier, whose letters are given in this new volume. In May, 1815, he lost his patience and went to Paris; he found the capital without any deep attachment to any cause, feeling that everything was uncertain and provisional. He saw Benjamin Constant almost every day at Madame Récamier's; they had both been intimate with Madame de Staël, and had little to learn about each other. They were both Liberals and partisans of a Constitutional Government.

The correspondence of M. de Barante with his wife and his friends during the eventful year 1815 is in the highest degree interesting. When Louis XVIII. returned to Paris after Waterloo, he made up what was called a Constitutional Cabinet, with Fouché at its head. Barante wrote at the time a memoir "On the Political and Constitutional Institutions of France, such as the King wishes to establish definitely," at the request of M. Pasquier, the new Home Minister, who had chosen him to be Secretary-General of the Interior. The position was an important one, as he had to correspond with all the prefects and to direct their policy.

When the elections took place for the Chambers, Barante was elected in the Loire-Inférieure and in the Puy-de-Dôme. He had been prefect in the first department, and Auvergne was his native province. The Duc de Richelieu formed a Cabinet after the retirement of Talleyrand. Barante renders full justice to his rare qualities, *cum grano salis:* "In short," says he, "he had the aspect of a *grand seigneur*,

and a loyal, reasonable, honest man, which seduced and made you respect him. Yet the limitations of his mind and the inconsistencies of his character were speedily perceived."

Richelieu was very independent in character; he had once a conversation with the Comte d'Artois, and reminded him that when he took power, the Count had given him his word that he would support his Cabinet. Monsieur answered, "But ——" The Duc de Richelieu did not let him finish his phrase; he bowed, retired, shut the door with violence, went to his house, where M. Pasquier was waiting for him, and flung himself into a chair. M. Pasquier asked him what had happened. "Well, I have just seen a —— who does not know what a word of honor means!"

The second volume of these souvenirs ends with 1821; it is to be hoped that we shall soon have another. The work forms a valuable addition to the original documents concerning the period of the Restoration.

Correspondence.

A "MOCK CHARONDAS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Probably the reason why the law of Charondas, providing for the instruction of the sons of citizens in letters at the public expense, has been so "strangely unnoticed by historians," is that Bentley proved, in his immortal 'Dissertation on the Epistles of Phalaris' (pp. 358–378), that what Diodorus Siculus (b. xii. §12) tells about Charondas and his laws is entirely untrustworthy. The laws attributed by him to this "mock Charondas," as Bentley styles him, were quite different from those known to Aristotle as his. This educational law, accordingly, stands upon no better footing than the one reported by Diodorus (§17), that whoever proposed any change in legislation must do it with a halter around his neck, until the people should decide by adopting it, or not, whether he was to live or die—or the other one (§13), that whoever, by marrying a second wife, gave a stepmother to his children, should be held in disgrace, as the author of his own misfortunes.

Truly yours, Henry W. Haynes.

Boston, March 25, 1892.

[Our chief aim in the "Note" to which Prof. Haynes takes exception was to "rebuke the self-conceit of those who hold that the education of all at the charge of all is an idea born in our own time or country." The quotation we translated from Diodorus proves that idea to have been at least as old as the Christian era. Thus much is clear, even if Diodorus credited the law to the wrong Charondas—for two legislators bore that name—or if all he says of the law was a figment of his own. But if, as Weber remarks, this law, with others ascribed to Charondas, had been moulded into metre and handed down by tradition long before the era of Diodorus, then the quotation proves our point still better. Bentley would not have denied this.

It seemed "strange" to us that Grote said nothing about the school-law ascribed to Charondas, because he devotes a page to another law of his (iv., p. 418). If he judged the school-law to be erroneously considered the work of Charondas, it was natural to expect he would have said so—and the more as its distinctive idea marks an epoch in popular education. It was worth a word.

In the judgment of George Weber—whose 'Universal History' is one of the latest standard authorities—the education law taxing all for all was really derived by southern Italian and Sicilian cities from some ancient Charondas. Accordingly he gives a list of nine Charondasian enactments, the last of which is that "all children shall attend schools supported by the State." Another of the nine is that about second marriages, which will seem less absurd to Mr. Haynes when he notices the reason for it. He who married a second wife was no longer eligible to office, as it was presumed that he who had introduced discord into his family would treat his country no better. The other law to which Mr. Haynes objects, that "whoever proposed any change in legislation must do it with a halter around his neck, and be strung up at once if his proposal were rejected," is an enactment worthy of all acceptation. It ought to be at once adopted in all our States, and all the people will say, Amen! Laws characterized by what may be called "poetical" justice have been common even in modern times—notably in the German Empire. They were naturally still more common in eras when laws were themselves poems.—Ed. Nation.]

MORE NAMES OF DANISH WRITERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Prof. Bronk's letter on Danish literature, published by you on March 24, is so timely and sympathetic that it seems ungrateful in a lover of northern art to take exception to any part of it. My criticism, however, refers not to any fault of commission, but simply to one of omission. While Prof. Bronk's list of contemporary Danish writers does not pretend to be complete, it should, I think, have included Ernst von der Recke, one of the sweetest and most powerful of modern dramatists; Einar Christiansen, a younger but hardly less talented lyrical poet; Erik Bögh, the genial champion of the old school; Richardt, the uncrowned poet laureate of Denmark; Karl Gjellerup, the first Wagner critic of Scandinavia; Herman Bang, the eccentric but brilliant novelist; and last but not least, Carl Ploug, the sweet-voiced singer of northern lays. Besides these more prominent names, there is a host of clever *raconteurs* and critics, many of whose writings are worthy of being clothed in an English dress.

Prof. Bronk's explanation of our ignorance of Drachmann, on the ground of his extreme nationality, may be well founded as regards that writer's earlier works, but it does not hold good for his latest novel, 'Forskrevet' (Pledged), in my opinion one of the most powerful productions of modern literature. Karl Gjellerup's 'Minna,' too, is as full of interest to a foreigner as to a Dane. The recent enterprise of the Messrs. Appleton in introducing Dutch imaginative literature to English readers ought to prove the feasibility of Prof. Bronk's suggestion of a similar attempt with the writings of Young Denmark.

Yours respectfully,

Daniel Kilham Dodge.

Columbia College, March 27, 1892.

A FOURTH-CLASS APPOINTMENT IN SOUTHERN MARYLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The incident referred to in this communication was related to me by a gentleman of this city only a short time ago. I told him the matter ought to be made public, and asked him to obtain for me the facts in writing. He did so, and I have in my possession a letter from his friend living in one of our southern counties, who is a Republican. This gentleman does not wish his name published, but is ready, if necessary, to substantiate the facts which I quote from his letter:

"When President Harrison came into office, our Congressman (who was a Republican) had our Post-office removed from ——'s store, the most convenient location in ——ville, and on the railroad, where it was carefully attended to, to a store inconveniently situated, where they were careless in their attention to the mails, and where liquors are sold—not *in the room* where the Post-office is kept, but down stairs. This makes our Post-office frequently unfit for a child or woman to go in to get the mail, because white men and negroes come from down stairs in different states of drunkenness and loaf around the stove in the Post-office. They are often profane and sometimes quarrelsome.

"Having obtained a letter of introduction to Postmaster-General Wanamaker, accompanied by a gentleman from this neighborhood I called on Mr. Wanamaker in Washington. He received us very kindly, and said the Post-office should certainly be removed to some place where liquors were not sold on the premises. He said Mr. Clarkson had the management of the fourth-class postmasters and that he would take us right into Mr. Clarkson's office, introduce us, and request him to attend to it at once. When we got to Mr. Clarkson's office, very unfortunately, he was out at lunch. Mr. Wanamaker said it was impossible to give us any more of his time, but if we would call upon Mr. Clarkson after lunch and explain the thing to him, he had no doubt that he would alter things at once. We called, and, after keeping us waiting several hours, he informed us, in anything but a courteous tone and manner, that it was no use to bring tales against postmasters to him; that if we had any grievance, we must put it down on paper and sign it, then there was something tangible to go upon; but that he did not want to listen to just any tale any one chose to bring. He had no time for that. I offered to write it down if he would supply me with pen and paper, which he did. I gave three distinct reasons for wishing the office moved: (1.) Its distance from the railroad, and its inconvenient location. (2.) That liquors were sold in the same building in which the Post-office was located. (3.) That the office was very carelessly attended to.

"We both signed our names to this paper and handed it to Mr. Clarkson himself. He read it and said, 'Very well, I will send an inspector down in a few weeks, and if he finds things as you say, there shall be a change.'

"In three or four weeks after this interview the inspector came down. He sent for me, and said that as for my first reason, the office was within the number of rods from the railroad allowed by law, and that we must put up with its inconvenient location; that we could not expect to have everything just as we wanted it; then, that for a Post-office in a saloon it was very well arranged, and that liquors were hardly an objection, as they were sold down stairs. I reminded him that that did not prevent people under their influence coming up stairs, and asked him if it was not against the law to have a post-office in a place where liquors were sold. He said, 'Why, certainly it is,' and took from his pocket a copy of that section of the law and read it to me, adding that 'if that were enforced, half the post-offices in the South would have to be closed'; and asked me if I would be willing to do without one at ——ville. I told him no, and that argument had no force here, as we had another

place for it that was satisfactory in every respect. He asked, 'Where?' I said at ——'s store, where it had been so satisfactory hitherto. But he said, 'He is a Democrat.' I said, 'He votes that ticket, but is no politician.' The Inspector replied, '*When it comes to a choice between a Democrat and a saloon, the saloon will get it every time.*' Then in answer to my third reason, he required me to give him the particulars of their carelessness, etc., which I did. He said I had good reasons for complaint on that head; that he would reprimand the Postmaster and threaten him, and he had no doubt that things would improve in that respect [as they have]. Then I said to him, 'I suppose there is no chance of a change of place for our Post-office.' He said he thought not, unless our Congressman, who had it put where it is, would request Mr. Clarkson to make a change, which he was not likely to do. I have heard nothing more since."

Comment upon this scandal is unnecessary. Trusting that you will publish the statement in the cause of civil-service reform, I am

Yours truly, B. P. M.

BALTIMORE, MD., March 23, 1892.

WAGES AND THE TARIFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Enclosed please find clipping from the Meriden *Daily Republican*. I would like to know if the facts stated in regard to Mr. Dolge's factory are true, and if so, if they are not an unanswerable argument for a protective tariff.—Very truly yours,

A TRUTH-SEEKER.

MERIDEN, CONN., March 30, 1892.

[Enclosure.]

Rev. Mr. Griffin has doubtless read the challenge of Congressman McMillin of Tennessee, made in the course of that gentleman's speech in the tariff debate, defying any Northern Republican "to give the name of a single individual in the woollen industry whose wages have increased since the passage of the McKinley Bill." He got an answer. One of the employees of Alfred Dolge promptly wrote that the six or seven hundred hands in Mr. Dolge's factory had their wages increased 12 per cent. and their hours of labor reduced from ten to nine and one-half in January, 1891, "because of the McKinley Bill," as their employer explicitly stated. In January of the present year they had their wages again increased 10 per cent., Mr. Dolge again stating that it was "because of the McKinley Bill." He is not getting one cent more for his goods than he did before the McKinley tariff was enacted, but he is making them in immensely larger quantities and consequently at a more economical rate of production.

[The reasons why we cannot take this statement of facts (supposing them to be correctly reported) as a logical argument in favor of protection are three in number: First, it is not shown that Mr. Dolge's action was a necessary consequence of protection. As the story is here told it was mere benevolence on his part; another man might be equally benevolent under free trade. Second, it is not shown that the Dolge case is the usual experience under the McKinley tariff. If there have been more decreases than increases of wages since the 1st of October, 1890, then the case cited is not representative. We do not attempt to pass upon that question, though Congressman Crosby of Massachusetts was able to cite, in a recent speech in the House, forty-nine cases of reductions of wages occurring last year. We say merely that the case cited falls short of being "an unanswerable argument for a protective tariff." Third, an increase of wages in all the protected factories in the United States due to the tariff would not be such an argument. Senator Sherman once said in a speech opposing an increase of the tariff that the effect of it would be to raise wages in protected employments higher than in unprotected employments, and this he considered to be essentially unjust.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

DODD, MEAD & Co. announce two new volumes in their "Makers of America" series—a Life of Charles Sumner, by Anna L. Dawes; and a Life of Columbus, by Charles Kendall Adams. They also promise 'The Art of Entertaining,' by Mrs. M. E. W. Sherwood; and 'Prince Serebryani,' an historical novel by Count Alexis Tolstoi, translated by Jeremiah Curtin.

Prof. J. H. Patton's 'Concise History of the American People' is to be brought out in a new revised and enlarged edition, in two volumes, bearing the new title, 'Four Hundred Years of American History.' Fords, Howard & Hulbert are the publishers.

Another Columbian announcement of interest is 'The Story of the Discovery of the New World by Columbus,' by Frederick Saunders of the Astor Library. Thomas Whittaker will publish it.

Damrell & Upham, Boston, bring out 'The Ethics of Music,' lectures before the Philadelphia Musical Academy by Miss Edith V. Eastman.

The Cupples Co. of the same city will speedily publish 'The House of Cromwell, and the Story of Dunkirk: a genealogical history of the descendants of the Protector, with anecdotes and letters,' by James Waylen.

'Materialism and the Modern Physiology of the Nervous System,' by William H. Thomson, and 'The Story of Sicily,' by the late Prof. Freeman, are among the announcements of the Putnams.

The second volume of the 'Memorial History' of the city of New York, edited by James Grant Wilson, is now in the printer's hands, and is expected to appear in May.

Harper & Bros. are soon to publish 'The Kansas Conflict,' by Charles Robinson, formerly Governor of Kansas. They also announce a new edition of Hardy's 'Tess of the D'Urbervilles,' revised and expanded by the author.

Several reprints lie upon our table, among them two editions of 'Rasselas,' one issued by Leach, Shewell & Sanborn, in their "Students' Series of English Classics," edited by Prof. F. N. Scott, and the other by the Putnams as vol. 36 of their tasteful "Knickerbocker Nuggets"; 'Select Essays of Macaulay,' five in number and all literary, edited by Samuel Thurber (Boston: Allyn & Bacon); Milton's "Samson Agonistes," in the Pitt Press Series (Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan), with introduction, notes, glossary, and indexes, by A. Wilson Verity; 'Political Pamphlets,' being the fourth volume in the Pocket Library of English Literature (Macmillan), edited by George Saintsbury and comprising the more famous writings in that sort by Defoe, Swift, Burke, Sydney Smith, Cobbett, and Scott; 'Horae Sabbaticae,' two volumes made up of contributions by Sir James F. Stephen to the *Saturday Review* (Macmillan); and two volumes in the Brantwood edition of Ruskin's works, 'The Eagle's Nest,' and 'The Crown of Wild Olives' (Charles E. Merrill & Co.). We may also dismiss with brief mention here the two most recent volumes issued by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, in their "Masterpieces of Foreign Authors" series—namely, 'The Thoughts of Novalis,' edited and translated by M. J. Hope, and 'The Comedies of Carlo Goldoni,' edited with an introduction by Helen Zimmern.

B. Westermann & Co. send us a copy of the final revision of the German Bible. The "Probe-Bibel" was issued in 1883, with the request that all scholars interested would suggest emendations; the present version is put forth by a committee of the evangelical "Kirchenconferenz," and presumably represents the consensus of German scholarship.

Mr. Frank M. Etting's 'Hall of Independence,' an historical account of the old State House of Pennsylvania, has gone into a second edition, with some additions (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates). A volume in which local interest has not in a similar way become general, is 'Newburgh, her Institutions, Industries, and Leading Citizens' (Newburgh, N. Y.: Ritchie & Hull).

In her 'Love-Letters of a Worldly Woman' (Harpers), Mrs. W. K. Clifford gives us, in the form of correspondence, glimpses of the love-affairs, and the ideas of marriage and life, of three women who sometimes make the reader suspect that they are scarcely human, to say nothing of "worldly." However, a good deal of thought and suggestiveness has got into the book, and many of the experiences it portrays are more typical now than in the days of our grandmothers.

Four parts are promised of D. A. Gregg's 'Architectural Rendering in Pen and Ink' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.); the two now received are confined to the simplest problems and are by no means a complete treatise on pen-drawing, but a series of lessons in the making of architectural pictures, embodying the methods of an accomplished draughtsman and a teacher of experience. The directions are clear and technical, accompanying a set of outlines to be worked up by students according to example and precept. Mr. Gregg naturally insists first and last on the quality and use of the line. There is no exposition of principles or study of mere representation. But then, pen-drawing is the least literal of all graphic representations: all its processes are of suggestion and interpretation, not of imitation. It has, quite apart from its subject and likeness, a beauty or ugliness of its own that will intrude, and the draughtsman has got to master this, or he cannot make a good pen-drawing. His lines are there and insist on recognition; he must learn to use them attractively and economically, and this is what Mr. Gregg undertakes to teach. Thus far he deals only with plain and simply picturesque buildings; we shall be interested to see how he treats the higher and more difficult problems of monumental architecture, if he goes so far.

Perhaps nothing shows more strikingly the difference between the ancient world and the modern than the decay of symbolism. Symbolism is the natural refuge of primitive man in art, as pantheism, its correlative, is in religion; so that we find the earliest art, and through tradition ancient art, everywhere pervaded and in great measure shaped by it. But to the modern mind, absorbed in realism and in science, symbolism is a forgotten and unsympathetic thing; and one of the chief difficulties

that moderns have in comprehending ancient art lies in their want of sympathy and understanding of this phase of it. Mr. W. R. Lethaby, in 'Architecture, Mysticism, and Myth' (London: Percival & Co.), has gathered up some of the most general and widely diffused symbolisms that have found expression in old architecture, particularly those in which are imaged the structure or phenomena of the outer world, illustrating them by abundant quotation from many authorities. In a dozen well-written chapters he discusses the orientation of buildings, the dome of the sky, the gate of the sun, the starring of ceilings, the labyrinth, and like topics, leisurely, and without close analysis or much attempt at generalization. Such embodying of analogies, it must be said, has hardly had in architecture, where construction and use have from the beginning been the determining factors, the control that it has had in the decorative arts; nevertheless the idea of it pleased and more or less influenced the early builders, and is interesting to follow in the history of art. Mr. Lethaby's book contains a variety of curious reading, and if any means were provided for referring back to what is in it without rereading, it would be a storehouse of many interesting ideas.

Mr. W. Ward Fowler's 'Julius Cæsar and the Foundation of the Roman Imperial System' (Putnams) is a volume in the series of "Heroes of the Nations." It is intended for persons unfamiliar with the classics, and is well written, by a man who knows his subject, and may be heartily recommended as a useful guide. It is excellently printed, and its illustrations, except for the ridiculous head and tail-pieces, are drawn from trustworthy sources. But the binding cannot be praised for its beauty.

With the publication of the second volume of Mr. Warr's translation, English readers have complete Schwabe's latest revision of Teuffel's 'History of Roman Literature' (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan). The original is too well known to call for extended remark here. It has been well said of the book that it is *annales*, not *historia:* it is invaluable for the facts and is perfectly indispensable to scholars, but one looks into it in vain for any broad, philosophic treatment of either the intellectual or the literary development of Rome. For this, recourse must be had to other works. Mr. Warr has done his work well, and has added many useful English references. The only fault to be found with this volume is that in it, as we remarked of the first, we are too constantly reminded that it is a translation by his over-fidelity to the German original.

The third volume of Sir John Lubbock's "Modern Science Series" is 'The Oak, a Popular Introduction to Forest Botany,' by H. Marshall Ward (Appletons). In this little book is traced the life-history of an oak, beginning with the structure of an acorn, and passing through the structure and physiology of root and stem and leaf and blossom to acorn again. Very minute descriptions are given of the microscopic structure of the wood and bark, and many figures are inserted to illustrate what is said. The few original figures are clear, and easy to understand; but some of those which are borrowed from German publications are indistinct, especially as to the reference-letters along the margin. One chapter treats of the cultivation of the tree and of the diseases and injuries to which it is liable. In the last chapter it is revealed that the oak is, after all, only one of some 300 species of the genus; it is, however, the only British species, and therefore it is here treated as if it stood alone in its arboreal glory. The oaks of North America are many, and furnish various diversities in leaf, wood, bark, fruit, etc.; but all this must be already well understood by any one who has technical learning enough to read this 'Popular Introduction.'

Considering the number of Swiss who write French, the contributions of the Swiss to French literature are surprisingly few. Calvin, Voltaire, Rousseau, Sainte-Beuve, Amiel, and Scherer have all more or less connection with Geneva itself, or with Lausanne. Marc Monnier was a Swiss, and so is M. Cherbuliez. But the showing is not impressive, and any recruit is welcome. Doubly welcome is a recruit so well armed as M. Édouard Rod, and so skilled in the art. M. Rod is a professor at the University of Geneva; he is also a novelist, and he is a critic singularly acute in the discussion of literature from its ethical side, as becomes a fellow-townsman of Calvin and Rousseau. His volume of essays on 'Les Idées Morales du Temps Présent' has reached a third edition; and now he has written the volume on Stendhal for M. Jusserand's always admirable series, "Les Grands Écrivains Français." Although M. Rod does not seem to be aware of the biography of Henri Beyle, published in England twenty years or so ago by Mr. A. A. Paton, he has not neglected the diaries recently issued in Paris, and these have helped him in the portraying of a character sufficiently remarkable to be worthy of study and analysis. Stendhal, unsuccessful in his own generation, comforted himself by the assurance that he would be popular in 1880, and, oddly enough, it was about 1880 that the 'Chartreuse de Parme' and 'Le Rouge et le Noir' had their vogue, now already somewhat abated. M. Rod's book is a little cold-blooded, perhaps, but eminently careful, critical, sane.

The nine-sheet contoured map of the United States, prepared by the Geological Survey last summer, is now followed by a similar map on a single sheet and smaller scale. Like its predecessor, it is extremely convenient in looking up the approximate altitude of any part of the country, and will doubtless be made good use of by geographical publishers. An edition without lettering, to serve as a base map in various geological studies, presents an instructive picture of our country. Mr. Henry Gannett, geographer to the Survey, under whose direction these maps have been prepared, has just issued a second edition of his 'Dictionary of Altitudes' (Bulletin 76), in which the heights of all determined towns and mountains in the United States are given in alphabetical order —a very serviceable compilation. The topographical sheets of the different parts of the country, made in Mr. Gannett's division of the Geological Survey, are unfortunately not issued as yet for public distribution, but are prepared only to serve as base for geological coloring later on. A large number of these sheets have now been lithographed in excellent form, and embody a fund of geographical information nowhere else to be found.

The generous proportions and range of the first number of the *New World* (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) give promise of a distinct addition to theological literature of the quarterly genus, and demonstrate, as do the statistics of publishers, that the theological stage of human culture has taken much more time to pass away than Comte gave it.

The Senate of the University of St. Andrews has decided to admit women to the departments of theology, art, and sciences. The fact that this, the most venerable institution of learning in Scotland, opens its doors to women almost at the same time with Yale's decision that hereafter all postgraduate courses in her academic department shall be open to them, illustrates the international quality of advance movements. So also does the selection by the Royal University of Ireland of two women as cadet members of its faculty. Miss Mary Story, M.A., the new assistant examiner in French at the Royal University, entered it in 1882, carried off "honors" at successive examinations, until in 1889, at the University's M.A. examination, she scored first place—first-class honors in modern literature, and the £500 scholarship, the highest award in the gift of the University. This year her brilliant talents have received a by no means tardy recognition at the hands of her Alma Mater, through her appointment to a post not before held by a woman. Miss Margaret Kerr Johnston, M.A., the new assistant examiner in physics, with a scarcely less brilliant record, matriculated at the Royal University in 1884, and graduated as M.A. in 1888. Since then her post-graduate work at the College of Science, Dublin, has been of so high a grade as to secure from her former teachers the unusual recognition of an invitation to take a place in their ranks.

Our notice last week of G. Holden Pike's Life of Spurgeon was incorrect in saying that it contained no mention of the "Down-Grade Controversy." Spurgeon is quoted characteristically with reference to that matter on pages 338–9.

—The most notable article in the April *Atlantic*, on "Federal Taxation of Lotteries," by Judge Cooley, has already been noticed in these columns. Another interesting political subject is taken up by the writer of the unsigned short political papers, which have deservedly attracted wide attention. He writes a few pages in this number on our method of electing Congressmen, and advocates a simple modification of the reform proposed by Thomas Hare, by means of which representation must always be in proportion to the votes cast. The scheme has for its end what is commonly known as minority representation, and the argument is derived mainly from an analysis of the working of the present system, showing that each party suffers in turn from what the writer styles "the legal disfranchisement" of their voters. Thus in 1888 in thirteen States the Democrats polled 41 per cent. of the votes, but secured only 13 8-10 per cent. of the Representatives; they got 13 Congressmen when they were entitled to 41. In 1890 in thirteen States the Republicans polled 41 per cent. of the votes and got 10 per cent. of the Representatives; they got 12 Congressmen when they were entitled to 48. In 1888 the Democrats of seven States polled 38 5-10 per cent. of the vote and got no Congressmen, though they were entitled to 10. On such facts as these the writer affirms that our present system results not in representation, but in gross misrepresentation. The system he proposes avoids some of the difficulties of that advanced by Hare, and certainly presents the measure in a simplified form. A third interesting article urges the study of literature upon the ministry with a frankness and emphasis proportioned to what the author thinks the necessity of the case; and it must be said that he presents both the case and the remedy in a very lively way. "Some Notes on French Impressionism," by Cecilia Waern, describes the aim and work of a portion of modern French art in a sympathetic and illuminating

way. Of the remaining articles the characterization of Admiral Farragut deserves special mention.

—The *Century* contains a variety of articles of very even interest. The leading paper, upon "Our Common Roads," which is elaborately illustrated, is of most practical value; but those upon "The Mother and Birth-Place of Washington," "The Total Solar Eclipses of 1889," "Fishing for Pearls in Australia," and "The Ocean Postal Service," are all papers of real value. Artists and students of the fine arts will find in Mr. Edward Robinson's discussion, "Did the Greeks Paint their Sculptures?" an extended examination of this question, and can hardly resist the conclusions advanced on the affirmative side. It must remain doubtful how far this use of color was a tradition and should be regarded as an adverse but socially necessary condition under which the Greek love of pure form was obliged to find expression. The friends whom Wolcott Balestier has made by his writings will find an appreciative memorial sketch of him by Edmund Gosse, which will quicken regret for the early death of this talented American.

—*Harper's* makes a contribution to Shelley literature by the hand of Signor Biagi, who has searched the State archives of Lucca and Florence for the official documents relating to the burning of Shelley's body at Viareggio, and has succeeded in identifying the spot on which the cremation took place by the testimony of eight witnesses of the scene who still survive. The text of the paper is largely made up of the well-known passages from the recollections of Mary Shelley and of Trelawny, nor do the new documents add much, except in the way of minute detail, to what we already possess; but the identification of the locality is important for the sake of the memorial to be erected at Viareggio on the poet's centenary. It is interesting to learn that the burning of the body gave rise to an oath among the fishermen: "May I be burnt like the *Ingresi* [*sic*] at Du' Fossi!" One of the witnesses also said that it was believed "that when the ashes were taken to England, the dead came to life again." In the remainder of the number the most entertaining paper is Mr. Eugene Lawrence's account of the alleged connection of Columbus with the pirates who preyed on the Venetian commerce, and of the mediæval traits of his personality in general. Mr. Julian Ralph contributes two papers, one on Lake Superior, the other on municipal administration in the West. The English public schools give occasion for an educational article. In the "Study" Mr. Warner begins his new duties with an appreciation and literary notice of Lounsbury's 'Chaucer.'

—*Scribner's* begins the long-promised series of special papers on the condition of the poor in the great cities of the world. The first article, which is well illustrated, is concerned with the "Social Awakening in London," and reviews in succession the various movements in which philanthropy takes form there. The work of the churches is touched upon, and the extent to which intelligence has leavened the methods of the new missionaries is strikingly shown by the single detail that one of the high ritualistic churches in a criminal part of London supports a boys' club in which prize sparring contests are the main feature. After the parish churches come the Salvation Army, the Holiday funds, the Food and Shelter depots, the University Settlements—which are the most picturesque element in the moral movement—the Polytechnics, of which we have before had a detailed account, the People's Palace, the artist propaganda through the Kyrle Club and Miss Octavia Hill, the more revolutionary preaching of the artistic and literary "proletariat," as it is called, and finally a new and sympathetic view of the great strike at the docks and the personal force of the leader of the strikers, John Burns. Here are a multitude of influences, not associated, but playing in favor of similar ends, and the further organization and outcome of it all will be watched with great interest. The stimulating and educating effect of these efforts in England must also be widely felt among ourselves and in other branches of the race. The only other specially noteworthy article is Senator Ross's vigorous account of the scene when he cast his vote, the deciding vote, in the case of the impeachment of Johnson.

—*Nature* of February 25 contains the translation of an article by M. Poincaré, formerly of Nancy, one of the most eminent of French mathematicians, in which the ground is taken that the axioms of geometry are only conventions, or definitions in disguise. But we are bound to say that the essay in question is very far from reaching the usual level of that accomplished mathematician, and betrays marks of having been written from a study of the subject not altogether ripe. If we may venture to say so, we do not think he is quite master of his Riemann in this particular direction. Every competent student has seen that if the terms of geometry, such as straight line, equal length, etc., are defined in a purely abstract manner, so as not to be essentially connected with any particular concrete experiences, then any propositions compounded of such terms can have no reference to experience. But Riemann supposes that these terms are defined by the motion of a body experientially determined to be rigid. This being done, propositions about such terms are statements of fact, and there is no room for conventions about them. There are many slips in Poincaré's paper which illustrate his hasty study of the subject. Thus, he states that in the elliptic geometry "there are exceptional cases where an infinite number of straight lines can be drawn between" two points. This is an error, for it would follow that any two straight lines lying in one plane intersect in two points, contrary to the definition of a straight line. In fact, those two points must be regarded as coinciding. In the ordinary Euclidian geometry, if we have an infinitely thin and infinitely extended sheet of paper, and if a straight line be drawn on that paper and extended without limit even at infinity, when it comes round into itself it will appear on the other side of the paper (as perspective will show). Now there is just as much ground for saying that that line must pass through infinity twice in order to return into itself, as there is for M. Poincaré's statement about elliptic space, for elliptic and parabolic space differ solely in their metric, and not in their intersectional properties. There are several other similar indications that Poincaré's views are not well digested. Thus, he says that if we had discovered that the parallaxes of a star could be negative, or else that they had an inferior positive limit, "we could either renounce Euclidian geometry, or modify the laws of optics, and admit that light is not propagated strictly in straight lines. It is useless to add that every one would regard the latter solution as preferable." But he does not observe that it would in that case not only be necessary to suppose that light was not propagated in straight lines, but also that the curvature of its path differed in different parts of space; and it can hardly be said that this supposition that different parts of space had different mechanical properties would be by "every one" regarded as preferable to supposing that space has everywhere the same properties—the supposition upon which the non-Euclidian geometry is founded.

CARSON'S SUPREME COURT—II.

The Supreme Court of the United States: Its History. By Hampton L. Carson of the Philadelphia Bar. And its Centennial Celebration February 4, 1890, prepared under direction of the Judiciary Centennial Committee. Philadelphia: John Y. Huber Co. 1891.

THE greatest and best services which the Supreme Court has rendered to the United States were rendered amidst the disturbing influences of political associations. There are decisions on Constitutional questions which depend on the previous political training of the judges and are known before they are pronounced. If they do nothing more nor less than record the political impressions of the men who make them, they are political and not judicial. Our State judiciaries have recorded many such. That the early judges of Washington and Adams would construe the Constitution according to Federal principles was inevitable; but there are two periods in the life of the Supreme Court when its decisions rose above the political training of the judges, and their results are inestimable.

At the time of the adoption of the Constitution there were two parties in the then "confederacy"—a party which was in favor of nationality through a federated, central, general Government, and a party which was opposed to it. Washington, who was then in that period of his life which may well be defined as our "First in War," saw with wonderful clearness and sagacity the realities which have not become visible to all Americans until our own day—the dissoluble nature of merely confederated States, and the absolute necessity of a national power based on a perpetual union. When he became President of the Convention, he entered upon his second period of "First in Peace." With him went by voluntary action all of the States of the Confederacy and a majority of the people. The establishment of a national Government was of necessity a surrender, more or less, of State authority.

When this governmental departure had been taken deliberately, voluntarily, and with the express consent of every State that chose to enter the new nationality, it was right and proper that the new national system should be organized and defined by those who had established it, and not by those who were still opposed to it. In other words, it was right that the Supreme Court should be composed of Federalists—that is to say, of men who believed in the new nationality, and not of men who thought it their mission to undo or belittle what had been done. Nevertheless, though composed of Federalists, it was the duty of the Court to be scrupulously judicial.

The three men who saw most clearly in the future the significant import of the judicial power were Washington, Jefferson, and Marshall. The first divined with profound wisdom at the very outset that in this the framers of the Constitution had "builded better

than they knew," and that the Federal judiciary was the rock upon which a national Government must sooner or later rest. The second saw, but not so soon, that the Supreme Court, as organized by Washington, was a tremendous latent force, guarding the principle of nationality, which could become active and hurl back Presidents and Congresses whenever they approached the ark too closely. The third carried the work of Washington to a glorious completion, apprehending aright the greatness of his opportunity and the immense importance of his task; harassed, though scarcely baffled, in the later years of his life; rising always above the excitement or disappointment of the hour, and calmly establishing great principles which would be as enduring as the Constitution itself. It was during this period of interpretation that the judges of the Supreme Court for the most part rose above their own political training, and gave the country Constitutional decisions which were preëminently judicial.

The third period of Constitutional interpretation began with the departure of the great Chief Justice, or, rather, with the decision in the Mayor of New York vs. Miln (1837), when Marshall and Story were reversed by Taney and Barbour. It ended with the explosion in the Dred Scott case. From first to last the judicial weakness of the Court is demonstrated by its endless divisions. In every case where questions affecting our composite government were involved, the Court was divided in its conclusion, and, what is more significant, the majority were divided in the reasons on which their conclusion rested. The decision in the Passenger Cases (1849) is a lamentable, if not shameful, exhibition of judicial discord, which might well have set the world to asking whether the powers and functions of government can be subjects of judicial determination, and whether the Supreme Court really knew more about the Constitution than any other intelligent debating society. Mr. Carson, with all his reverence for the Court, sadly writes: "Such was the diversity and conflict of views, even among the judges concurring in the prevailing opinion, that the reporter frankly declares that 'there was no opinion of the Court as a court.'" Yet all of this turmoil was raised by the single, simple question whether a law of New York imposing a tax upon vessels for the passengers which they brought in was Constitutional. This lack of guiding and controlling principles must be ascribed to the fact that the greater part of the judges at last perceived that the Constitutional canons of construction, established by the Court prior to 1835, were vitally essential to the preservation of national authority, but nevertheless awkwardly endeavored to reconcile these new perceptions with their early political training upon State rights and strict construction; that they were weakly struggling to reconcile the irreconcilable, or to ride two horses in opposite directions at the same time. It also seems plain that the minority—the senior judges, Story and Wayne—in their sensitiveness at the overruling of the old principles, went too far in their attempted application of them; further than they would have gone if the strong and steady hand had been at the helm which previously had kept the vessel on her true course.

But let us look at the decision which closed the period, and which is unhappily characteristic of its Constitutional interpretations. It is now thirty-five years since (March 6, 1857) Chief-Justice Taney, "in a voice scarcely audible," as was said by the newspaper reporters at the time, read the opinion of the Supreme Court in the case of Dred Scott. Since then a combination of changes—social, political, Constitutional—has come to the American people, greater, probably, than ever befell another nation in a century. During the long interval we have learned to look calmly upon the passionate excitements of the former time; to look at them philosophically from our opponents' points of view. Approaching the decision now in this spirit, and hoping to find some justification that has heretofore been unperceived, we are constrained to say that it was a decision which ought never to have been made; a decision whose errors, when tried by judicial tests, appear to be without palliation. The decision in Chisholm v. Georgia was unfortunate, in the Passenger Cases lamentable, in Dred Scott reprehensible. We bear in mind the excellent personal character of every judge, the learning, ability, and general integrity of the men, the dignity of the Court; and yet we think that the decision is one which should never be forgiven. The reason for this severe conclusion is plain. If the novel and undefined, and consequently unknown, power of setting bounds to the legislative and executive acts of a nation is to be confided to a judicial tribunal, it is a vital condition to the exercise of that power that the tribunal be held to judicial action and upon strictly judicial principles.

In the midst of an intensely exciting political struggle, in which the ablest Americans of the day were exerting their utmost energies in research and argument, and in which the crucial question was whether the nation should thereafter allow the extension of slavery into territory then free by the admission of slave States, the Supreme Court deliberately went out of its way, after having once decided the suit before the Court in conference upon non-political grounds, and after having agreed upon an opinion which would have judicially disposed of the case, to pronounce a decision upon a point not necessarily or properly before the Court, which would render to the political party of the majority of the judges the greatest assistance that it was possible for a court to give; and the judges who united in the judgment based their momentous conclusion upon reasons or excuses so varied that they might be pronounced disgraceful for any court in any case. Mr. Lincoln well said, in his calm, logical way, in the Cooper Institute address:

"Waiving the lawyer's distinction between dictum and decision, the Court have decided the question for you in a sort of way. The Court have substantially said it is your Constitutional right to take slaves into the Federal territories, and to hold them there as property. When I say that the decision was made in a sort of way, I mean it was made in a divided court, by a bare majority of the judges, and they not agreeing with one another in the reasons for making it; that it is so made that its avowed supporters disagree with one another about its meaning, and that it was mainly based upon a mistaken statement of fact—the statement in the opinion that 'the right of property in a slave is distinctly and expressly affirmed in the Constitution.' An inspection of the Constitution will show that the right of property in a slave is not '*distinctly* and *expressly* affirmed' in it. Bear in mind, the Judges do not pledge their judicial opinion that such right is *impliedly* affirmed in the Constitution; but they pledge their veracity that it is *distinctly* and *expressly* affirmed there—'distinctly,' that is, not mingled with anything else; 'expressly,' that is, in words meaning just that without the aid of any inference, and susceptible of no other meaning." (The italics are Mr. Lincoln's.)

In a word, the majority of the Supreme Court set themselves up as five judicial statesmen whose discordant fiat should so completely fetter a great nation that, if the Legislatures of all the States and the Congress of the General Government should unanimously unite in voting to exclude slavery from the national territory, their statutes would be nugatory and void. The five judges substantially said: "The States cannot legislate for the Territories; and the General Government cannot legislate against slavery. We declare the people of the United States to be without power in this matter. Slavery is an institution above the control of Federal law, and, until the Territories becomes States, is free to go where it pleases." And this monstrous assumption of authority was confessedly to extinguish the political agitation of the time.

The best, and clearest, and most incisive analysis ever made of the Dred Scott decision was by John A. Andrew while a member of the Massachusetts Legislature. Mr. Carson has stated the case fairly; his explanatory comments show much painstaking investigation; he quotes the adverse comments of such Democrats as the late Clarkson N. Potter, and he censures the decision himself in a temperate way; but it would have been better for the book, if not for the decision, had he taken Gov. Andrew's analysis, or at least set it forth as a footnote.

The fourth period of Constitutional construction is the second one which revives the confidence of thinking men in the possibility of a judicial tribunal sitting as a supreme arbiter of national questions and determining them judicially. Until the Dred Scott decision there had been but one act of Congress declared unconstitutional. Since that time Federal legislation has received many and severe blows. But the remarkable and cheering facts are (1) that these blows came from a court composed almost entirely of judges who owed their appointments to the party which made the enactments that the Court condemned; and (2) that many of the decisions were rendered, against the embittered public sentiment of the hour, in favor of an unfortunate and conquered people. Some of these decisions conflict with the intuitions of common sense; some push a principle to an absurd extreme; some betray the irritation of conflicting opinions within the tribunal; yet, nevertheless, they will stand as noble efforts of an independent tribunal to maintain the local authority of State Governments and to uphold the weak against the strong.

In dealing with this period, Mr. Carson's hand grows weary—perhaps because of the number of the cases, perhaps because it was weighted with the discouraging sense of his readers' knowing too much of the subject. His comments are generally case by case, and rarely bring into view the relations of things as in the previous periods of Constitutional interpretation. The decisions in regard to pardon and amnesty form a novel and interesting chapter in our Constitutional history. In at least one instance a statute was held to be unconstitutional because it denied to a pardon produced in a civil suit the full effect which it was the prerogative of the President to impart to it; and in many instances an effect was ascribed to pardons or amnesty proclamations which entirely negatived the intent of statutes. The Court adopted the fiction of early English cases, upholding the prerogative of the Crown, that an unconditional pardon closes the eyes of the judges to the offence as completely as if it had never been committed; and applied the doctrine on the civil side of litigation so that in closing its eyes to the crime the Court could

not behold the fact. This swept away in an instant the distinctions which Congress had carefully and properly made between those who had, and those who had not, given aid to the rebellion; and it awarded to the enemies of the Government the benefits which Congress had carefully reserved to its adherents. Mr. Carson does not bring this out; and, while mentioning most of the cases, he omits, both from his text and table of cases, the short but notable decision in Armstrong's Foundry, where a pardon granted after judgment was brought into court and used to reverse the case.

In the novel application of other principles to the affairs of the civil war, the Supreme Court also seems to have lost its head; and notably in the non-intercourse cases, where refinements resulted in irreparable injustice to Northern creditors, and opinions sound much more like mediæval law than like common sense of this century. The artificial reasoning was carried to an absurd length, and ended in the wild conclusions that a Confederate officer marching with the Confederate army in Confederate territory, whose legal domicile happened to be in New Orleans, was (constructively) an enemy of the Confederate citizens around him; while a Union soldier shooting rebels, whose domicile happened to be within the Confederate lines, was (constructively) their friend (Desmare v. The United States, 93 U. S. Rep. 605; United States v. Quigley, 103 id. 595). With regard to pardon and amnesty we may also note a case where the fiction of a court not seeing an offence led to the logical result that if the plaintiff had been guilty of treason he could recover against the Government itself, but if he had violated no law, he could not receive the assistance of the Court (Carlisle v. The United States, 16 Wallace R. 147).

It is not the purpose of Mr. Carson's work to criticise the Supreme Court, to magnify its errors or bring into view its shortcomings; yet there are some things which he might well have made the subject of respectful remonstrance. Of these we note the pernicious practice of affirmance by a divided court. Two cases precisely alike go up at slightly different times. The judgment in the first is affirmed by the equal division of the eight judges who happen to be on the bench; the *plaintiff* wins, and the defendant loses, and is without remedy. The second is decided by a full bench and is reversed; the *defendant* wins, and the result is the exact opposite of the previous judgment. Such decisions by the court of last resort bring reproach upon the law, and make the administration of justice a lottery.

In reviewing the century of decisions it also becomes plain that not the least act of Marshall's wisdom was his bringing the Court into a dignified state of silence and reticence, and making it speak, not by one organ, but with one voice. The discordant dissensions of the judges since Taney went upon the bench are evidences of inherent weakness, and are not suggestive of high intellectual reasoning, nor of dispassionate, unbiassed judgment. The multiplicity of ambitious opinions goes far to account for the arrears of the docket. It is plain that the best energies of the men have been expended, not in doing the work of the Court, but in proving that everybody else was wrong. A small, mild-mannered judicial mob, hurling conflicting opinions at each other, destroys a belief in the reality of the law, and makes the unprofessional world doubt whether the judges know more of the law than they do themselves.

A disregard of the principle of *stare decisis* is undoubtedly the greatest evil of the American bench. It is the offspring of egotism and dogmatism; the result of putting loosely trained lawyers upon the bench, having little reverence and much arrogance, and the mischievous vanity of thinking that they know more than all the men who have gone before them. When the law has been declared by the court of last resort, it is the law, and is as obligatory upon judges as upon Presidents. It then passes out of the domain of judicature and can be altered only by the law-making power. A legislative alteration causes no wrong, for all men know it; but a judicial alteration is an *ex post facto* law. The Supreme Court has not been above this; and it would be an interesting question in speculative philosophy whether the sorrows and sufferings and losses of the civil war are not directly attributable to it. Certain it is that if Marshall and his first associates could have lived a generation longer, the idea of secession and rebellion would have seemed as impossible to the public of 1861 as it seems to us in 1892. The principles laid down by the Supreme Court in the first third of the century necessitated a national Government and indissoluble Union; rebellion against the principle of *stare decisis* opened the gate to the throng of troubles which we trust have for ever passed away. There can be no graver offence in one who administers the law, short of actual criminality, than the conduct of Mr. Justice Baldwin, as detailed by himself and quoted by Mr. Carson (p. 280). But the Supreme Court has given one admirable example of what judges should do in the interesting and remarkable case of La Peyre (17 Wallace, 191), which, we regret to add, Mr. Carson seems to have overlooked.

A single question, absolutely new, was involved—whether a proclamation of the President took effect at the time of its date or of its publication. The Court, being divided and in doubt, did precisely what a court should do in such a case, ordered a reargument. Finally, four of the judges agreed in the opinion of Mr. Justice Swayne, that the proclamation took effect from its date, and four in the opinion of Mr. Justice Hunt, that it took effect from its publication. The ninth member of the Court agreed only in the conclusion of Mr. Justice Swayne. Here, then, was a tribunal as evenly divided as it was possible for a court of nine members to be; yet, having done all that was possible to attain unanimity, and having reached a decision, the Court refused in subsequent cases to reconsider the question, and unanimously enforced the law as it had been declared.

The chief defect in Mr. Carson's work is a lack of precision which the general reader may not observe, but which is annoying to the historical or professional student. The death of Chief-Justice Marshall was one of the great events in the history of the Court. We turn where the index directs us, to find that at the time of his death "three cases of unusual importance and interest were pending." We turn back and find nothing more than that "in the following summer Chief-Justice Marshall died." We search for the year that preceded this "summer," and the first which is named specifically is 1831. We wish to know when Rutledge resigned his commission as Associate Judge, and why; and all that we can find is (p. 161): "In the meantime John Rutledge had resigned," and again (p. 183): "Rutledge had resigned after a few months of service on the circuit." Georgia and Pennsylvania both forcibly resisted the mandate of the Supreme Court. We look in the index, and find "Georgia, Defiance of, to decisions of the Supreme Court"; but under "Pennsylvania" the only entry is, "controversy between, and Connecticut." The index, moreover, does not embrace the commentaries of the very able lawyers whose addresses are no unimportant part of the book.

Mr. Carson's work is not a philosophical treatise on the Supreme Court, and it is well that it is not, for the philosophical writer is a man of theories, and arrays his facts to sustain them. This book is more properly a narrative in which the facts are stated clearly and with admirable fairness, the author being manifestly happy in bringing into view the strongest and best reasoning of either side. Mr. Carson, indeed, has written with entire frankness and without apology or excuse, from a Federalist point of view; and in this he has done well. The State-rights doctrine is now a thing of the past, a speculative idea, as completely behind us as the Articles of Confederation. No one accustomed to tracing causes and effects can look over the historic field and fail to see that the Government of Jefferson was a government of conflicting sovereignties, with the immediate effect that every citizen was called upon to serve two masters, to hold to the one and despise the other, and with the inevitable result that, sooner or later, the conflicting interests of a vast territory would rend the Government in twain. And he cannot fail to see that the Constitution of Marshall is the only bond which the human understanding has yet devised sufficiently strong to withstand the strain; sufficiently flexible to commit local affairs to local administration; fully adapted to the widely extended sovereignty of a free people, and able to develop and maintain the closer union of our modern civilization.

Two Happy Years in Ceylon. By C. F. Gordon-Cumming. Illustrated by the Author. 2 vols. 8vo. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892.

THIS title-page will remind most people of the Gordon-Cumming who was so prominent in the baccarat scandal of the Prince of Wales, and the more as it hides the author's sex. The truth is that the letters C. F. are the initials of Constance Frederica, and the authoress is an aunt of the noble and notorious gambler. Lady Cumming's book has 880 pages, and so would have made the ancient cynic cry out, "A great book a great bore!" India hangs down into the equatorial ocean, as it were a stalactite from the roof of a cave, while Ceylon is a fragment dropping off of it. Were the rest of Victoria's Oriental empire treated on a scale commensurate with Lady Cumming's Ceylon, the volumes would run up far into the second hundred, and it would be doubly true that "the world could not contain the books that would be written."

When we examine the grand book on Ceylon, we cease to wonder at its bulk. Its framework is the details of journeys by steamers, boats of all sizes, carriages, bullock-carts, etc., to all parts of the island except the extreme north. The date of these tours, hidden all through the first volume, we at last discover to have been 1872 and 1873. But the fates and fortunes of the places visited during these "two happy years" are described through the two decades which have since elapsed. These descriptions are supplemented by a score and more of intermingled monographs. Some of these are on the fauna and flora. Others are on races and religions; on economic possibilities of many plants, animals, and industries; the rise and fall of coffee and many other cultures; the vicissitudes of cocoanut-raising; salt-making in lagoons, and gem-

hunting in mines. As the author was not a huntress, she gives a zest to her narrative by twenty pages from the diary of her brother, who had been a Nimrod among the island tigers "about the time of her introduction to 'Robinson Crusoe.'" When the lady's pilgrimage brought her to a tank, she launched out in an account of that sort of reservoir in all ages and down to the restorations of most recent years. She met a botanist, and seems to have stolen his herbal. A herpetologist allowed her to copy from him something concerning seventy-nine snakes and all the other island reptiles. She was a guest of the Chief of Police, who "talked shop" to her till she had filled thirty pages with a sketch of his department (ii., 242–272). The last eighty-six pages contain historical and statistical notices of Christian missions, and in almost every preceding chapter we find pages regarding the colonies, wars, and administrations of Portuguese, Dutch, and English. In addition to this, well-nigh every subject is shown as related by way of resemblance or contrast to something of the sort in all the continents. More than thirty foot-notes refer to others of the lady's books of travel.

The contents, then, of Lady Cumming's volumes forbid us to marvel at their magnitude. Their multifariousness, however, forces us to say that her production is worthy of a more pretentious title. Such a name as "The Ceylonese Encyclopædia (or Pancyclopædia)" would befit it well. Nobody can read a chapter without feeling that he has been learning something he is glad to know, and which he would despair of finding in any other book. A good index also facilitates turning again to every notable passage as to which a reader may wish to refresh his memory.

Lady Cumming is preëminently an artist in water-colors. Her rule was never to let a day pass without a sketch. Her journal shows how religiously she adhered to this rule in spite of obstacles which none but an enthusiast could surmount. Three score of her Ceylonese paintings selected from several hundreds were exhibited at the South Kensington Museum, and not a few of them engraved in these volumes are well described in her letter-press. The minute peculiarities of the island life in costume, monuments, house-building and furnishing, festivals, pilgrimages, have never been caught by a more inevitable eye or set forth in more apt words. Nothing could be more charming than to hear Lady Cumming expatiating—no matter in what long-drawn gossip—upon her sketches, say of Adam's Peak, or of her double canoe, or Anuradhapura.

The story of her pilgrimage to Adam's Peak and climb to its topmost pinnacle—7,352 feet—fills thirty-five pages, and shows how zealously and adroitly she pursued knowledge under difficulties. Adam's foot-print, which Hindus, Moslems, and Christians all reverence, is on the top of the topmost rock and jealously guarded all day. Having seen many copies of this famous relic, she was determined to ascertain its exact length. Stealing out of her camp after dark, she found the sacred summit deserted by the guards, and hastened to stretch herself in the hollow of the holy print. Its length was four and one half inches more than that of her whole body, and therefore she says "exactly six feet." We thus learn the stature of Lady Cumming to be considerably taller than that of the Medicean Venus. Her age she does not tell us, but it will gratify some readers to know that it is now fifty-five years.

After all, the saying of Hesiod proves true, that "half is more than the whole," and that "he is a fool who does not know it." Much of the two volumes strikes the reader as padding—new patches on an old garment. In speaking of a mountain retreat, where she sketched, Lady Cumming "uses vain repetitions as the heathen do." Within twenty-two lines she specifies the names of thirty-five flowers which perfumed it. A score, or at least a dozen, of these flowers form a series again and again in other descriptions, till, even if a reader does not skip them, they make no impression on him. How would it fare with Abraham in Holy Writ if his name were always weighted with all the generations from Adam, Seth, Enos? Had *Dogberry* known what was meant by *tedious*, he could not have found it in his heart to bestow all his tediousness as a boon. Never was Voltaire more inspired than when he said, "The secret of being dull is to say everything."

Dates in the 'Two Happy Years' are too often lacking or incorrect. One of the first given is May 20, 1890. On that day, it is said, "two Japanese men-of-war came into Colombo conveying the survivors of a wrecked Turkish ship, the *Ertugroul*, back to their own country." But that ship was not wrecked till the 16th of September following. Again: "The Portuguese arrived in Ceylon in the middle of the *fifteenth* century." Their coming was not till the second decade in the sixteenth. The area of Ceylon is said to be 25,000 square miles, and to be "as large as Ireland"—which has 32,535 square miles. The contradiction as to the variations in the length of days is equally remarkable. Regarding "toddy" it is said "to have been doubtless so named by some early Scotch planter in remembrance of the whiskey toddy of the North." But Sir T. Herbert found the word toddy well known in the East in 1665, before any Scotchman had ever landed in Ceylon. The word cactuses sometimes occurs, but the form cactii, which is neither Latin nor English, is more frequent. On the other hand, Lady Cumming's classification of the banyan seems more correct than that of Dr. Murray in the elaborate 'New Dictionary,' which calls it, *Ficus religiosa*, or *Indica*. She calls it *Indica* alone, and says that the Bo-tree is the *religiosa*. So says also Dr. Murray under the word Bo-tree, being divided against himself.

On the whole, the Gordon-Cumming tomes, in spite of their bulk, will long be a standard work on Ceylon. Her testimony that inundation follows conflagration (ii., 308) is one specimen of hundreds of impartial observations incidentally put on record, but effective for instruction to readers the world over. Did space allow, we would dilate on others, as sects divided by covering one shoulder or both with a mantle; lower castes forbidden to carry umbrellas; meritorious water-jars for wayfarers; and the British Government so fearful of intolerance as actually to bolster up heathenism. But these points, and many more, to be appreciated must be read as portrayed with feminine grace and masculine vigor by the wide-wandering authoress.

Tales and Legends of National Origin or Widely Current in England from Early Times. With Critical Introductions by W. Carew Hazlitt. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1892. 8vo, pp. xv., 486.

Out of the storehouse of a veteran book-maker Mr. Hazlitt has made a volume which is interesting and which might easily have been made valuable. The nature of the work is sufficiently indicated by the title, and the contents are arranged in the four classes of supernatural legends, feudal and forest legends, romantic legends, and descriptive and humorous legends. The sources from which the material is taken are definitely noted in scarcely a single instance, so that the work possesses no bibliographical value whatever. As a matter of fact, the author has drawn largely from his own 'Remains of the Early Popular Poetry of England,' 'Old English Jest-Books,' Mr. Thoms's 'Early English Prose Romances,' and Percy's 'Reliques.' A considerable number of legends have been reduced to prose from metrical versions. This may perhaps be permissible in a work intended for the general reader in case the originals are difficult of comprehension; but not seldom in the present work a slight modernization of the original would have been far preferable to Mr. Hazlitt's prose, and would have possessed some literary value. One needs only to compare Mr. Hazlitt's "The Child of Bristol" (p. 6) with the slightly modernized version of the original, privately printed in 1886 by Prof. F. J. Child, to see how easily the beautiful old ballad can be made intelligible and attractive.

Each legend is prefaced by a brief introduction, in which the author's incompetence to handle such topics is revealed in every line. It is melancholy to find that all the work done in the field of folk-lore within the past twenty-five years seems to be unknown to Mr. Hazlitt. His remarks on the "Roman or Italian origin" of the myth of Virgil show how far he is behind the recent investigations in this field: Mr. Tunison's 'Master Virgil' would have saved him this fundamental error. An amusing example of the author's ignorance of comparative storiology is shown in what he says about "The Smith and his Dame." This story belongs to the extensive class of legends relating to the mythical journeys of our Lord and his apostles, found in every land, of which a number are given in Crane's 'Italian Popular Tales' (p. 187). The story is briefly that of an overproud blacksmith whose bedridden mother Christ brings back to youth by laying her on the forge and hammering her out. The ambitious smith endeavors to perform a similar feat on his own wife, with lamentable results. Here is what Mr. Hazlitt finds to say on the subject, without a single reference to any other version of the legend: "This is one of those strange inventions which belong to the period of transition from Eastern fable and mediæval demonology to a revival of the miraculous intervention of Christ in response to prayer. Of course, one can only look on such a narrative as a piece of whimsicality, since the central incident at once removes it out of the category of prodigies accomplished by leechdom or legerdemain. To the Elizabethan reader, for whom the little tale was written, the particulars may have presented nothing beyond a humorous exercise of fancy. The serious side was not considered." It will probably do no good to protest against the slipshod work done by Mr. Hazlitt in this and other books of his; but the "general reader" may perhaps be awakened to a sense of the rights which even he possesses, and be led to insist upon them with both editor and publisher.

Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria. From the French of G. Maspéro. New York: Appletons. 1892. 12mo, pp. xv., 376.

The topics here presented are neither new nor hackneyed, in spite of the fact that we have a number of volumes dealing with them. The

three large volumes of Wilkinson in their own way cover nearly all the ground of the present work and more besides. The popular though scholarly work of Prof. Erman of Berlin, while entirely complete in itself, was intended in considerable degree to supplement the older volumes of Wilkinson. Unfortunately it is accessible only in German. Other minor books of similar character might be mentioned in the same connection. But a distinction must be made between the works of Wilkinson and those of Erman and Maspéro. The main value of the former's lies in its illustrations and in the information derived from Greek writers. Originally it contained very little material based upon or derived from Egyptian sources and inscriptions, other than the pictures as such. The works of the others contain fewer illustrations, but present information of a more authentic character, since to their authors the inscriptions are an open book. In other words, they have built upon the statements of the monuments while ignoring more or less the reports of the Greek writers. Hence it is evident that works of both classes are necessary to a complete understanding, since they are mutually complementary.

The volume before us is popular in its aim and its style is correspondingly animated and vivid. Of the eminent qualifications of the author in point of knowledge so far as Egypt is concerned, it is needless to speak; and it will surprise no one that a Frenchman should have a large degree of tact and skill in presenting such a subject. The narrative will be found not only readable, but calculated to impart an extraordinary amount of minute information in brief compass. Hence when the volume is said to be popular, it is not intended that it is superficial. It is well illustrated in the best sense, since to a considerable degree the text is an exposition of what the contemporaneous monuments here depicted both say and portray. The periods chosen for treatment are those of Rameses II., supposed to have been that of the "Oppression" of the children of Israel in Egypt, and that of Assurbanipal, who carried Manasseh in chains to Babylon—the fourteenth and the seventh centuries B. C. respectively. It is to be hoped that the publishers will supply the grievous lack of an adequate index, when another edition is called for.

The Evolution of Life; or, Causes of Change in Animal Forms: A Study in Biology. By Hubbard Winslow Mitchell, M.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891. 8vo, pp. xvi, 460, illustrated.

Dr. Mitchell's book is an addition to popular literature on evolution. It is a story of the earth and its life from its gaseous to its present condition, with a "terrestrial and cosmogenic prognosis." On a superficial inspection its elegant appearance and numerous illustrations give rise to expectations that are disappointed by a closer examination. Things that can only be conjectures asserted as facts, reckless assumptions, and evidences of carelessness prevent the anticipated enjoyment. Many of the drawings are old acquaintances, from unacknowledged sources. Figure 72, here upside down, is No. 792 B. of Dana's 'Manual of Geology' (1864); figure 34 is composed of Dana's figures 708 to 713; and figure 33, called a "Saurian skeleton found in the coal measures of Ohio," contains Dana's 549 and 604, the former being the tracks of *Sauropus primœvus* from the subcarboniferous at Pottsville, Pa., and the latter the skeleton of *Raniceps Lyellii* from the carboniferous at Linton, O., both of them batrachian remains. Figure 81 represents a mylodon, but has all of its claws of about the same size; figure 84 is an armadillo with all of its feet off the ground, trotting on the tips of its claws; and figure 42 is a jurassic ammonite floating above the water like a cork. Figure 35 is named "Selachian (shark) of the Devonian Age — *Spinax Blainvillii.*" The author says of it:

"In the species of Devonian fish known as *Spinax Blainvillii* the dorsal vertebrae are very numerous, and the body is long and slender. There is a small pectoral fin which is almost wholly tegumentary, while the true ventral fins are much larger, and have traces of cartilaginous rays. As this animal raised its head above the water in the shallow bays and inlets where it lived, the pectoral fin through disuse would become slowly atrophied and in time disappear. The ventral fins would develop into paddles in the manner already described, and the long anterior portion of the body, through successive generations of development and the survival of the fittest, ultimately become the enlongated neck of the plesiosaurus. This view seems at once both scientific and logical, and answers all the requirements."

The figure represents a nondescript with three gill-openings, an anal fin, no dorsal spines, no lower lobe to the tail, and ventrals larger than the pectorals. But *Spinax Blainvillii* is a recent shark, now living in the Mediterranean, not known as a fossil, and has five gill-openings, a strong spine in front of each dorsal, a lower lobe on the caudal, no anal fin, and pectorals larger than the ventrals. Further than this, scientists believe that the fore limbs of the quadruped correspond to the pectoral fins of some fish-like ancestor, and that the hind limbs were derived from the ventrals. Spinax is not addicted to raising its head out of the water.

Lingula appears to do duty as a protozoan; Notosaurus, crocodilus, and alligator are badly mixed, and *Alligator mississippiensis* is said to occur in great numbers on the Amazon. On page 8 Arcturus is nearing us about five miles per second; on page 447, it is approaching our sun four miles per second. Page 9 informs us that "the essential qualities of space are *cold* and *darkness*. If it were light and warm, the phenomena we now observe in the universe would not only at once cease to exist, but would never have occurred." From page 36 we learn that the Silurian Sea was placid and undisturbed, unruffled by winds or currents, and "no surging tides existed, no surf beat upon the shore." Since the earth began to rotate upon its axis and felt the attraction of sun and moon, it is not possible that it has been without tides. With tides, and the electrical disturbances and torrential rains mentioned by the author, it is difficult to believe in the absence of currents either in or above the water.

To the question of man's origin, it is stated: "The answer is simple. There was but one animal from which he could have descended—that was the great man-like ape, the gorilla, of equatorial Africa." "According to this view, which seems to me to admit of no doubt whatever, the extensive and agreeable region of tropical Africa lying north of the equator was the only place where *man first appeared upon the earth.*" "It is not probable that man will undergo any anatomical changes of form in the future. He has undoubtedly reached the highest point possible in his *structural* development." "But that any new or different animal form will ever appear is so improbable that we are safe in pronouncing it impossible." "We can safely assert, however, that the processes of evolution have ceased, and that no new animal form will ever appear upon the earth." "The time is not far distant when no animal will be found outside a menagerie who cannot be utilized either by the yoke or the spit. Every one beside must give way ultimately to the civilizing influences man is slowly but surely extending over every province of the earth." We question the statement that scientists generally admit that man could only have descended from the gorilla; what is admitted is that the two had a common ancestor. In the interest of popular science it is to be regretted that a book so well calculated to win popular fancy was not more carefully compiled.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldrich, Wilbur. Farming Corporations. W. Aldrich & Co. $1.
Arnold, Sir Edwin. The Light of Asia. Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.
Baedeker's Upper Egypt. Leipzig: Karl Baedeker; New York; Scribners. $3.
Baldwin, Prof. James. Everybody's Writing-Desk Book. Harpers.
Bernhard, Marie. The Household Idol. Worthington Co.
Boldrewood, Rolf. Nevermore. Macmillan. $1.
Bottone, S. R. A Guide to Electric Lighting; for the Use of Householders and Amateurs. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Brooks, Shirley. Mrs. Lygon. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co. 50 cents.
Cheney, J. V. The Golden Guess: Essays on Poetry and the Poets. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Cheney, S. P. Wood Notes Wild: Notations of Bird Music. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.
Clarke, Kit. The Practical Angler. American News Co.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. Love-Letters of a Worldly Woman. Harpers.
Cook, Theodore A. Old Touraine: The Life and History of the Famous Châteaux of France. 2 vols. Scribners. $5.
Daudet, A. Rose et Ninette. Paris: E. Flammarion; New York: Westermann. $1.
Davidson, Rev. A. B. Ezekiel. [Cambridge Bible.] Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Davies, Charles. New Elementary Algebra. American Book Co. 90 cents.
Earle, Prof. J. The Deeds of Beowulf. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Engels, Frederick. The Condition of the Working Classes in England in 1844. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Englemann, R., and Anderson, W. C. F. Pictorial Atlas to Homer's Iliad and Odyssey. Westermann & Co.
Etting, F. M. Independence Hall. 2d ed. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Fane, Violet. Memoirs of Marguerite de Valois, Queen of Navarre. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Scribners. $5.
Fiske, John. The Discovery of America. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Flammarion, Camille. Lumen: Experiences in the Infinite. Cassell. 50 cents.
Furness, H. H. The Variorum Shakspere. Vol. IX. The Tempest. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $4.
Garland, Hamlin. A Member of the Third House. Chicago: F. J. Schulte & Co.
Goodfellow, John. The Dietetic Value of Bread. Macmillan. $1.50.
Guiney, Louise Imogen. Monsieur Henri: A Footnote to French History. Harpers.
Guyot, Yves. Principles of Social Economy. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Hepworth, George. The Life Beyond. Randolph. $1.
Hilliard, H. W. Politics and Pen Pictures at Home and Abroad. Putnams. $3.
Holbrook, M. L. The Hygienic Treatment of Consumption. M. L. Holbrook & Co. $2.
Hope, M. J. The Thoughts of Novalis. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 75 cents.
Howard, Blanche W., and Sharp, William. A Fellowe and his Wife. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Howells, W. D. The Quality of Mercy. Harpers. $1.50.
Hughes, Rev. N. C. Genesis and Geology. 2d ed. James Pott & Co.
Inglis, Lady. The Siege of Lucknow. London: Osgood, McIlvaine & Co.; New York: Scribners. $4.
Jefferies, Richard. Red Deer. 2d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Johnson, Virginia W. The Treasure Tower. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Keene, H. G. Mádhava Ráo Sindia. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Kelly, Mrs. M. A. B. A Volume of Poems. Boston: J. G. Cupples.
Lanman, Prof. C. R. Harvard Oriental Series. Vol. I. The Jataka-Mala. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Larcom, Lucy. The Unseen Friend. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.

Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXX. Johnes—Kenneth. Macmillan. $3.75.
Levett, R., and Davison, C. The Elements of Plane Trigonometry. Macmillan. $1.60.
Leffingwell, Albert. Illegitimacy, and the Influence of Seasons upon Conduct. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Libbey, Laura J. Florabel's Lover; or, Rival Belles. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Liddon, Rev. H. P. Sermons on Some Words of Christ. Longmans, Green & Co.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. 77, Jan.–April, 1892. Boston: Littell & Co.
Lock, Rev. J. B. The First Book of Euclid's Elements arranged for Beginners. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Luther's Bible. Im Auftrage der Deutschen Evangelischen Kirchenconferenz durchgesehene Ausgabe. Westermann & Co.
Macdonald, Greville. Diseases of the Nose. 2d ed. Macmillan.
Mahaffy, J. P. Problems in Greek History. Macmillan. $2.50.
Mallock, W. H. A Human Document. Cassell. 50 cents.
Manley, R. M. Some Children of Adam. Worthington Co.
Maurice, F. D. Lincoln's Inn Sermons. Vol. V. Macmillan. $1.25.
Maxwell, J. C. Theory of Heat. 10th ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Meredith, George. Modern Love. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Meredith, Owen. Marah. Longmans, Green & Co.
Mew, James, and Ashton, John. Drinks of the World. Scribners. $6.
Michel, Emile. Les Brueghel. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: Librairie de l'Art; New York: Macmillan.
Morley, Henry. English Writers. Vol. VIII. From Surrey to Spenser. Cassell. $1.50.
Morris, William. Poems by the Way. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Musick, T. H. The Genesis of Life and Thought. John B. Alden.
Needell, Mrs. J. H. The Story of Philip Methuen. Appletons.
Norton, S. F. The Men of Money Island; or, The Primer of Finance. Revised ed. Chicago: F. J. Schulte & Co.
Nutt, J. L. Newburgh: Her Institutions, Industries and Leading Citizens. Newburgh, N. Y.: Ritchie & Hull. $3.
Parker, Theodore. West Roxbury Sermons. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Peacock, T. L. The Misfortunes of Elphin. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Pearson, Prof. Karl. The Grammar of Science. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Phillips, Morris. Abroad and at Home: Practical Hints for Tourists. Brentano.
Phillpotts, Eden. Folly and Fresh Air. Harpers.
Robbins, Mary C. The Rescue of an Old Place. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ryle, Prof. H. E. The Canon of the Old Testament. Macmillan. $1.75.
Saintsbury, G. Political Pamphlets. Macmillan. $1.
Sayce, Prof. A. H. Records of the Past. Vol. 5. London: S. Bagster & Sons.
Schuyler, Montgomery. Studies in American Architecture. Harpers.
Scott, Prof. F. N. Spencer on the Philosophy of Style. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 45 cents.
Taylor, J. T. The Optics of Photography and Photographic Lenses. London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Tennyson, Lord. The Foresters. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
The Fourth Gospel. Essays by Ezra Abbot, A. P. Peabody, and Bishop Lightfoot. Scribners. $1.50.
The Handbook Illustrated Dictionary of the English Language. Putnams. 75 cents.
The New Cabinet Cyclopedia and Treasury of Knowledge. 8 vols. Philadelphia: Gebbie & Co.
The Penance of Portia James. U. S. Book Co. $1.
Three Hundred and Sixty-six Dinners. Putnams. $1.25.
Tillman, Prof. S. E. Elementary Lessons in Heat. 2d ed. John Wiley & Sons. $1.50.
Tincker, Mary A. San Salvador. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Trow's Copartnership and Corporation Directory of New York. 1892. Trow Directory Co. $5.
Twain, Mark. Merry Tales. Charles L. Webster & Co. 75 cents.
Walkley, A. B. Playhouse Impressions. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Ward, Prof. H. M. The Oak. [Modern Science Series.] Appletons.
War Papers and Personal Reminiscences, 1861-1865. Read before the Commandery of the State of Missouri, Military Order of the Loyal Legion. St. Louis: Becktold & Co.
Watson, William. Poems. Macmillan. $1.50.
White, Arnold. The Destitute Alien in Great Britain. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Wright, Prof. Joseph. A Primer of the Gothic Language. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Yechton, Barbara. Christine's Inspiration. James Pott & Co. 60 cents.
Zimmern, Helen. The Comedies of Carlo Goldoni. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 75 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 14, 1892.

The Week.

THE new silver debate opened by Senator Morgan of Alabama was started ostensibly to "tear off the mask" from certain Senators who are seeking a Presidential nomination while concealing their views on this important question. It called up Senator Sherman, who gave us one of his characteristic speeches, made up of sense and nonsense in about equal parts, but so commingled that the former should be made effective in legislation and the latter useful on the stump. Nobody understands this art so well as Mr. Sherman. He defended the act of 1890, which discontinued the coinage of silver dollars and substituted in their place Treasury notes based on silver bullion, saying that this was more economical and safer than the plan of coining silver. The Government saved a cent and a half on every dollar by *not* coining. It also kept the metal in the form of heavy ingots which could not be stolen. Moreover, the Treasury-note plan enabled the Government to mix up its obligations in a kind of soup where all the ingredients were inseparable, so that all might, with better face, be kept at par with gold. Mr. Sherman added that "every one of those Treasury notes was based upon enough of silver to be equal to a dollar in gold at the time of the purchase of the silver; and, taking the average for a period of years, there was a dollar's worth of silver in the Treasury for every silver certificate issued." This is a truism that is without the smallest significance unless the Treasury has the power to dispose of the silver in case of need. There is no such power. The Secretary can only look at his stock from time to time. Even if he had the legal power to sell it, he could not do so without greatly depressing the price. If he should offer the whole of it at fifty cents an ounce, he could not find purchasers for it. Therefore the fact that there is a dollar's worth of silver "behind" every silver certificate and Treasury note is of no more consequence than the fact that there is a brick wall "behind" the silver.

Senator Stewart has made an explanation of the singular fact that he has twenty-five mortgages recorded in his favor in a single county in California, the principal and interest of which are payable specifically in *gold coin*. He said that he had never seen one of these mortgages; that they were all given for land sold through his agents, who had simply followed the customary form of mortgage used on the Pacific Coast. Senator Hale said with much solemnity that he hoped Mr. Stewart would never do it again, and the latter replied with equal gravity that he would not. He added that he considered the Gold Contract Law of California a bad thing in itself and a serious drawback to the prosperity of the State. Fortunately there is a way in which Mr. Stewart, and all other "slopers" who are of like mind with himself, can avoid this evil and at the same time contribute to the prosperity of the slope, viz., they can change all their bills receivable, including those secured by mortgage, so as to make them payable in "lawful money." It is not likely that any debtor would object. They can also start a movement to repeal this odious Gold Contract Law. We are surprised, indeed, that Mr. Stewart, entertaining the views he does, has not put himself at the head of such a movement long ago. If it is really an injury to California, he ought to lose no time in pointing out to his fellow-citizens the mistake they are making every day of their lives. No doubt they would be highly diverted if not convinced.

The task of defending the honor and good name of the United States against one of the rudest assaults ever directed against them, was performed by Mr. Hitt of Illinois and by Mr. Hooker of Mississippi in a satisfactory manner on Monday week, when the Chinese Exclusion Bill was brought to a vote in the House. This measure received the affirmative votes of 179 members, against only 43 in the negative, and yet it was a deliberate sacrifice of self-respect and plighted faith at the behest of low demagogism; and in this disgraceful exhibition there was very little to choose between parties. If such a measure should really become the law of the land, we should inscribe ourselves in the catalogue of nations as being inferior to China in some of the most important qualities that go to make up the rating of civilized peoples. Leaving humanity out of the reckoning altogether, the mere breach of faith in this case is positively shocking. It makes one wonder whether the teachings of Christ have produced any enduring effect whatever upon the hearts and consciences of men.

Ex-Senator Blair of New Hampshire had an intense desire to learn why he was *persona non grata* at the Court of Pekin, when he was appointed Minister to China and was not received by that country. That desire was gratified in due time. The reason why Mr. Blair was not acceptable was that he had, in a Senate debate, indulged in comments on the Chinese people that had made an unfavorable impression in the Flowery Kingdom. The Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs accordingly requested that Mr. Blair be not sent to that country, assigning the foregoing reason. Mr. Wharton, our Assistant Secretary of State, acknowledged that each country must decide for itself the question of acceptableness of a person designated as Minister by any other country, and that it is not obliged to give any reasons. But if it did give reasons, then he was disposed to contend that the reasons must be logical—that is, satisfactory to the country sending him—a position obviously untenable since it would lead to endless dispute and eventual rupture. Mr. Wharton was prepared to show that when Mr. Blair compared Chinese immigration to the spread of yellow fever, he was merely using the latter term as a forcible illustration and figure of speech, and did not intend to say that the landing of a Chinaman was the same thing as the landing of a yellow-fever patient. There is some ground for thinking that this was the truth, and that Blair meant no more than this, that if we have a moral right to exclude yellow fever, we have a moral right to exclude anything that we consider hurtful, including Chinese immigration. Mr. Blair now wants to have the whole affair investigated by the Senate, not with a view to getting him into the good graces of the Court of Pekin, but for purposes of general vindication. We think that the Senate may find better use for its time.

Word has evidently been passed around among Mr. W. E. Curtis's friends in the various chambers of commerce that this would be a good time to pass resolutions extolling him in the rôle of the Bureau of American Republics, and calling upon Congress to give him the appropriation for which he longs. The Boston Chamber of Commerce did the graceful thing by him on April 6, and the Chamber of this city was equally courteous and equally perfunctory the next day. Other cities will no doubt speedily produce the same stereotyped tribute to the "great and increasing importance of the Bureau as an agent in promoting commercial relations between this country and the South American nations." Now the first thing to be said about such resolutions is what the Marquis of Halifax said about the addresses of English Dissenters to James II. on the occasion of that monarch's declarations of indulgence: "These bespoken thanks are but little less improper than were love-letters solicited by the lady to whom they are to be directed." In the second place, there is no evidence that the Bureau has promoted commercial relations to any appreciable extent. It has published various handbooks, which we have given suitable praise, but at a cost ten or twelve times as great as the work could have been done for privately. What it has chiefly promoted has been the vanity and officiousness of its "Director," who carefully draws his salary and leaves all the work

to be done by his subordinates. Moreover, the Bureau meets with so little appreciation in South America that only one or two of the countries there have paid, or will pay, their quota to sustain it. The position of the House Committee in charge of the matter seems perfectly just—namely, that if the other nations do not care enough for the Bureau to help pay its cost, it may as well be dropped altogether. Anyhow, the personality of its "Director" is a standing affront to Spanish Americans, and he ought to be dropped, whether the Bureau is or not.

We feel it our duty to remind the *Tribune* that its continued silence on the Brazilian treaty is imperilling its hard-earned reputation as the greatest "reciprocity" organ. Its editorial articles on that subject have been far more numerous and dithyrambic than those of any of its contemporaries, and they are naturally perplexed when the acknowledged master of the topic has not a word to say upon some of its most important developments. Evidence has been published showing that Brazil was deceived into agreeing to the treaty. A most interesting letter from Minister Mendonça was printed in the *Evening Post* of April 5, showing how, in fact, an "understanding" and "arrangements" and "assurances" did exist between him and Mr. Blaine to the effect that had been stated. Will not the *Tribune* tell us what it thinks of that? Does it agree with Mr. Mendonça that Mr. Blaine's plans were all dashed by the McKinley Bill? And does it think that Mr. Mendonça himself is quite ingenuous in his reference to "any promise whose fulfilment was possible"? He now says that the "expressions attributed to me referred to conditions" anterior to the passage of the McKinley Bill, and that the treaty which was "virtually concluded on November 3, 1890," was signed with no reference to the former promise to exclude Spain. Yet on December 17, 1890, he declared in writing to Ruy Barbosa that "as to the advantages concerning sugar, we are now alone to enjoy them, to the exclusion of European colonies in America." There is a great deal of mystery in all this which we all look to the *Tribune* to clear up, and we beg it to bring its editorial mind to bear upon the subject. We take pains to say editorial mind, for we hope that the matter will not be left, as before, to the nondescript frothings of its Washington correspondent.

The result of the Rhode Island election last week can surprise no one who has watched the course of the canvass. The State has always gone Republican in the gubernatorial election of a Presidential year since the Republican party was formed, and although the widening of the electorate since 1888 has improved the chances of the Democrats, the odds would have been in favor of the Republicans if the opposition had been at their best. But they were not. The Independent newspaper of the State, the Providence *Journal*, threw its influence in favor of the Republicans, largely on the ground that the Democratic nominees were far inferior to the Republican, but also partly on the ground that the Democratic position on national issues is as yet too uncertain to warrant endorsement of the party. Finally, Rhode Island has long been the most corrupt State in the Union, in the matter of elections, and, despite the safeguards of a secret-ballot law, it will always be possible for the party which has the most money at command to make it tell in its favor. Everybody knows that this party in Rhode Island is always the Republican—and this year more than ever, as the election involved the fate of Senator Aldrich, who has a tremendous "pull" on the manufacturers by reason of his prominence in tariff legislation. If the voters in Rhode Island who do not "belong" to either party had been unitedly and enthusiastically in favor of the Democrats, the election would have gone the other way. A good many of them have been so much disgusted by Democratic blundering at Washington—the "turning down" of Mills, the temporary triumph of a Tammany-Hill-Bourbon "combine," the fooling with the silver issue—that they found it easy to vote the Republican local ticket. It seems clear that there were enough Republican votes cast by such men to have turned the scales if the Democrats could have got them. There is a large class of such voters in Connecticut, New York, and every other close State.

The municipal elections in the West last week indicated a very gratifying growth in the tendency towards independent voting. Republican cities have chosen mayors who are Democrats in national politics, on the ground that they would make better municipal officials, and vice-versa. The rebuke to incompetent and corrupt administration of local affairs was particularly sharp in the State of Michigan; a number of cities which are usually good for Democratic majorities electing Republican or Independent mayors this year, because the voters were disgusted with the sort of Democratic rule they had been given. It has thus been shown very clearly that party lines are steadily breaking down in regard to local elections, and that the party label counts for less and less every year. It has also been demonstrated that the decent people can always get good government when they have interest enough in the matter to work for it. If they will not take the trouble to vote, however, they will not get it. In Milwaukee, for example, there are about 55,000 voters, but not 40,000 of them went to the polls at the recent election. Of course all those who had a personal interest in bad government turned out to endorse a Mayor who had forfeited his claim to a reëlection, while many thousands who did not honestly think him entitled to another term neglected their duty. The result was that he was reëlected, and nobody who refused to take the trouble to vote against him has any right to complain.

The Maynard investigation at Albany was brought to an eminently fitting close last week by a refusal of the majority to allow the minority to summon any witnesses or to have any voice in the preparation of the report. The majority were unwilling to let the minority know even the probable date of their report. We doubt if they themselves look forward to the date with much pleasure. They have been devoting their spare time entirely to an anxious search for a method by which they could "let go" of the inquiry without subjecting themselves to fresh ridicule and humiliation. They had summoned new witnesses, but were afraid to examine them after their arrival, lest, like all previous witnesses, they should make the case against Judge Maynard appear worse than ever. From the beginning to the end of the inquiry, not one word was educed which can be used in a report "vindicating" the Judge. The net result has been to stamp his offence more clearly upon the minds of the people, and neither a majority nor a minority report is going to make any difference as to the opinion which the whole State has formed upon his conduct and that of his ally and instigator, Senator Hill.

Iowa is the first State to adopt a ballot-reform law this year, making the thirty-fourth in the list. Her law is to go into effect on November 1, and will thus be used in the Presidential election. It is similar in its provisions to the laws of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and three other States, the names of all candidates being arranged in separate columns, each party having a column to itself with the party name and an emblem at the top. The voter can mark the name of each candidate of his choice, or vote the straight party ticket by placing a single mark opposite the emblem. This is the form of ballot which certain Tammany leaders, including Croker, professed to be in favor of in this State at the opening of the present session of the Legislature, but they were unable to abandon the "paster" when the time for action came. The consequence will be that we shall have to conduct our Presidential election with the cumbersome and defective machinery which Gov. Hill's persistent opposition to genuine ballot reform forced upon the State.

The reported purchase by the Sugar Refineries Company of the Spreckels plant in Philadelphia, at a large advance on its cost, brings up the question whether such finan-

ciering can pay in the long run. The combination of sugar-refiners has changed its form from a Trust to that of a corporation organized under the law of New Jersey. Change of organization has not brought with it a change of heart. We do not yet know what economic and political results may flow from these large aggregations of capital. We can, however, assume that such combinations on a large scale are not different in intent, whether they remain Trusts or incorporate themselves in New Jersey or West Virginia. It is undoubtedly true that many incorporators have gone into New Jersey for the honest purpose of escaping the unnecessarily severe corporation law of other States, but this applies more particularly to manufacturing or trading firms with a comparatively small capitalization. The cases of the lead, sugar, and cotton-oil companies are different; the latter involve combination among a number of distinct and hitherto separate corporations in different States. The fact that the Standard Oil Trust is to be dissolved has been much commented upon. The Trust certificates are to be surrendered, and in lieu of them stock in the smaller and legally incorporated companies is to be turned over to the old holders. So long as the holders of the new shares are few in number, they can unite in harmonizing the different interests as before; but experience has taught us that time tells strongly against such harmony. There must be a combination of control if agreement is to continue. It is very probable, therefore, that in good time we shall hear of the incorporation in some liberal State of a general company which shall have power to hold the stock of other and smaller companies, and to which the shares of the various minor properties of the Standard Oil Trust can be transferred. The majesty of the law will thus have been vindicated *pro forma*, but the economic problem will remain as before.

From the financial point of view, it is plain that these great Trust corporations contain an element of weakness. The Distillery corporation, in order to control the output, bought up outside distilleries until it produced more than 90 per cent. of the spirits sold. To make a profit on the large capitalization necessary to purchase the opposing plants at twice or thrice their value, the company advanced the price of its product. That advance at once brought new competitors into the field who had to be bought off as before. This is the dilemma in which every huge attempt at monopoly has so far found itself. The sufferers have been in general the investing public, even more than the consuming public. So far as our experience has gone, it does not yet appear that we need any more stringent legislation, Federal or State, to protect the general public against the extortions of monopolies in the usual lines of trade, except in cases where the tariff gives the consumer bound into the hands of his enemy, by limiting the competition upon which he could otherwise rely. As we have said, the case of the foolish investor is worse than that of the consumer; but about the former, when once warned, the public need not concern themselves.

The way in which the attempt to raise the necessary money for the Grant monument fund has lagged in this city is fast becoming a national discredit. The subscription has been going on for years in the richest city of the richest country in the world, in order to mark in a very simple way, all things considered, the last resting-place of a man who was believed in his lifetime to have saved the nation which Washington founded. Things have come to such a pass that after seven years of collection there is much reason to fear that the $350,000 which is needed to complete the required amount will not be forthcoming when the corner-stone of the monument is laid on the 27th instant, and the Mayor has actually felt it desirable to issue a proclamation calling on the citizens to avert, if possible, what would be an undoubted calamity. A final effort is to be made during the remaining three weeks, by special solicitation among the different trades and professions, through committees appointed for the purpose. The amount, when divided among the various bodies on whom it is proposed to call in this way, beginning with the lawyers, would be for each about $16,000, which looks a little ridiculous. We trust, therefore, we shall be spared the humiliation of seeing the corner-stone laid without money in hand to finish the monument as designed. "A great people," as Napoleon said, when there was some demur over the salary of one of the marshals, "does not haggle over its glory," and it may be said with equal truth that a great people ought not to commemorate its heroes "on tick."

The anxiety of the unemployed workmen in London to hear a sermon from the Dean of St. Paul's is not so great a tribute to the power of the pulpit as might at first sight be supposed. This is clear from their indignation when, after flocking to the cathedral in crowds, they were compelled to listen to a sermon which contained "no reference whatever to workingmen." It was not a sermon as such that they wanted to hear, but a loose harangue on the "cause of labor," interspersed with words of warning to the rich and appeals to the State to "do something" for the unemployed. No other result could well be expected from the attitude of Cardinal Manning and the Bishop of London at the time of the dockers' strike. They went far to give laboring men, especially striking or unemployed workingmen, the idea that the pulpit of London was ready to rival Trafalgar Square as a place for pitching into employers and crying up the wrongs of laborers. No wonder that they now go to church, not for the purpose of receiving the incitements and consolations of religion, but to obtain a religious sanction for their demands. The man whom they ought to invite to preach to them is Mr. Charles Booth, who could demonstrate to them mathematically that Mansion House funds and other expedients for the temporary relief of the unemployed only swell their numbers and deepen their misery.

The discussion in the House of Commons on the escape of William Henry Hurlbert from the English police on a charge of perjury leaves the blame nominally on poor Mr. Stephenson, the Solicitor to the Treasury, who had charge of the prosecution, and has in his report told a piteous tale of the way in which somebody "leaked" when he got the warrant out for Hurlbert's apprehension. The Radicals are apparently, and with just reason, very angry about it, for we presume there are very few people in England who believe that Hurlbert could have escaped if there had been any serious desire on the part of the Crown officials to catch him. The spectacle of his prosecution on such a charge would have been too painful and scandalous for the Unionists. The "Irish Patriotic League" hired him to write a book on Ireland in the character of a thoughtful and pious American, in which he gave the Irish "fits," and which sold largely and was a first-rate campaign document for the Unionists. Moreover, he was to several highly placed Unionists, Mr. Chamberlain in particular, a sort of mentor on American questions, far exceeding Squire Smalley as an authority—the Squire not having much head for politics. Hurlbert told him how our Government was one of divided powers, each independent in its own sphere; how the American newspapers were all edited and written by wicked Irish Fenians; how Congress framed legislation in order to catch the Irish vote; how fond, moreover, "the best Americans" were of shooting Irish rioters, and how fond the Irish were of killing negroes, and how much more numerous evictions of tenants were in New York city than in Ireland, and other little items which the Birmingham orator used like grape and canister on the Gladstonian foe. Besides this, Hurlbert was a welcome guest at scores of "great houses." To have such a man brought to the bar for perjury by a "strange woman" was something the Unionist cause could not stand. It had to be avoided just as much as the production of the Duke of Cambridge in a police court, on the charge preferred by a reporter. The framework of society and the integrity of the Empire are, after all, more important things than the conviction of any perjurer whatsoever. So it *was* avoided. Hurlbert got notice, and he fled, and he has found a place that is safe under the treaties, and he now snaps his fingers at Gladys and the Gladstonians.

THE REAL "THEORISTS" IN POLITICS.

No taunt has been oftener thrown at those who have endeavored to elevate the tone and methods of party government than the one which charges them with being a set of unpractical dreamers, whose eyes are fixed upon unattainable visions, and who are utterly unable to accomplish anything definite and practical. Over against them have been set the hard-headed and keen-sighted "practical politicians," the men who have acquired their political wisdom in the hard school of experience—in running caucuses and fixing conventions, in "getting the delegates" and the nominations, in making "deals" and "trades," in "knifing" and running ahead of the ticket. No cobwebs of fanciful political reform ever attach themselves to such men, who move straight on to the attainment of their purposes. It is all very well to tickle the ears of people with the fine-sounding phrases of the political theorists and reformers, but when you want to get anything done, any actual piece of legislation written in the statute-books, you must leave the visionaries and deal with the practical politicians.

This is an ancient and venerable view of politics, which has been proved false so many times that one can but wonder at its persistence. There is no man so utterly at a loss in all questions of high legislative importance, no man who finds the study of details and the processes of persuasion so distasteful, as the man who has spent his days in political intrigue, where tricks and appeals to the basest motives have been his stock in trade. The very men who have made the most colossal failures as legislators have been the men who have worked their way up to positions of responsibility by means of the low arts of the practical politician. Look at the Senatorial careers of Conkling and Mahone and Quay, and, observing their utter barrenness in all legislation not of the most pronounced partisan character, contrast their records with those of their contemporaries and party associates who have really put through the important legislation of the Senate. It will be easily seen how the men who are the great generals and masters in politics, in the low sense of that word, are all at fault when it comes to the actual business of making laws for the good of the whole people.

Burke set forth this truth in language which is well worth recalling at the present moment:

> "In truth, the tribe of vulgar politicians are the lowest of our species. There is no trade so vile and mechanical as government in their hands. . . . They are out of themselves in any course of conduct recommended only by conscience and glory. A large, liberal, and prospective view of the interests of States passes with them for romance; and the principles that recommend it, for the wanderings of a disordered imagination. The calculators compute them out of their senses. The jesters and buffoons shame them out of everything grand and elevated. Littleness in object and in means to them appears soundness and sobriety. They think there is nothing worth pursuit but that which they can handle; which they can measure with a two-foot rule; which they can tell upon ten fingers."

No better illustration of these words was ever furnished than that now to be seen in the condition of public business in this State. The Legislature is filled with the most "practical" men ever brought together at Albany. On the side of the majority, at least, there is not a man, we suppose, who would not consider himself insulted if he were called a "theorist." Such a mass of brute common sense, without the faintest admixture of rose-colored views, was probably never before applied to the work of legislation. And it has had the advantage of the presence and guidance of the greatest practical politician of the age. He is ineffably weary of his duties in the United States Senate, where such stupid and profitless subjects as the currency, the tariff, the foreign policy of the Administration are under discussion, and leaves his seat there to go to Albany in order to show his party and the world what real political management is.

The result is, a tangle and dead-lock and outbreak of dissensions in his own party such as have rarely, if ever, been equalled. He has had notice publicly served upon him by members of his own party that he has committed a fearful blunder—which is, of course, worse than a crime in a politician—in going to Albany at all, and has been threatened with the tying up of all his measures unless he would take himself off. And he has actually been forced to retreat before the storm which has broken out in his very face. It must be remembered, too, that this collapse has occurred in the very matters where the practical politician has always claimed pre-eminence. The bills that have rent the party into factions are "political" bills. They make no pretence of being for the good of the whole people: they are partisan measures, meant to secure party advantages and pay party debts; yet even on these the plain, every-day men, who know nothing about iridescent dreams, but who assert their ability to get everything in sight for themselves and their party, have gone hopelessly to wreck.

The truth is, these men who use the word "theorist" as their choicest term of contempt, are themselves the real political theorists. Their idea that an organization can take the place of a policy is nothing but a theory, and a most unfounded one. Their belief that the people will not know the difference between a man who has thrust himself forward as a product of the machine, and a man who has gained prominence by force of ability and character, is one of the most ludicrous and baseless fancies that ever entered the mind of man. It is such stuff as dreams are made of. Senator Hill will not have lived in vain, because he will leave it writ large in the memories of Americans that the legitimate ending of a career of unscrupulous adroitness and shifty political scheming is the bitter realization of his own impotence, of the angry distrust and ill-will even of his own party, and of the thorough-going contempt of the people at large.

CRIMINAL LIBEL.

THE Penal Code of this State, while defining criminal libel as a misdemeanor, punishable, like other misdemeanors, by fine and imprisonment, makes this important qualification (section 244):

> "The publication is justified when the matter charged as libellous is true, and was published with good motives and for justifiable ends. The publication is excused when it is honestly made, in the belief of its truth, and upon reasonable grounds for this belief, and consists of fair comments upon the conduct of a person in respect of public affairs."

Now, if we are not greatly mistaken, numerous as misdemeanors are, libel is the only one which is ever legally justifiable, or indeed legally excusable. There may, in other cases, be many matters alleged as furnishing moral excuse in mitigation of punishment, but libel is the only misdemeanor which the law declares beforehand may, under certain conditions, be not only excusable, but praiseworthy. Therefore, no libel is, as a matter of course, a punishable offence. It may prove, on the contrary, when looked into, a great public service. Probably as gross a libel as was ever printed, so far as form went, was the article headed "Two Thieves," with which the New York *Times*, twenty-two years ago, began its attack on the Tweed Ring. But it proved to be one of the greatest services ever rendered by a journal to the community in which it was published. If this distinction did not exist, if every charge or accusatory comment on the action or fitness of a public official were necessarily, because likely to damage him in popular estimation, a criminal offence, not only the freedom but the usefulness of the public press in our day would be at an end. No trustworthy person would follow a calling surrounded with such risks, as no trustworthy person does in despotic countries.

Moreover, the editor of every well-established daily newspaper has already, through the mere fact of being the editor, given tremendous bail for his appearance to answer any charge against him arising out of his manner of doing his editorial work. To run away would be to sacrifice everything he cares about in the world. To add on to this security the thousand-dollar bond of another person is for the most part a ridiculous proceeding.

If all this be true, the present legal mode of bringing editors into court to answer charges of criminal libel is not only oppressive, but absurd. It is precisely the same as that followed in the case of thieves, or burglars, or confidence men, although there can be no such thing as justifiable theft, or burglary, or cheating, since there is no possible way in which a thief by thieving, or a burglar by "burgling," can render the community a service. It is true that in other civilized countries, whatever the law may be, the practice is adapted to the facts of the situation. An editor charged with libel in England or France receives a note from the magistrate or from the prosecuting officer, requesting him to appear at a certain hour on a certain day. At the

worst, this notice is given in the form of a summons. But in these countries great care is taken, in the filling of places on the police bench, especially in the great cities, to see that the magistrates are men of high character, learned in the law, and responsible in feeling as in fact to the more intelligent, respectable, and educated portion of the community, because they belong to it. The use of the process of their courts for purposes of insult, or vexation, or annoyance would drive such men in disgrace from their seats.

In this city we have laid aside all these precautions. We have commented so often in these columns on the manner in which Tammany fills the police justiceships, that we need not, for the purposes of our present argument, go over the ground again. We do not say there are no men among the police justices who are fit for their places. This would be unjust. But we do say that there are enough bad ones to make it perfectly easy for any rascal in good Tammany standing to borrow and use, with their connivance, the process of arrest for the purposes of vexing and oppressing personal or political enemies. This has been done, since Tammany came into power, four times, on pretexts some of them of the utmost frivolity, and without the least expectation of carrying the prosecution any further than the arrest, which is made as annoying as possible, and is made, therefore, to serve as punishment before trial at the hands of a party in the cause.

It may be said that four times are not many, but they are enough to serve as a warning, to inspire timidity among editors, and impose silence on such of them as do not care to pass three or four hours in a police court among criminals and semi-criminals, and, besides the trouble of procuring bail, to incur the expense of employing counsel and preparing a grave answer to a ragamuffin before the Grand Jury. The remedy is very simple. Arrests for libel on the police justices' warrants should be abolished, and the complainant be compelled to go in the first instance, as he has to do now in the second instance, before the Grand Jury and state his case. The Grand Jury would then pass, as they do now, on its reasonableness, and decide, as they do now, whether it had enough merit to warrant its being tried, and grant a war rant or summons, or refuse it, accordingly. Nobody's interest would suffer by this change. Both parties would escape the empty formality of the preliminary arraignment in the police court; the complainant would lose no right which he now possesses, and the defendant would be protected against needless insult and annoyance before it was known whether he was really a malicious slanderer or a public benefactor.

GENUINE FRIENDS OF LABOR.

Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan's gift of a half-million dollars for the endowment of Col. Auchmuty's New York Trade Schools is as noble and beneficent a use of wealth as could well be conceived. It must have carried to the heart of Col. Auchmuty, who has devoted ten years of earnest labor to the building up of these schools, unspeakable joy and thankfulness. As he said in his speech announcing the gift at the exercises of the graduating class on Thursday evening, it has been his fortune to have his work appreciated in a way that seldom falls to the lot of any man. He has now perfect assurance, not only that the work of his schools can be extended and enlarged during his lifetime, but that it will be continued after his connection with them shall have ended. Mr. Morgan's gift has converted a successful experiment of great value into a permanent institution of enduring and continually broadening usefulness to the whole country.

True beneficence has been defined as "that which helps a man to do the work which he is most fitted for, not that which keeps and encourages him in idleness," and this is precisely the object of Col. Auchmuty's schools. His idea is to supply to young men desiring to learn useful trades the means of doing so at a small price and in a thorough manner. In his teaching, the manual and scientific branches of a trade are so combined that the pupil acquires not merely skill, but a knowledge of the principles which underlie his work, and is thus started in the direction of constant growth and development. This is the kind of instruction which breeds master mechanics and inventors. It gives a man a sense of pride in his trade by making him a master of its technique and its principles, and sends him into the world as a living example of the dignity of honest labor. Practical instruction in various trades, such as plumbing, plastering, stone-cutting, painting, brick-laying, carpentering, and tailoring, is given by master mechanics and other competent teachers, and the instruction is accompanied when necessary by the study of technical books and trade papers. The end sought is "to enable young men to learn the science and practice of certain trades thoroughly, expeditiously, and economically, leaving speed of execution to be acquired at real work after leaving the school."

From the outset of his work, Col. Auchmuty has met with the opposition and ill-will of the trade-unions, many of whose members regard his schools as a menace to their welfare. In fact, the establishment of such schools in this and other States has been made necessary by the rules adopted by many organized trades forbidding the employment of more than a very small number of apprentices. In some trades a master mechanic is forbidden to employ more than four apprentices, in others more than two, for a term of four years. Under these rules a master mechanic can graduate only one journeyman a year, or one in two years. The effect of this practice has been to keep the American supply of journeyman mechanics down to only about a fourth of the demand. It is estimated from the figures of the census that out of $23,000,000 paid annually to mechanics in the building trades of New York city, less than $6,000,000 goes to those born here. The number of new journeymen trained by the trades themselves is not adequate to fill the vacancies, much less to supply the constantly increasing demand for larger forces. Many foreign mechanics are induced to come here, some to make this country their home, and others to work here during a busy period and then return to Europe with their savings.

The trade-unions are not to be blamed too sweepingly for this condition of affairs. In the large cities the employment of apprentices is not considered practicable by even the opponents of trade-unionism. The work has to be done so rapidly in many trades that there is no time to devote to the instruction of beginners. This is true, for example, of the type-setting business. All the recruits for the city printing-offices come from the country. Non-union offices in this city, which have no trade reasons for declining to take apprentices, take only a few of them because there is no time for teaching them. This is the case with many other trades. In fact, if it were not for the country supply of fresh journeymen, the American-born contingent of skilled labor would be much smaller than it is. Then, too, there is a feeling in all the trades that the day of apprenticeships has gone by; that there is something like slavery in the binding of a boy to a master for a long term of years, and that the boy, like the man, ought to be permitted to choose his employer and place of work.

All this goes to show the great need of manual schools like those which Col. Auchmuty has founded. Without them, there would soon come a day, if it be not already arrived, when an American boy who desired to learn a trade would be utterly unable to find instruction. We should then as a nation be in the curious position of drawing upon foreign countries for all our skilled labor, as we are now drawing for a great part of it. The folly of a course like this is too obvious to require discussion. We should be denying to a large portion of the youth of the country all opportunities for learning useful trades, and thus fitting themselves for industrious and reputable lives. This is practically what we should be doing in all our large cities now were it not for the trade schools, and yet it is in the cities that the need of useful trades for the rising generation is most felt, both as regards their own future welfare and the moral and political health of the community.

The statistics of Colonel Auchmuty's school show how great its need is, and with what appreciation it is regarded by the persons whom it seeks to benefit. During its first season there were 30 pupils, during the second 98, the third 207, and so on by steady increase till, during the one

just closed, which was the tenth, there were 589. There are somewhat similar schools in a number of other States, and in all parts of the country there is a steadily growing interest in their work and a constantly increasing sense of its value to the whole country. Surely the rich men who, like Mr. Morgan, contribute their wealth to an educational mission of this character, deserve the highest praise from all Americans who love their country and are concerned for its future development and progress.

MR. WHISTLER'S TRIUMPH.

LONDON, March 23, 1892.

IT is reversing the usual order of things when the French, for a fad, affect indifference to technique in art, and the English show signs of beginning to appreciate its value. But just as in Paris the *fin de siècle* Rosicrucians and Idealists, under Sar Peladon and Octave Uzanne, are extolling idea and pretending to despise form in a work of art, in London, etchings by Mr. Whistler and Mr. Haden, from the late Hutchinson and Drake collections, have brought enormous prices when productions of popular Academicians have been resold for a song instead of the original thousands; while at the present moment all the world is rushing to see the exhibition of Mr. Whistler's paintings. It is true that the presence of New York art dealers at Sotheby's and Christie's had much to do with sending up the prices of rare states and prints; that the purchase by the French Government of the portrait of Mr. Whistler's mother has suddenly revealed to Englishmen that he might after all be a painter as well as an eccentric creature who indulges in amusing law-suits, and whose pencil is a clever weapon in newspaper duels. But no matter whence came the inspiration, the fact remains that just now artistic interest centres in the Bond Street Goupil Gallery rather than at Durand-Ruel's.

To those who look only for eccentricity from Mr. Whistler the show must be a disappointment. There are none of the yellow canopies and yellow walls, none of the fluttering butterflies and original schemes of decoration which his name suggests. The pictures, many in old and tarnished frames, hang on Messrs. Boussod & Valadon's red walls as at other times do those of the ordinary exhibitor, and the visitor looks at them from the upholstered sofa of commonplace commerce. The one old Whistler touch is in the catalogue, in which he has collected, as of yore, choice criticisms by men of note who ridiculed him once but to turn the laugh now against themselves. The device lacks novelty, but just after his triumph in France it is natural, and appropriate too, that he should have his jest again at the expense of the blundering English critics who mistook the master for a mountebank. Ruskin's teachings are already obsolete, save in the provinces; Whistler's power has grown with the years.

But to those who delight in the artistic qualities of his work, in its beauty of color and form, its truth to the most subtle effects of nature, its perfect impressionism in the best sense of the word, the exhibition is almost inexhaustible in its interest. It is probably the most representative he has ever given. The forty-four canvases include all his most famous pictures save a few—the portrait of his mother and the "White Girl," now in New York, being the most notable among the missing—and also fine examples of his every period and manner: his earlier studies of detail, his Nocturnes and Symphonies, his wonderful portraits—of Miss Rose Corder, Miss Alexander, Carlyle, Lady Archibald Campbell—paintings so well known that it is useless now to do more than mention them. And really to me the importance of this new exhibition is less in any special contributions to it than in the estimate which, as a whole, it gives of Mr. Whistler's true rank as an artist and of his influence over the younger generation of painters. There is nothing more striking about the collection than what seems, as one first goes through the gallery, its intensely modern character. With the Champ de Mars in one's mind, with the latest efforts of the New English Art Club fresh in one's memory, even not forgetting Monet's forty impressions of a haystack, Mr. Whistler's work might be thought the very latest outcome of the most modern movement in art. The fact is, that Mr. Whistler was a quarter of a century or more in advance of his contemporaries: 1855 is the date on one canvas, the greater number belong to the sixties. He was an Impressionist almost before the name impressionism in art had been heard. The world wondered when Monet a year ago showed those forty haystacks under forty atmospheric conditions, is wondering now at his almost as many treatments of a poplar tree to be seen at Durand-Ruel's. But what are most of Mr. Whistler's Nocturnes but impressions of the river as he watched it from his Chelsea window, looking over to the plumbago works and the church spire and up to old Battersea Bridge?

No wonder that not so many years ago every one, with Ruskin, could find in his genius merely the insolence of a coxcomb flinging his paintpot in the public's face. He had not then had time to educate his critics. Indeed, his wide, far-reaching influence over modern painting is only beginning to be felt, and probably it has never been so emphasized as it is now by the collection at Goupil's. I have heard it argued that it was because he was so determined to force the public to see just those qualities which he considers most essential in art, that in his Nocturnes he has so often sacrificed all others to them. It seems unlikely to me that Mr. Whistler ever had the public—Carlyle's majority—sufficiently at heart to consider them at all. But had he been charitably inclined, and, for the benefit of the ignorant, willing to illustrate that now famous explanation of his in court that a Nocturne of his represented, not merely a morning's work, but the knowledge of a lifetime, he could not have done better than to exhibit, as he is doing now, those of his earlier canvases which are strongest in color and most filled with detail. At these no one can look and continue to believe that it was to conceal his weakness of drawing and indifference to color that he recorded in paint his impressions of twilight and night when form is vague and indistinct and color subdued. Pictures like the "Little White Girl," with the exquisitely worked out geraniums against the muslin gown; the "Gold Screen," with the girl in sumptuous Japanese robes, Japanese fans at her feet; "The Lange Leizen—of the Six Marks," an arrangement of beautiful rich Japanese drapery and china; "The Music-Room," with the old-fashioned furniture and dress and the elaborate design on the window curtains reflected in the mirror; "The Balcony"—pictures like these are distinguished by a masterly rendering of detail which few of the old Dutchmen could rival, much less surpass, a beauty of color which the Venetians might have envied. And it is because he can, when he chooses, paint like this, that Mr. Whistler is qualified to create his Nocturnes, his Symphonies, his Arrangements—because he can, if he wants, paint the sea as brilliantly blue as the sky above, breaking in white foam on solidly handled rocks, as in the "Blue Wave, Biarritz," which Mr. Henry Moore might have taken as his standard, that he knows how to suggest the pale neutral grays and greens at the end of a dull day, just as the "Oyster Smacks" are pushing out from shore. It was the apparent simplicity of his methods, the supposed ease with which the work was done, that so disturbed and puzzled the critics—the fear that he was making a jest of them that led them to lose their tempers and seek to overwhelm him with the storm of their abuse through which he has steered his course so gayly. But the last twenty or thirty years have proved that what seemed child's play to the uninitiated was the most difficult problem to the student, a problem to be solved only by genius. And perhaps the most curious as well as interesting fact in connection with the Goupil Gallery exhibitions is the way papers and critics whose sayings are quoted in the catalogue have, with a few exceptions, veered around and consented to recognize something besides the jester in Mr. Whistler. For his next catalogue he will not have so many choice quotations.

But if his show reminds one of the influence he has had on the present generation, it also reveals the influences which have been most active in his own development. He himself has written his confession of faith in Velasquez and the Japanese masters. But even if he had not, his portraits, especially that of Miss Alexander, that fine harmony in gray and green, would be sufficient proof of the debt he owes to the one; while his careful study of the art of Japan is marked, not so much in his renderings of purely Japanese subjects, the "Gold Screen" and the "Lange Leizen," for example, as in the Chelsea Nocturnes and Symphonies, where a spray of leaves distinctly Japanese in character rises in the foreground, or figures as Japanese in treatment stand and walk on the banks of the Thames. Again, there is something of the feeling, something of the color scheme of Terburg, who might have been a student of Whistler's, in a portrait like the Carlyle. But, accepting all that the masters with whom he was most in sympathy could give, he added far more of his own. For the truly original man is he who knows how to make his own use of great work that has been already produced, not to imitate it, but to create a new masterpiece out of the old material. Is this not exactly what the Rossettis and Swinburnes of our time have done in poetry—what the greatest men have done throughout the ages?

It should not be forgotten in America that Mr. Whistler is an American of Americans; it may therefore be appropriately asked, What has America done for him? It has treated him with—if possible—even more ignorance and coldness than England; this, of course, coming from the desire of the Anglomaniac to out-English the English. It is true that the "White Girl" is, or was, in the Metropolitan Museum; it is also true that the portrait of his mother went travelling around America, only to be bought in the end for the gallery which has the best chance of assuring immortality to the artists represented within its walls. There is in Boston, I believe, at the present moment a

public building in process of decoration by Americans. Has Mr. Whistler, the greatest decorator America has ever produced, been asked to give distinction and importance to what otherwise may be only a striking failure? If he has not — and I am almost sure this is the case—it is at least not too late for Americans at once to endeavor to obtain from him one, if no more, of the few examples of his work still in his possession, which, however, before long may be distributed among galleries everywhere except in his native land. N. N.

ST. JOSEPH'S DAY IN NAPLES.

NAPLES, March 19, 1892.

"WAS there ever such a joyous, happy-go-lucky, noisy, reckless, feckless people as the Neapolitans?" said a grave Piedmontese to me just now, as, despairing of writing a letter in his own room facing the street, he sought refuge in mine, which overlooks the demolition and reconstruction carried on on parallel lines between Via Medina and O'Porto. "Here are you bemoaning and bewailing the misery of Naples, taking your friends willy-nilly into the *fondaci*, the slums, the blind alleys, and the cellars, while I can show you thousands of the very poorest, an hour hence, at their dinner of maccaroni and *zeppole*, with a carafe of wine on every table, so that by night-time we shall have no end of wounded and beaten, and to-morrow 'inquiries' at the hospitals for which no one will be the wiser." "And do you really grudge the poor, nay the poorest, of one sole quarter of Naples a jollification—one dinner washed down with wine that ought to cost them a farthing a litre, pure, light, bright *asprino*, which never turned the weakest head, or ruby-like Posilipo, which cheers but does not inebriate, and which the *dazio consumo* brings up to half a lire without its genuineness being guaranteed? And pray in how many houses of the aristocracy and the far richer burgher will more food be consumed and more wine and liqueurs be drunk than ought to enter into one human body, and which would, converted into money, keep a family of these poor slummers for a month? You may have my room, but not my company." And this last reassuring taunt so enchanting the grumbler that he made no further complaints, I left him in possession and set out to see the Saint in all his glory.

A dear saint's day it is to the generation now dying out, for Mazzini's name was Joseph, and so was Garibaldi's—San Giuseppes both. But, be the truth told, this is "a generation that knew not either of *our* Josephs," and though last Sunday, on the twentieth anniversary of Mazzini's death, the hall of Tarsia was crowded to listen to Prof. Bovio's commemoration of the "Apostle of Italian Unity," his own students and the *élite* of the working classes formed his audience; the plebs shone by their absence. But Mazzini has never been popular in Naples; on the contrary, Garibaldi was *the* saint, *the* hero, *the* idol of Naples thirty years ago. The classes and the masses were at his feet. But now you seek in vain for the images and portraits of Garibaldi above the maccaroni-venders, or the fish-friers, or the famous *zeppole* confectioners. No! the real genuine St. Joseph is reënthroned, and, with the baby Jesus in his arms, reigns supreme in his old quarter, which extends from the Quartiere S. Ferdinando to the Tribunale.

"Signora, signora," said my charming *camariere*, "you can't think of going out into that mob [she also is a Piedmontese]—you, who are still *influenzata!*" But go I did, and have spent just five hours fêting St. Jospeh. First, there were endless Josephs and Josephines of our acquaintance to whom it was proper to send bouquets. One of these, an old friend and guide to the slums, agreed to take us through "the fair" if we would go first to see the old men and women fed by the Little Sisters of the Poor at the hospital on the Corso Vittorio Emanuele. There was nothing for it but to yield, and in about half an hour the *carrozzella* halted before a magnificent edifice where the splendid carriages of the Neapolitan aristocracy stood empty in considerable numbers. Entering, we were greeted by a number of ladies, especially young girls, and begged by the Little Sisters to enter all the rooms and see for ourselves. On the ground floor in the large refectory there were smoking bowls of maccaroni, red with tomato sauce and yellow with cheese, and about 200 nice, clean old men seated with bottles of wine, fruit, and cheese beside their plates. His Eminence Cardinal Sanfelice, is "influenzaed," as is about every third person in Naples, so he had delegated the chaplain of the royal palace to officiate. After blessing the guests and sprinkling holy water over the maccaroni (a very few drops, I am glad to say), he ladled it out himself, and very pretty girls with blue scarfs, from a school near by, took round a plate to each; then followed a plate of fried fish and fried potatoes, a fried egg (to-day is Saturday, so maigre must be observed, though it *is* San Giuseppe), and finally piles of *zeppole*, really an exquisite light toss-up, with cream or jam in the middle, custard puddings, and fruit. "You must come and see the old women," said one of the Little Sisters, and we went up the clean slate stairs to a similar refectory, where all the old women were assembled waiting impatiently for the archpriest to come and "bless them also." We went into the dormitories, marvels of cleanliness, with good iron bedsteads, mattresses, and patchwork quilts; then into the infirmary, where, strange to say, nobody was ill save one old bedridden creature whose table was spread in grand style. On ordinary occasions all "want to be ill," because the food for the sick is more dainty; but to-day the *menu* of the common table had cured them all. From the upper windows the view of Naples, of the sea, Capri, Vesuvius, Castellamare, was simply enchanting. Clearly these old folks, whose life has been of the hardest in their youth and middle age, are having a good time of it now, and won't be in a hurry to go to paradise.

Returning to the refectory, the priest had come up, and the old women were lapping up their maccaroni, many of them finding it difficult to use their forks, and, when no one was looking, using the first three forefingers with lightning speed. Several were so decrepit that they had to be fed by the Sisters. I wanted to know all about the foundation and the budget, but this was not a day for investigations. "Come and see us at any time between ten and four, and we can tell you all." What we know is, that this institution is one of the many established everywhere by these "Little French Sisters," who collect money, food, clothing, furniture, rags, coffee grounds, broken meat from the hotels and wealthy houses; fruit, vegetables, fish, cooked meat, tripe from the poor venders in the poorest quarters, and so carry on their almshouse. Of ices left in the glasses they make a delicious syrup for the sick. It is perfectly wonderful to note the cleanliness, the order, the general air of comfort, that cannot be improvised for a festival.

Quite delighted with the visit, I told my friend that if the archpriest would give us a plate of maccaroni, I could stay all day, but not a minute longer with the inviting *odor* only in my breakfastless vitals. So, in another *carrozzella*, down we dropped to see the poor families at their dinners on the pavements in the streets. We also breakfasted religiously on maccaroni and *zeppole*, then wound our way through the fair of San Giuseppe, of which our hotel is the centre. Truly the noise is deafening—the shouts of the venders of a hundred wares, of the traditional Neapolitan toy, costing two farthings (merely a tin flag which whirls round a tin handle, crying *crik, crik, crik*), whistles, trumpets, all the main stock of every fair contributing to the universal rowdedow. Then, of course, Punchinello is everywhere, on horseback and on foot, jumping through rings, clapping his tin circles, performing in the toy theatres, and delighting all children, aristos or plebs. And all mammas, rich or poor, bring their bairns, especially if they are Giuseppes or Giuseppinas, and all buy toys—the dolls' houses and doll belongings, wonderful to behold; lovely beds and bedding, dolls' kitchens and private drawing-rooms, dolls' wardrobes and dinner services, dolls' cradles, perfect imitations of the real Neapolitan cradle, all artistic, light, and cheap—all save the dolls themselves, which are hideous to view. The gift of a real English doll to an Italian child forms the ne-plus-ultra of generosity even to well-to-do-children. But to-day all the girls got such dolls as there were, and never rested till all the appurtenances of doll life had been added. The prices are not excessive, as I proved by investing half a dollar in twenty-five different presents; then, laden with the spoil, reached my own room in safety, to find five invitations from different friends to "fare il San Giuseppe," to fête the brother, or husband, or lover; but on the whole I think I shall not venture out again in the crowd, so dense that you can walk on their heads.

San Giuseppe has made clear to me certain things which were dark mysteries till now. Visiting the other day some of the new houses wrested at last by the Royal Commissary, and now by the new municipal government, from the Society who contracted for the sanification of Naples, and who have built splendid houses for the rich and middle classes, but none for the evicted slummers, we were astonished to see the numbers already ousted from the poorest *fondaci*, cellars and dog kennels, fairly installed in their new abodes, blessed with Serino water turned on in each room, a sink apiece, and plenty of air and light. For none of these blessings were they at all thankful, and I am sorry to say that they had managed in less than two months to reduce the new abodes to a state of dirt and mess which gave them a strong family likeness to the old tenements demolished. "Well, what have you to grumble at now?" I asked of a woman whom I recognized. "Everything, signora. The porter won't let the children play on the stairs, we can't go down to the court-yard to wash, there is no balcony, and what's the use of all those charcoal stoves for us who have nothing to cook?" "Come here, come here," said a decent-looking woman, "and see how we are ruined." We went to the ground floor, and found a workshop in two very decent rooms, for which only six lire a month was paid. The husband was pleading, gesticulating, with the porter, who, shrugging his shoulders and turning up the palms of his hands, was clearly pantomiming, "Non possumus." He begged us to interfere. "See here! all these horses

and helmets," and there were scores of both. "These are paper-mashed in a mould [papier maché of the coarsest imaginable quality]. They must be dry before they can be painted to look like wood. And here, with no sun, dry they won't, and if they are not consigned for the 18th, they will be left on our hands." Our promises to see if his apartment could not be exchanged for one on the roof, brought no consolation. It was no use unless the horses could be consigned on the 18th! Of course, the great run upon them is on Saint Joseph's day.

When I say that the municipality has succeeded in wresting some half-a-dozen tenements from the Society for housing the evicted, I do not mean that anything has been done expressly for the poor. But as they could not well be all left out in the streets, the houses designed for a better class of workmen have been assigned to some of them at five lire a room per month for the next three years. These houses are not at all adapted to this class of slummers, and their ironical allusions to the "three and more charcoal stoves, with nothing to cook over them," are justifiable. No matter; here will soon be 4,000 of the poorest decently housed, and if they have to walk a long distance to their work, or rather to the seashore where they hope to find a hand-to-mouth job, that is no such great hardship. The shops are beginning to follow their customers, and a hard life have the porters to keep the venders *in* those shops and *off* the pavement. One of their great trials is that they have been taken away from their good old parish priest and don't know where to go. There are as yet no infant schools or even communal schools in the new quarter, and until the citizens set to and do something on their own account, it is useless to bemcan that the French sisters of charity have all the hospitals, places of education, and almshouses in their hands.

Not all, by the way. Yesterday we accompanied some American ladies to the flourishing Froebelian Institute founded by Mme. Schwabe some five and twenty years ago. The building, given or lent, almost tumbled about their ears, and here also the proverb, "All evil harms not," proves true. The boarding-school had to be given up, and, instead, a popular kindergarten and elementary school substituted. The few habitable rooms up stairs are reserved for the normal school for women licensed to teach in the elementary schools, who here learn the kindergarten-school system thoroughly. The present directress is a German, the director an Italian. They work well together, and have in the infant schools 420 waifs and strays from the slums, who are taught cleanliness and order, have soup at midday, and are generally dressed and booted by the parents of the well-to-do children who frequent the same school, eating the same soup and paying seven lire a month. The same system is maintained in the elementary classes. Who can is made to pay for who can't. The mistresses and professors for the high and kindergarten schools number forty-five, the whole "family" over a thousand; yet Miss Baermann and Signor Quarati manage to pay all and have no debts, with something over eleven thousand dollars a year. This includes the salaries, the soup, the gratis pinafores and washing of the same, the lighting and fire for cooking. The boarding-schools could not maintain more than a tenth of the number. These children, left in their homes at night and on Sundays, are a reforming influence there. The mothers are proud of them; they keep neat and do not pawn the dresses given, they wash the children and clean their heads. Great excitement prevailed during our visit, for the name of the beloved director is Joseph, and he was to be got rid of early, on some pretext or other, because the children and the teachers were going to deck his room and prepare garlands and flowers for St. Joseph's namesake. All the little St. Josephs also were to have toys. It was delightful to see what love and kindness prevails. So struck was the American lady by the intelligence, brightness, and cleanliness of the children that she could hardly believe that they were waifs and strays from the slums, but one ten-minutes' dive down from the back of our hotel, though we did not visit by any means the worst parts of Naples, convinced her of the necessity and the use of these institutions for children and parents both.

20th.—As it was too late to post last night, I am happy to add this morning that the early newspapers give no additional items of fights or other disorders as the result of feasting San Giuseppe. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

PSYCHICAL SCIENCE AT THE WORLD'S FAIR IN 1893.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Committee on a Psychical Science Congress to be held in connection with the World's Columbian Exposition of 1893 in Chicago, have issued their preliminary announcement, for the special purpose, they say, of soliciting the suggestions and obtaining the coöperation of all persons who are interested in psychical research throughout the world, in order that the Congress may find a truly international representation. They propose to bring psychical research fully and fairly before the bar of public opinion, to rid it of what may be found wrong, bad, or unsound, and to invest it, if possible, with the dignity of a true science. One means to this end is assured at the outset by the effective measures taken to exclude cranks and other objectionable persons. It is probable that many or most of the leading psychical researchers of all countries will be represented. The phenomena of psychical science are to be treated both historically and analytically, by means of addresses from the highest authorities in their several departments, and also by means of actual experiments conducted before audiences. Among the subjects which the Committee specify are: The general history of psychical phenomena, the evolution of human testimony concerning them, the results of original individual research, and the origin and growth of psychical societies—which latter are already comparatively numerous. Various classes of psychical phenomena are grouped under several heads, and include those of telepathy or thought-transfer; of mesmerism or hypnotism; of hallucinations; of premonitions; of apparitions of the living and the dead; of clairvoyance, clairaudience, psychometry, the mediumistic trance, etc.—of the whole range of these psycho-physical manifestations upon which modern spiritualism is based. Finally, the correlation of all these groups of phenomena with one another, the bearing of psychical science upon the physical sciences, and the answer the former may be found to give to questions concerning human personality and immortality, will be discussed at this Congress.

The Executive Committee is composed mainly of residents of Chicago, who can conveniently attend the meetings which will be held from now until the opening of the Congress in May, 1893. The chairman of the Committee is Col. John C. Bundy, editor of the *Religio-Philosophical Journal*, which has long been fully committed to the scientific method in dealing with the facts and theories of spiritualism, and in denouncing and punishing every kind of fraud or folly to be found under cover of that name. Others are Lyman J. Gage, President of the First National Bank of Chicago; Ernest E. Crepin, H. W. Thomas, D.D., A. Reeves Jackson, M.D., J. H. McVicker, D. Harry Hammer, and D. H. Lambeson. It may be added that the World's Congress Auxiliary has been organized with the approval and support of the Exposition authorities, to have general charge of the series of Congresses of which the Psychical Science Congress is one; and that the directory of the Exposition will provide ample audience rooms. Though the announcement has been out less than a month, the Committee are already in very extensive correspondence, and the responses thus far received are almost unanimous in encouragement and support of the project.—Very truly yours,

Elliott Coues, Vice-Chairman.

Chicago, April 5, 1892.

PHILOSOPHY IN AMERICAN COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The complaint of Prof. Scripture, in your issue of March 31, concerning the backwardness of American colleges and universities in respect to psychology might be extended so as to include all the philosophical sciences. The other day I asked a recent graduate of a Western college what text-book in ethics he had studied. He replied that he couldn't remember the author's name, but he knew the work was old, for, on account of the expiration of the copyright, he had been able to buy his copy very cheaply!

But merely cursing our shortcomings will not help us to reform. We should rather seek the causes of what we deplore, and also consider their relation to the existing forces of progress. The chief cause, apart from the poverty of American colleges, is their original design, which, hardened into unquestioned tradition, has become a fetter upon development. In the first place, most of them were intended for training and instruction, not investigation, and as a consequence their equipment and habits are ill adapted to the demands of the present. Secondly, the predominant interest in their establishment and maintenance has been religious, and because philosophy is more intimately connected with religious beliefs than any other college study, it more than any other has been made ancillary to practical ends. The recitation in "mental philosophy" was formerly supposed to have its primary value in moulding the character of students. The natural result was the stamping as orthodox of certain philosophical dogmas, oftenest those of Sir W. Hamilton and his followers, which were found adapted to this practical end. It followed that the work of the teacher consisted neither in investigating nor in stimulating investigation, but in securing firm assent to what was supposed to be the foundation of a good life. Add to this the traditional notion that the chair of "mental and moral philosophy" is a natural appendage of the office of president, and that the chief qualifications for this office have been clerical ordination and financial and executive ability, and

we have the most complete conditions imaginable for perpetuating the dreary fudge that has been handed down under the name of philosophy. The present tendency to select laymen as college presidents, and the creditable activity of a few departments of philosophy in leading institutions, are hopeful signs, but the notion lingers even yet that the qualifications needful for teaching philosophy are not parallel with those for teaching other branches. Surprise is still expressed when young men receive appointments to this department, as though in philosophy gray hairs or corpulence, rather than specialized knowledge, were the needful qualifications.

The path of progress leads through the emancipation of intellect from these artificial limitations. This does not imply that no connection is to be recognized between philosophy and practical ethics, nor that anything and everything may properly be taught. Just as none of our universities would employ as professor of political science any one known to be radically opposed to the political institutions of the United States, so denominational universities may consistently discriminate between men when they select a professor of philosophy—one may choose the sort of trees one will plant in one's garden; but we ought to insist that whatever calls itself a tree should have life and growth, and not be what one sometimes sees in the courts of German houses, a mere wall painted to represent a grove and yielding only imaginary coolness and shade. No interest of religion is subserved by cherishing the illusion either that a theologian is *eo facto* a philosopher, or that the simulation of thought can ever be as good as thought itself.

Among the forces of progress the new psychology occupies a prominent place. But its advocates may do well to note the conditions under which it is likely to be of greatest service. Prof. Scripture, in the before-mentioned communication, speaks of a certain work as "a tirade against the employment of scientific methods in psychology," and also as having been written during an attack of "materialism-madness." It is scarcely credible that the writer meant what these two statements seem to imply, namely, that, in order to be scientific, psychology must be materialistic. As a believer in the new methods in psychology, I am sorry to see one of their advocates even appear to confuse them with any metaphysical hypothesis, especially the one most likely to hinder their introduction into American colleges and universities. In order to prevent the possible notion that physiological psychology is a disguised materialism, it might be well to emphasize the fact that none of the three world-renowned American specialists in this branch, President Hall and Profs. James and Ladd, is a materialist. This should not, of course, be proposed as an argument for anything, but a mere statement of the fact might disarm the prejudice sure to arise if friends of the new psychology should in its name arrogantly denounce anti-materialistic treatises.

Furthermore, there is need of a frank admission of what Profs. James and Bowne hold in common, that neither physiological nor metaphysical psychology renders the other superfluous. The relation between the two is essentially the same as that between any other natural science and metaphysics. The trouble with psychology, as it is most often taught, is not that it is metaphysical, but that it is neither respectable metaphysics nor decent science.

Finally, the value of a fruitful subject-matter should not be clouded by a fight over names. But this is precisely what happens whenever physiological or cerebral psychology claims a monopoly of the terms *psychology* and (as applied to this realm) *science*. Eliminate the dispute about names, for instance, and what would be left of the contention between Profs. Ladd and James? Above all, conceit, and an overbearing attitude towards those who cultivate equally real fields, are not likely to conduce to progress. True science is modest, even in her triumphs.—Respectfully,

GEORGE A. COE.

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY, April 4, 1892.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH LITERATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent article on the teaching of literature, in the April number of the *Educational Review*, Mr. Brander Matthews writes as follows:

"As yet no American college—so far as I know, at least— has frankly divided this professorship [of English literature and language] and established two chairs, one of English language, and the other of English literature. Perhaps Columbia College has shown the fullest understanding of the exigencies of the situation, and she has not only a professor of the English language and literature, but also a professor of rhetoric, a professor of Literature, and an instructor in Anglo-Saxon."

The saving clause, "so far as I know," might at first thought be regarded as sufficient to shield the writer from the charge of having accidentally overlooked some of the smaller American colleges. But in reality this saving clause is intended to imply that Mr. Brander Matthews has taken some pains to examine the teaching of English in the larger institutions at least, and that he has not discovered any college taking the high stand of our metropolitan cousin. For the benefit, however, of those who may still think that Mr. Matthews, in his sweep from Cape Cod to New Jersey, has taken in the whole country, I should like to call your attention to a few facts.

The Johns Hopkins University has for years separated the teaching of literature and language, and the separation is distinctly recognized in the titles of the two chairs. The University of Michigan, the largest university on this continent, has also gone beyond Columbia in a complete separation of English literature from philology on the one hand and from rhetoric on the other, the three classes of work being in the hands of a full professor, two assistant professors, and a corps of instructors. For two years, also, Cornell University has had both a full professor of English literature, and another full professor with assistants in charge of rhetoric and English philology, showing in this case also a complete separation of the literary from the language study. This last example has been followed more recently by the Leland Stanford Junior University, in the appointment of Dr. Ewald Flügel, announced in the same number of the *Review*.

But it is not strange, perhaps, that the article in question should be somewhat behind the times, since at the very beginning, in reviewing the recent book of Mr. J. Churton Collins, Mr. Brander Matthews expresses "surprise" at the state of English teaching in England. And yet any one acquainted with the literature of the subject knows that the controversy has been going on in England for more than five years, and that one of the articles republished in the book of Mr. Collins appeared in the *Quarterly Review* for January, 1887.

Notwithstanding these criticisms, any article which helps to place the teaching of English in a proper light before the public will be of service, and there can be no question that the article in the *Educational Review* is one of these. OLIVER FARRAR EMERSON.

ITHACA, N. Y.

EDITH WALFORD AND HER WORKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have only to-day had my attention called to the *Nation* of February 25, containing Mr. Kirk's letter and your rejoinder. I did not see the previous *Nation* containing the criticism referred to.

I am the E. (Edith) Walford who made the translation of the 'Story of the Chevalier Bayard,' from the French of M. de Berville. The book was the first of the "Bayard Series," edited for Sampson Low, Son & Marston (as the firm then was) by the late Hain Friswell. It was quite by an oversight that E. Walford instead of Edith Walford appears upon the title-page. I remember Mr. Edward Walford calling upon me at Mr. Friswell's house in Great Russell Street, and suggesting that in future it would be more convenient to have my full name attached to my work, as he was receiving so many congratulations that were intended for me.

I also compiled the 'Table-Talk and Opinions of Napoleon Buonaparte,' going conscientiously through every book on the subject in the Library of the British Museum. My name, I see, does not appear at all on the title-page—if for any editorial or publisher's reason, I did not hear of it. But in the 'Words of Wellington,' the next volume of the Bayard Series which I compiled, my name is on the title-page ("Compiled by Edith Walford"), and in the editor's preface it is referred to as follows: "Very little need be said of this companion to the 'Table-Talk of Napoleon.' The same compiler has carried out the suggestion of the editor," etc.

I am quite conscious of being a very obscure author, but I am sure you will not consider me unduly egotistical in wishing to lay claim to my own performances.

I am, dear sir, Yours faithfully,

EDITH WALFORD BLUMER.

SIERRA MADRE, LOS ANGELES CO., CAL., April 2, 1892.

NON SEQUITUR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Evening Post* of March 30 has an unsigned letter from Boston, relating to the report of a Joint Special Committee of the Legislature upon the State commissions. It contains a conclusion against which I desire to protest:

"It is to be noticed, as the first essential feature of the report, that the system of government by commissions has the unanimous approval of the Committee. This is all-important—in the first place, because it will settle for this generation, doubtless, all of the criticism of the existence of commissions as desirable features of our State Government, and again because it will now turn attention to the improvement of the system rather than its abolition, and it will be likely to lead other States to do what is being done here with such success in Massachusetts."

One assertion being, perhaps, as good as another, I say that, so far from this, it is only drawing into more definite shape that conflict between the Executive and the Legislature which is bound to come, and waits only for an executive head who has the courage to appeal directly to the people on behalf of his office

against the usurpations and abuse of power by the Legislature.

Gov. Russell has in two annual messages to the Legislature protested against the government of the State by commissions, and hinted pretty strongly at the propriety of abolishing them and intrusting their work to the Executive as the proper agent. He has also, on two or three occasions, got into conflict with different commissions, and been prevented from changing the members by an exertion of purely party strength on the part of the Council. Yet in the order of the Legislature appointing this Committee, and printed in the report, no allusion whatever is made to the Governor or his opinions, while in the body of the report itself the Governor is as completely ignored as if he did not exist. The Committee would probably say that the Governor should appear and present his views; but that Gov. Russell very properly refused to do. It is beneath the dignity of the chief magistrate to appear as a suppliant before a hostile committee of a hostile body which is itself only a branch of the government of which he is another branch. So that it comes to this, that seven men, representing less than a thirty-fifth part of the State, can of their own motion, and on a wholly one-sided statement of the case, suppress, at least for the present, all discussion of a subject declared by the head of the Executive to be of the highest importance, and while that head has no opportunity of being heard —at all events, so long as adherence to routine forbids him to appeal directly to the people.

An analysis of the report would furnish, if space allowed, a most fruitful subject. But it may be said in general that it breathes in every line the corporate spirit of the Legislature; its jealousy of the Executive, and desire to fetter him in every possible way; its equal jealousy of personal prominence of any kind—all the members wanting to be captains and none privates; and its indifference to the character both of administration and legislation as compared with the indulgence of this ruling passion.

It seems strange that some Governor does not see the splendid reputation that awaits the man who can induce the people to join with him in raising his office to its proper authority, and so bringing some order out of the present chaos. The fact is that as, by the Darwinian theory, organs which are unused for generations lose their vigor and proper form, so the breed of Governors has become divided between those who are content to accept positions of honest insignificance, and those who are eager to use that insignificance, from its very absence of personal responsibility, as a cloak for the darkest and most extensive corruption and intrigue. G. B.

Boston, April 9, 1892.

A MYSTERY OF THE BALLOT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In looking over the pages of the *Historical Magazine*, I noticed an article copied from the Boston *Advertiser* for some date about A. D. 1860, calling attention to a matter which has often puzzled those who have counted ballots. It is this: when several persons ballot honestly to choose several persons on one ballot, how is it that more than the necessary number receive a majority of ballots? For example: if five men each vote for three candidates, requiring thus three votes to elect, why is it that more than three of them get three votes? In dealing with larger figures, the number of successful candidates may be so many as to almost double the list. I have known some such instances, and have often heard the statement that the result was impossible and showed evident fraud. After studying the example given in the article quoted, I believe that I discern the principle, a very simple one, but I have never happened to see it stated. I will therefore do so, believing that many persons share my ignorance and will be glad to see an explanation.

The rule seems to be this: multiply the number of officers to be chosen by the number of votes, and divide the result by the number required for an election; the quotient will be the number of persons who can be elected, and the remainder will represent unnecessary or cumulative votes, which may be discarded.

Thus, if five voters each vote for three candidates, a total of fifteen votes is cast; which, divided by three, the number necessary for a choice, gives five candidates receiving a majority vote.

Example:

A votes for candidates	1,	2,	3.			
B " " "	1,	2,	3.			
C " " "	1,			4,	5.	
D " " "		2,		4,	5.	
E " " "			3,	4,	5.	

The individual ballot might be varied considerably, always resulting, however, in a majority vote for five candidates. In fact, as the majority is always a little more than one-half the number of voters, the quotient in the rule must always be at least one less than double the number of candidates; but the greater the number of voters and candidates, the less the discrepancy will be. In fact, the true answer to the problem seems to be this: the number of candidates receiving a majority may always amount to twice the number voted for on one ballot, *less one* invariably, and also less a few more, according to the results of the rule. But I think it will surprise most persons to find that if 100 persons ballot for 30 candidates, 58 could receive a majority vote, or 51 votes apiece; though a little explanation makes it self-evident.

It seems that the Legislature of Massachusetts had made provision for this point. In the Revised Statutes of 1836, chapter 4, section 13, it was provided that

"if, at any election, a greater number of candidates than the number to be elected shall severally receive a majority of the whole number of ballots, a number equal to the number to be elected, of such as have the greatest excess over such majority, shall be deemed and declared to be elected; but if the whole number to be elected cannot thus be completed, by reason of any two or more of such candidates having received an equal number of ballots, the candidates having such equal number shall be deemed not to be elected."

This was during the period when an absolute majority was necessary to a choice; but in 1855 the plurality law was established by Amendment No. 14. The statute was then altered (see Gen. Stat., chap. 7, §14, and Pub. Stat. chap. 7, §25), providing that in all elections of civil officers by the people, "the person or persons having the highest number of votes shall be deemed and declared elected, but no persons receiving the same number of votes shall be deemed to be elected, if thereby a greater number would be elected than required by law."

This, of course, did away with the old trouble of having too many candidates receive a majority vote, as that feature was not essential. It is confined, however, to popular elections, and the case still arises in representative bodies, city councils, societies, and others where the majority rule remains.

I trust, therefore, this little explanation will not be deemed superfluous.

W. H. Whitmore.

Boston, March 17, 1892.

Notes.

Roberts Bros. have in preparation a wholly new edition of Jane Austen's novels, limited to 1,000 copies in eleven 16mo volumes, and to 250 copies in octavo size. Each volume will have a frontispiece design by E. Garrett, and the type will be clear.

A History of the United States for the special use of schools, from the pen of Mr. John Fiske, is to be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A social study of American society, by Hamilton Aïdé, has been given the title of 'A Voyage of Discovery,' and will soon be brought out by the Harpers.

Macmillan & Co. promise a new edition of Mr. William Winter's 'Shakspere's England,' and of Edgerton Castle's 'Schools and Masters of Fence.' The latter work, hitherto an expensive quarto, is to be accommodated to the Bohn Library.

Cassell announces 'In a Steamer Chair, and other Shipboard Stories,' by Luke Sharp (Robert Barr).

Charles L. Webster & Co. will soon have ready a collection of the poems of William Sharp, entitled 'Flower o' the Vine: Romantic Ballads, and Sospiri di Roma.'

Dr. William Lyon Phelps of Harvard University has nearly completed a book on 'The Beginnings of the English Romantic Movement.' It is a study of the germs of Romanticism in England from 1725 to 1765. The book will probably be published in the fall.

Mrs. Elizabeth E. Evans has made an exhaustive study of the Kaspar Hauser literature, new and old, and her just finished narrative is on the eve of publication.

We learn from a late *Academy* that T. Fisher Unwin will shortly publish a book of reminiscences by George Jacob Holyoake, 'Sixty Years of an Agitator's Life'; that an Australasian Dictionary of Biography, by Philip Mennell, will be published by Hutchinson & Co.; and that Netherton & Worth have issued Vol. I., A to H, of a Modern English Biography, by Frederic Boase, that will contain concise memoirs of nearly 8,000 public characters who have died since 1850.

Little was known until very recently of the private library of the Borghese family at Rome. It is therefore a surprise to scholars both in and out of Italy to learn—since the culmination of the financial difficulties which have overtaken the princely house—that the Borghese palace contained not only the noted picture-gallery, but an immense book-collection, much larger and, in some respects, of even greater interest than the well-known libraries of the Barberini, Chigi, and other old Roman families. The collection is a miscellaneous one, but some specialties—among them music—are very fully represented. Of course, as might naturally be expected, the library abounds in incunabula, other book rarities, and rich bindings. We understand that a limited number of catalogues of the collection will be placed as soon as possible in the hands of a New York firm of booksellers.

In the Cantonal Library of Aarau, Switzerland, the librarian has just discovered a copy of the first edition of Hans Holbein's 'Bilder des Todes,' published at Lyons in 1538, and

containing forty-one woodcuts. Bound up in the same volume are also forty-six woodcuts by the same artist, illustrative of the Old Testament.

A complete *catalogue raisonné* of Parisian journals and periodicals, with date of establishment, name of publisher, price, etc., has been issued by Albert Schultz (Paris, 1892). It is the first full list of such works, analytically and systematically arranged, that has ever been printed. We may add that, during the year 1891, there were started in Paris 821 newspapers and reviews, of which, however, the greater part died of inanition before the end of the year.

'Friedrich der Grosse in seinen Aussprüchen über Religion, Erziehung und Schule,' by E. Schroeder (Berlin: Rentzel, 1892), is a timely publication that might be profitably perused by William II. Frederick the Great did not tell his subjects that if they disliked his politics, they could shake off the dust of their fatherland from their feet, but believed that "a ruler should so govern that people would want to come into the country instead of getting out of it." It was this policy that made Prussia a land of refuge for French Huguenots and Salzburg Protestants, and, by adding to her population a host of earnest, frugal, and skilful mechanics and thrifty husbandmen, contributed largely to her industrial wealth and prosperity and her political greatness. It has been the pursuit of this policy, in short, that rendered it possible for the dynasty of Hohenzollern to become the imperial house of Germany. The extracts in this anthology are taken from original editions and chronologically arranged.

Soule's useful and standard 'Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous or Parallel Expressions' comes to us in a new edition revised and enlarged by Dr. George H. Howison of the University of California (Philadelphia: Lippincott). This work has been before the public for fully twenty years, and enjoys a deserved reputation for both fulness of matter and ease of reference. The revision has been mainly confined to discriminating further between the various senses of leading words, and to increasing the number of parallel expressions, enlarging the bulk by about one-third. The Dictionary easily stands at the head of books of its class.

The continued popularity of the poet Calverley is attested by the issue of third editions of his 'Literary Remains,' with a memoir by Sir Walter J. Sendall, and of his translation of Theocritus (London: Geo. Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan). The latter of these is certainly the most interesting of the versions of the Idylls, owing partly to the various metres and partly to the quality of the English into which they are rendered. The difficulties that beset translation could hardly be more strikingly illustrated than by comparison of this volume with Andrew Lang's richer and more picturesque version; the original style has suffered a change in both, and which of the two English forms has most verisimilitude is a matter on which scholars and poets might easily disagree, according as the Elizabethan affectation or the late Georgian manner appeals most to their taste. Calverley's own standards may be found in his two or three essays on the subject of translation, which are as admirable as any, to be found in his 'Remains'; but of them, and of the verses included in that collection, and in particular the renderings of Latin hymns, there is no occasion to speak. We cannot refrain, however, from once more giving a word of praise to this delightful memoir of his life, and from expressing admiration for the fine fibre and quality of the man.

Two new volumes have been added to the collection of Peacock's novels (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan), edited by Dr. Garnett, of the previous issues of which we have made mention. 'Maid Marian' is most interesting because of its literary coincidence with 'Ivanhoe,' of which it was independent, but with which, nevertheless, it has points of contact, of which the most is made in Peacock's favor by the editor. 'The Misfortunes of Elphin' also goes back into the past of English fable for its subject, and fortunately its field has been less traversed in literature, so that it has a unique quality and an originality that verges on being factitious. In both these volumes the peculiarities of Peacock's genius find admirable play, and they help greatly in giving it variety of expression.

'War Papers and Personal Reminiscences, 1861-65,' read before the Missouri Commandery of the Loyal Legion, and published by the Commandery, is a substantial accession to the list of kindred publications. The present volume contains twenty-four papers, of which three are eulogies and one or two of the longer ones are historical criticisms. The rest belong to the class of personal reminiscences which give chief value to the publications of military societies. They, of course, vary greatly in value and interest, some being of a very high order, while others are of trifling importance. The proof-reading seems to have been very imperfectly done, and some of the papers show the need of editorial revision. As a whole, the volume will be a useful addition to the historical material of the civil war, but might easily have been made more so. Its binding is uniform with those of the Ohio and New York volumes already published.

'The Realm of Nature: An Outline of Physiography,' by H. R. Mill of Edinburgh, is published in this country by the Scribners as one of their University Extension Manuals. It is an excellent book—clear, comprehensive, and remarkably accurate considering its scope. The standard errors that one has come to expect in one text-book after another are successfully avoided, and this indicates high and scholarly attainments on the part of the author, and a broad acquaintance with modern sources of scientific statements. The book gives an account of matter and energy, of the earth as a planet and its relations to the sun; of its atmosphere, oceans, and lands; of the geological record, of the continents, and of life. There is an appendix on the derivation of scientific terms, and an index. The charts are neatly prepared, and exhibit a large variety of facts of distribution. Among the novelties is a chart of equidistant coastal lines, illustrating the accessibility of Europe from the sea, while central Asia is so remote. Although the knowledge gained by a university extension course in using such a book as this is necessarily fragmentary, and unlike that resulting from the more thorough courses given at universities on the various subjects here included, still one who reaches a good understanding of the book may regard himself as having made a real advance in his education towards an appreciation of nature. At the close of the preface, it is stated that Prof. Shaler of Harvard has "supplied occasional illustrations from the point of view of the American physiographer"; but the publishers seem to have set narrow limits to these additions. The book is essentially British, the rest of the world being treated only in a general way. The enthusiastic teacher of country classes in Wisconsin, for example, where university extension is well fathered, can hardly expect his scholars to enjoy the presence of special temperature and rainfall charts of the British Isles in the absence of similar special charts for our own country. The plan and general execution of the book is so good, and even in its present form its value is so great, that we hope the publishers will soon be able to bring out a truly Americanized edition.

The subdivision of what older scholars used to learn as British America into various provinces and territories under the expanded general name of Canada, makes a general account of that vast country welcome. A 'Geography of the Dominion of Canada and Newfoundland' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) has been prepared by the Rev. W. P. Greswell, under the auspices of the Royal Colonial Institute, and gives a compact account of our neighbor on the north. The maps are clear and sufficient for a small book; the chapters are succinctly written, dwelling briefly on the most characteristic features of the region. The total population is placed above 5,000,000, broadly distributed, unlike that of Australia, where concentration in cities is excessive. The weaker side of the work comes from its author not having personal acquaintance with his subject, and from his unscientific training that allows the acceptance of questionable statements, such as those from Maury about ocean currents (p. 82); but the book is a useful addition to our libraries.

'The Story of the Hills,' by the Rev. H. N. Hutchinson (Macmillan), is of about the same quality as its predecessor by the same author, the 'Autobiography of the Earth,' of which we could give no very favorable judgment some months ago. The newer book tells briefly of the uses of mountains, of sunshine and storm, and of plants and animals in the mountains. How mountains were made is discussed in chapters on the accumulation of their materials, on their subsequent deformation, and on their denudation. There are several good reproductions from photographs, some of which are by Donkin. The book will interest and inform its readers, and yet, in looking it over, we have a sense of the recent acquisition of his knowledge by the author. Of course, all books must have errors, but it is rather late now to find the Foehn wind ascribed to a source in the Sahara; and it is a regret to see yet again a repetition of the mistaken belief that all the Pennsylvanian mountains are synclines, and that in time the Jura Mountains *must* come to the same inversion between topography and structure.

The second part of Ratzel's 'Anthropographie' (Stuttgart: Engelhorn) follows nine years after the first. It is a volume of nearly 800 pages of serious, suggestive reading, which will stand well by the thoughtful teacher who wishes to comment on his texts either in history or geography. The essays on thinly populated districts, on the dwindling of low peoples, on the location of cities and towns, and on geographical names, are particularly interesting. The various chapters are closed by notes and references, giving numerous indications for the specialist for further study.

The report of the United States National Museum for 1889 is a bulky volume of more than 900 pages. Besides the special reports of Prof. Goode and his assistant curators, it contains a number of articles of more general interest—among others, the Professor's essay on the museums of the future; William J. Thomson's 111 pages, 48 plates, and 18 figures on

Easter Island, its inhabitants and peculiar history; Prof. O. T. Mason's account of aboriginal methods of dressing skins, 36 pages and 32 plates; and an interesting presentation of the evolution of the American rail and track, 51 pages and 137 illustrations. In this last no attention is given the wrought-iron chair that was such an important item in Western railroad construction about 1855, yet an exhibit is not complete without it. The chair to which we refer was made of a flat piece of iron, say eight inches square and half an inch in thickness, with a hole punched for a spike near each corner at each side of the end of each of the rails forming the joint, and with two or three inches of the middle of the outer side and of the inner turned up and back against the sides of the two rails so as to grasp their bases. This chair rested on joint ties, usually "taken out of wind" by the adzemen; it was displaced by cast-iron chairs and fish-plates and bolts at a later date.

Two more sheets have appeared of Vogel's large-scale map of the German Empire (Gotha: Perthes; New York: B. Westermann & Co.): one to which Emden on the Frisian coast gives its name, and one Frankfort on the Main, though the latter sheet embraces Gotha, Erfurt, and Coburg on the extreme east. The execution is beautiful.

Mr. Gardner M. Jones of the Salem (Mass.) Public Library has made and printed a "Rough Subject Index" to the Proceedings, Bulletin, and Historical Collections of the Essex Institute of that city (six, twenty-two, and twenty-seven volumes respectively). Completeness has not been aimed at, but the more important articles have been selected. The service was worth performing, and Mr. Jones is entitled to the thanks of historical students.

The *Critic*, reviewing Maitland's 'American Slang Dictionary,' says: "Under D should be inserted the popular colloquialism *dog gone* (*dog go on it?*)." The popular colloquialism is *dog gone it*, and we have always supposed that it was (like *darn it* and *dern it* for *damn it*) a mild form of swearing, being a euphemistic corruption of *God damn it*, made by transposing the initials *g* and *d* and twisting the sound a little —a phrase intended to suggest the more robust oath without being obnoxious to serious reproof.

On Feb. 22 Prof. Percy Gardner read before the Hellenic Society a paper on "The Chariot Group of the Mausoleum," contending with Stark and Wolters that the two figures of Mausolus and Artemisia should not be connected with the chariot at all. These two statues were of a workmanship manifestly superior to that exhibited in the chariot and horses. These last being by Pythis, the two figures must be attributed to one of the other artists, Scopas, Bryaxis, Timotheus, and Leochares, known to have worked upon the sculptures of the monument. Given the well-established proportion between the heights of men and horses upon all Greek monuments, a comparison of the stature of the figures with that of the horses made it impossible to suppose that they belonged to the "Chariot Group." The chariot stood empty on the summit of the monument, while the figures of Mausolus and Artemisia were placed somewhere inside the building, as befitted their superior style of sculpture. Dr. A. S. Murray and Mr. Arthur Smith of the British Museum defended the theory that the two figures belonged to the chariot, and Dr. Murray explained that, although the contemplated regrouping of the Mausoleum figures would suggest the grouping of them with the chariot, nothing would be so placed as to force this arrangement upon the eye.

Prof. Calvin Thomas writes to us from Ann Arbor:

"A paragraph in your critique of Walt Whitman begins: 'Whitman can never be classed, as Spinoza was by Schleiermacher, among "God-intoxicated men."' Is this only an inadvertence, or has your critic authority for ascribing to Schleiermacher a phrase that is commonly credited to Friedrich von Hardenberg (Novalis)? In the Tieck-Schlegel edition of Novalis's Works, volume ii., page 261, is to be found, among a mass of 'fragments,' the sentence, 'Spinoza ist ein Gott - trunkener Mensch.'"

—The very least of amateur astronomers need never to despair because of the lack of costly apparatus, in the face of events like two that have recently taken place. It is now commonly known that the *stella nova* in Auriga which has been absorbing the attention of many observatories for the past seven or eight weeks, was first seen by a Scottish amateur, who modestly notified the Astronomer Royal for Scotland by an anonymous post-card. He turns out to have been Thomas D. Anderson, Esq., of Edinburgh, who is now encouraged to make a further communication regarding his early observations of the star, telling how his doubts as to the character of the strange body were gradually removed. To this he adds: "You might also allow me to state that my case is one that can afford encouragement to even the humblest of amateurs. My knowledge of the technicalities of astronomy is, unfortunately, of the meagrest description; and all the means at my disposal on the morning of the 31st of January, when I made sure that a strange body was present in the sky, were Klein's 'Star Atlas' and a small pocket telescope which magnifies ten times." The very great service to science arising from simple but faithful observation of this type is rarely more conspicuously shown. Without it, months would doubtless have elapsed before the star would have been discovered in the necessarily slow, but certain, process of comparison of the photographs of the sky taken at frequent intervals at Harvard College Observatory. By that time this star would most likely have become too faint for satisfactory research upon its peculiar physical constitution. As it is, the beautiful photographs of its spectrum which have now been obtained at Harvard and elsewhere reveal a multitude of bright lines, which indicate a very complex constitution, quite unlike that of the ordinary variable star. Notwithstanding the fact that all the lines in the spectrum of the *nova* are broad, there is no falling off in intensity at the edges, as in the case of the hydrogen lines in such a star as Sirius. It is early yet to announce any definitive result from the examination of the spectra, but the suggestion seems likely that there may have been a celestial collision, perhaps of two large bodies, but perhaps only of two meteor-swarms. The latter, if it be finally proved, will afford a much-needed confirmation of the meteoritic hypothesis — a confirmation which Mr. Lockyer is by no means slow to predict. The unique service rendered by the Harvard chart-plates is worthy of note: this series began as long ago as November 3, 1885, and it was but a short task to examine the entire collection covering the constellation of Auriga. This proved at once, and beyond a doubt, that the new star was invisible up to December 1, 1891, that it was quite bright on the 10th, increased in brilliancy for the next ten days, and subsequently slowly faded away for a month or more, until the date of discovery by Mr. Anderson, when it had already become a star of inconspicuous magnitude.

—A second event is the issue from the press (Longmans) within the last few days of Dr. Otto Boeddicker's superb 'Atlas of the Milky Way,' made at Lord Rosse's famous observatory at Birr Castle, Ireland, during the past five years, and wholly without telescopic aid. Stump and lead pencil and a keen eye have been the chief instruments in producing this really splendid pictorial representation of the Galaxy. It gives the aspect of these star-strewn regions of the northern sky as they appear to the naked eye (a little better than the normal) on the best and clearest of moonless nights. No pains have been spared to insure the highest accuracy without optical assistance; still, Dr. Boeddicker desires his work to be regarded as a first approximation only, and as merely the first step necessary towards a knowledge of the structure of the sidereal universe. His specific point is this: the admirable photographs that have recently been taken of parts of the Milky Way in no sense supersede careful hand-drawing of what is seen by the naked eye. Obviously the photograph gives a section of the Galaxy lying much beyond what we see without optical means, since it resolves into stars what to the naked eye appears as unresolved nebulosity. Thus the hope seems to be justified that by superimposing the drawing on the photograph some knowledge may be obtained of the structure of the Galaxy in the line of sight. To this end, Dr. Boeddicker has already in hand the systematic photography of the Milky Way at Parsonstown—a work whose conclusion can be reached only at the termination of a period of some years. It will be a misfortune if the same observer is unable to continue this research on a like system through the constellations of the southern hemisphere.

—A contribution to vol. xi. of the *Taalstudie* bears emphatic witness to the interest which is now taken, beyond the limits of English-speaking peoples, in what is destined, beyond question, to become the leading speech of the earth. We refer to an article by Mr. C. Stoffel of Nijmegen, occupying no fewer than thirty-eight ample pages, entitled, "Annotated Specimens of 'Arry-ese': a Study in Vulgar English." This essay, it should be remembered, in view of later kindred elucidations, is dated 1889. Mr. *Punch's* 'Arry is, of course, the eponymus of the uncouth dialect with which it is concerned. The enthusiastic expositor of this jargon, who writes our language almost faultlessly, has, certainly, handled his subject much as if he were a born Englishman. That, being a foreigner, he should, here and there, be open to correction, was, however, perhaps inevitable. If we do not mistake him, he is unaware that *along of*, 'owing to,' *flam*, *flush*, 'abounding,' *hum*, 'humbug,' *optics*, 'eyes,' *tip-top*, *topping*, and *top-sawyer* have long been established, and that some of them are even now reputable. Of good age, too, are expressions like *fit to drop*, as could be evidenced out of De Foe; and, further, since they are employed, though only in a light style, by such authors as Bentham, Thackeray, Cardinal Newman, Mr. T. Hughes, and Sir George W. Dasent, they have not, in recent times, wholly lost caste. In the same category as this *fit* is *lingo*, wrongly explained as meaning, with "the lower orders," 'slang.' All other "orders" use it, except in grave discourse, but usually in a contemptuous sense, for 'language' and 'diction.' Far from modern, likewise, is *to go to pot*. Dr. Bentley,

for instance, wrote, referring to the Letters of Phalaris, "For, if the Agrigentines had met with them, they had certainly *gone to pot*," which Mr. Stoffel's fellow-countryman, the learned Van Lennep, amusingly misrendered, "Si enim eas invenissent Agrigentini, sine dubio *tergendis natibus inserviissent.*"

—Nor can we at all agree with the essayist in considering the colloquialism *'em*, 'them,' or *just about*, 'pretty nearly,' *left out in the cold*, *on the boil*, *on the mend*, *on the watch*, *prig* (sb.), *rollicking*, *sneak* (sb.), and *stiffish* as the exclusive property of plebeians. And why should he object to *shunt* in its figurative acceptation? We find, in the *Saturday Review*, as far back as 1858, in vol. v., p. 261, "Practically, General Peel is not *shunted*, but shelved." Exception is also to be taken to the judgment that "a *trifle* tedious" is "decidedly slangy"; it being not a whit more so than "a *little* tedious." Such a mistake as that of defining *gills* by "cheeks" is very pardonable. And so is the characterization of the epithet in 'Arry's *blarmed noosance:* "a mysterious term, reminding us of the equally mysterious 'gormed,' affected by Mr. Peggotty." With respect to certain local and low-class words and pronunciations which, like other writers abroad, he styles "Yankeeisms," Mr. Stoffel is occasionally at sea, as could be shown, if we had space for the showing. Moreover, it is still to be discovered, as by him, by linguistic speculators generally, in England and elsewhere, that we have come to possess distinct dialects, to some extent, and that, in scientific philology, *Yankeeism* and *Americanism* are, respectively, species and genus. In closing these strictures on the hazardous undertaking which we have cursorily criticised, it must be acknowledged that, in spite of them, it has, on the whole, been accomplished with very considerable success.

—The brain, the temperament, the will which made the great commander who suppressed the rebellion, are shown as never before in G. Kruell's latest masterpiece of wood-engraving, his portrait of Grant. It is really the President, in civilian dress, but as yet not overcome by the wiles of flatterers and intriguers, and so still essentially the soldier, simple of mind and invincible of purpose—the man at the height of his physical and mental powers. As a delineation of character, this likeness is as wonderful as its predecessors of the same class, the Lincoln and the Webster; and technically it ranks with either if we were not disposed to say of Mr. Kruell's work that his latest performance is his best. Here, as before, the artistic excellence overshadows the mechanical, and the result is portraiture in the grand manner, akin more to the brush than to the graver. The color scheme is very rich, and the background admirably devised. The handling of textures —flesh, hair, linen, and broadcloth—is perfection. But always one comes back to the "moral" of this face, conveyed in the firm-set mouth and inflexible nose, and eyes which did not flinch before the slaughter of the Wilderness. The correlation of these features has been thoroughly felt and most forcibly expressed. Mr. Kruell's brilliant success in this instance, as in that of his Lincoln and Darwin, has been reached by previous study and engraving of his subject from the same original, a much-prized photograph owned by Mr. Nast, and from other portraits from life. It must profoundly discourage any other artist in black and white ambitious to produce the final portrait of Grant. No connoisseur of wood-engraving can afford to overlook this example of the art in its highest advancement. With the public, it will make its way at sight. Mr. Kruell's address is East Orange, New Jersey; and the print may also be had of F. Keppel, 20 E. 16th St., N. Y.

—At a meeting of the Oxford Ancient History Society on Feb. 29, Mr. Haverfield, best known perhaps among scholars for his work upon Roman inscriptions in the Latin Corpus, gave some account of the work recently done upon the north wall of Chester. There was no doubt that its lower portion was of Roman construction. It had been built, perhaps, as late as the reign of Septimius Severus, with stones mainly taken from a burial-ground; hence the number of inscribed and, in some cases, sculptured tombstones which Mr. Haverfield's investigations have recently obtained. The task imposed upon the excavators was the laborious and costly one of discovering which stones were inscribed, and of substituting in the restored structure of the wall new stones of equal size. This has now been completely done, and the inscriptions obtained are mainly of interest as bearing upon the organization of the legionary forces kept by the Romans in Britain. One legion hitherto supposed to have been stationed at Carlisle is now shown to have occupied Chester. The style of the sculptures showed no traces of a local school of art like that found in similar cases in other parts of the Empire, notably on the Rhine. Mr. Haverfield exhibited a curious but rude representation of the death of Actæon, and a remarkably perfect recumbent figure from the tomb of a grand lady of the Roman colony at Chester. This very admirable piece of sculpture is the best thing of the kind which has been unearthed in England. The chairman, Prof. Pelham, remarked of a third piece of sculpture given among Mr. Haverfield's slides, that all such representations of a horseman running down a diminutive barbarian had been clearly traced back to their Greek original at Pergamum. He also spoke of the English study of Roman remains in Great Britain, saying that it was now to be hoped that something would be done by Oxford men to put these studies more nearly upon the high level attained by the French investigations of the Roman occupation of Gaul. He also referred to the efforts now being made in Germany to gain a systematic and complete knowledge of the great Roman wall. Similar investigations are now in progress on the line of the northern wall in Britain under the auspices of Mr. Nelson and the Glasgow Society of Antiquaries.

GOODYEAR'S GRAMMAR OF THE LOTUS.

The Grammar of the Lotus. A New History of Classic Ornament as a Development of Sun-worship, with Observations on the "Bronze Culture" of Prehistoric Europe, as derived from Egypt, based on the study of patterns. By William H. Goodyear. London: Sampson Low; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

THE credit of Egypt in the history of art has been singularly unstable. A generation ago she was held to be the fountain of all the arts; then came a time when her influence began to be denied at all points, and even the inspiration of the Greek Doric was refused her; and now, especially since the recent successes of the Egyptian Exploration Fund, her credit is up again. Mr. Goodyear's study of the lotus was first stimulated by the pottery found at Naukratis, and his identifications of the Egyptian lotus with the forms of Greek Ionic architecture, and of other decorative forms, Greek and Assyrian, were first published in the *American Journal of Archæology* and the *American Architect*, some five years ago. His present book, the outcome of later investigations, covers a much wider field, and, identifying the lotus as the chief emblem of Sun-worship, traces it through the early art of all the nations of the globe as the ruling artistic motive and dominating symbol.

"The lotus," Mr. Goodyear says, "was a fetish of immemorial antiquity, and has been worshipped in many countries, reaching from Japan to the Straits of Gibraltar." With abundant illustration from the monuments and texts, and from the works of other authors, he verifies its significance as the emblem of the sun, its more generally recognized symbolism of the generative force of nature, and its association with the solar disc, the sun gods, Ra, Horus, Osiris, and the rest, as with the animals that represent the attributes of the sun—the lion, bull, ram, hawk—and the sphinx, the gryphon, or other monsters. He follows it through the Phœnicians, Hittites, Chaldeans, and Assyrians to the Hindu, through Baal, Astarte, Mithra to Vishnu and Siva, and to the Greek Apollo and Aphrodite. Further, he maintains that the lotus and papyrus, which, as has hitherto been thought, divide between them the decorative design of Egypt, are one and the same; and not only this, but he really finds no other original motive, of plant or even geometric form, in all the field of ancient symbolic or decorative art of Egypt or any other country. So that the so-called papyrus, the palmette, anthemion, rosette, scroll, spiral, volute, guilloche, meander, fret, rope-pattern, swastica, chevron, zigzag, the ivy-leaf, trefoil, bud, cone, apple-seed, the Assyrian sacred tree, and the Buddhist trisula, even the water-leaf and egg-and-dart moulding, as well as the Ionic and Corinthian capitals, are each descended in direct line from the sacred lotus, and have no other ancestry; each is a symbol of sun-worship and of the generative force. Many of these identifications have been suggested by other authorities, and some have been accepted generally; but no one before Mr. Goodyear has ventured so wide a generalization; no one has thought of making the lotus the basis of all decorative forms. This bold thesis is maintained with great acuteness and range of evidence, and with an opulence of citation from other authorities, and especially from examples of the early art of all countries, that surprises the reader and at times almost takes his breath away.

It is impossible to do justice to Mr. Goodyear's argument by an abstract, because of its many ramifications and the great number of conclusions involved in it. It is a close application of the comparative method, deducing its points one by one by setting the details of ornament side by side according to similarity. So, for instance, the recurved petals of the lotus are shown to produce the Ionic flower, as Mr. Goodyear calls it, of the Egyptians, Phœnicians, and Assyrians; the flower begets the volute, the volute the scroll, the scroll the concentric rings. The addition of tangents to the rings produces the curvilinear meander, the meander the fret, the fret the swastica; and the argument is persuasive at every point. It is easy, however, in following out a series of deductions like this to forget the logic of probabilities —that the conclusion is weakened at each remove. It is not a chain which is as strong everywhere as its weakest link. The uncertainty is cumulative. We do not mean that

Mr. Goodyear's argument is flimsy—on the contrary, the reasoning is close and acute; the uncertainty is in the process, in which the final inference needs to be checked by other argument. The argument of the book is all in one direct line; but there are other considerations that are not to be overlooked. Among them are the extreme probability that different countries were working out apart their own habits of ornamentation, and the fact that there is a considerable number of forms so obvious and inevitable that it would be a wonder if they were not nearly universal. In point of fact, as we all know, certain ones are practically universal, and are reinvented every time an untaught person tries to invent ornament; others, such as the fret, meander, and rosette, we may fairly say, are found wherever a people have by practice developed a system of ornament. Most of these simple elements are found in the ornament of every savage tribe that has attained a little skill. In the ornament of Uxmal the lotus, volute, rosette, guilloche, fret, are as abundant as at Thebes or Amravati, and mingled with them a curious eye may detect not only the zig-zag and lozenge, but the English dog-tooth, the Pisan chequered square, and occasional letters from the English and Gothic alphabets.

This is an old argument, but is not weakened by repetition. Mr. Goodyear meets it squarely by assuming that Aztec, Peruvian, Zuni, Kabyle, and Pacific ornament are as much an Egyptian derivative as Assyrian or Phœnician, and are proof of prehistoric intercourse between these remote peoples and the shores of the Mediterranean. This contention is not new, but Mr. Goodyear is bold enough to maintain that the burden of proof is on the other side, and to say that it appears necessary for those who assert the independent origin of these details to prove that the Phœnicians, the peddlers of Egyptian civilization, were not in ancient America. The burden of proof seems to us to be on Mr. Goodyear's side, but we may stop to say that the presumption against the carrying on of a transatlantic commerce sufficient to communicate a civilization by ancient ships, without compasses and presumably dependent upon oars, outweighs, we think, any argument founded on the coincidences of forms so susceptible of independent invention as the details of common ornament. Some of the coincidences are certainly surprising, but life and history and invention and art are full of surprising coincidences. The argument proves too much. It amounts to the assertion that the art and the religion of all the world, and therefore almost necessarily the civilization, were the gift of a single people, transmitted in turn to every other, to the absolute denial of any other initiative or independent development. The only parallel to it, perhaps, is the conception of the literal descent of the whole human family from Adam and Eve.

The same singleness of argument is pushed too far, it seems to us, in tracing all ornament to the lotus. It implies that the Egyptian, having once accepted that plant as the symbol of his deity and luminary, and used it for ornament, never admitted any other, never associated with it a single line of his own fancy or from any of the myriad natural or geometric forms that were for ever under his eyes, but in the slow course of centuries developed all his great store of decorative forms little by little out of this single flower; that this resolute abstention was persisted in through thousands of years, not only by the Egyptians, but by Assyrians, Phœnicians, Babylonians, Cypriotes, Greeks, and all the nations through whom the inheritance of Egyptian art is here tracked. All we know of the processes of artistic evolution makes this incredible. It would need the strongest evidence; and the evidence here collected does not seem sufficient. This is not the way art is developed, so far as we can see. It is not evolution, but the rigorous carrying out of a preconceived scheme, a thing which probably never happened in the growth of art, surely not in early art. So sure is Mr. Goodyear of his argument that he disposes of an Alexandrian text which calls the sceptre of the goddesses a papyrus, by supposing that the Egyptians themselves had mistaken their amulet form for a papyrus, though he proves it to be a lotus by fig. 21. We can forgive the Egyptians, who probably did not have fig. 21 to set them right. The Egyptians were, or became, a very conservative people, very observant of the conventions of their art and the religious tradition that maintained it. But they were also a very artistic people, with a decorative instinct which in its kind has not been surpassed. There was a time when their artistic conventions were forming, and then there must have been a wide play for this decorative instinct. We see in their ornament, for instance, a variety of campaniform flowers, of very distinct types, carefully discriminated. They had undoubtedly a great variety of such flowers before their eyes in nature—were, indeed, celebrated in antiquity for their culture and importation of flowers; and while they apparently gave the lotus preëminence, it is easier to believe that they took their decorative material where they found it than that they laboriously travestied their sacred symbol into such various and uncharacteristic forms as are ascribed to it. The ingenious juxtapositions here shown certainly bring out in series close resemblances which might be transitions, but so would any systematic grouping of natural flowers. The fact that in Egypt the North and South were hieroglyphically indicated by two plants that are commonly taken for lotus and papyrus, Mr. Goodyear brushes aside with little ceremony. In truth the smallness and summary rendering of the hieroglyphs makes identification uncertain, yet if any two plants are carefully discriminated in the representation, they can hardly both be lotuses. So in the case of the palmette and anthemion, whose derivation from half the rosette is not convincing to us; so with the rosette itself, which is here derived solely from the rather uninspiring ovary of the lotus, though there are many varieties of it in Egyptian art and innumerable prototypes in nature. He rightly calls attention to its prevalence in Egypt, and he objects to considering it a distinctly Assyrian motive; but the distinction remains that in Egyptian decoration, which is unrivalled except by that of the red Greek vases for density and the close adaptation of each form to its neighbors, the rosette is always subordinate, perhaps too much so for a lotus, and generally imbedded in a repeated ornament, while in Assyrian it is apt to stand apart and to be principal.

Of the many valuable things in Mr. Goodyear's book, none is more interesting than his identification of what he calls the Ionic form of the lotus, and its development into the Ionic capital. Other investigators (Ceccaldi, Dieulafoy) had hinted at isolated aspects of it; but he only has covered the whole range of the question, and followed its transformations through Egyptian, Phœnician, Assyrian, and Greek art. The derivation must, we think, be accepted and the Ionic form as well as the Doric be referred to an Egyptian ancestry, though both are cast out from their birthplace. It would not be strange if the third classic order, the Corinthian, were ultimately traced, as some authorities have suggested, to the same country. Of the two forms of the lotus-volute which stand on equal footing in Egypt, the upright, derived directly from the flower, is the form which prevails in Phœnician art, but was neglected by the Greeks, while the horizontal, where the two volutes are united in a flat cushion, was the favorite of the Assyrians, and was developed into the regular Ionic capital. This choice of the Greeks, if it was a choice, seems to sustain, as does the apparent importation of the Ionic order from the Greek colonies in Asia Minor, the accepted theory that the capital was derived, if only secondarily, from the Assyrians, and not directly or through the Phœnicians from Egypt. The links are wanting that should connect the erect lotus volute with the Corinthian capital, though a sanguine person might point on the one hand to certain Assyrian bas-reliefs, and on the other to some Phœnician steles, one especially in the Museum at New York, which suggest not only the calyx at the base of the volutes, but the caulicoli above. It is difficult to believe that the Greek designers, with their keen decorative sense, would not have perceived, if the choice had been before them, that superior decorative fitness of the upright volute which is abundantly demonstrated by its after history. We doubt, by the way, whether the interesting Ionic capital which was found at Mount Chigri by Mr. Clarke in 1882, and has been called proto-Ionic, is to be regarded as a direct link in the development. It has the upright volutes divided by a palmette, and the abacus is missing; its form and its imperfect adaptation to the shaft suggest that it belonged rather to a detached votive column than to an order, and the fineness of the execution makes one suspicious of a very early date.

The theory that the lotus was a sun-symbol, and that it carried its symbolism into the art of many countries, is well sustained in the argument of the book, though it may well be that its procreative significance counted for most among people so given to phallic worship as the Phœnicians and the Hindus. Mr. Goodyear reverses the accepted course of Egyptian influence, and urges that it reached Assyria through Phœnicia rather than Phœnicia through Assyria. There is a good deal of force in his reasoning, yet there was another possible channel of communication in Chaldea, perhaps a more direct one. The recent finding of Babylonian tablets in Egypt, many of which, in the British Museum, are still undeciphered or unpublished, may have some light for this question.

But archæology is still in its childhood; its theories may be reversed many times before they settle into fixity. The 'Grammar of the Lotus' is a notable contribution to its literature, written with a tenacious grasp of its subject, with keenness of observation and clearness of statement. The success of the publishers is not in proportion to their effort, which exemplifies to our mind the worst fashions of modern bookmaking. The book is meant to be handsome; but it is clumsy and pretentious, heavy in the hand, awkward to read, and hard to consult. Most of its illustrations would be quite as clear and more agreeable at half the scale. The text contains matter for an octavo which the scholar would gladly welcome to a place on his shelves for which its bulk unfits it; but it is printed with the ostentation of a trade catalogue, with which its scholarship and the simple directness of its style are singularly out of keeping.

AN ENGLISHWOMAN IN PERSIA.

Journeys in Persia and Kurdistan. By Mrs. Bishop (Isabella L. Bird). G. P. Putnam's Sons. 2 vols. 8vo.

In these volumes, Mrs. Bishop, better known to the readers of her other popular books of travel as Miss Bird, has given an interesting account of her journeys through some of the unfrequented parts of Persia. The first eight of the "diary letters," of which the book is made up, describe the seven weeks of caravan travel from Bagdad, through Kirmanshah and Kum, to Teheran. Starting in the depths of an unusually severe winter, this journey of over 500 miles, through a mountainous country, was beset by hardships which would go far to content the "untravelled many," to whom the book is dedicated, with their own firesides. With the mercury often below zero, scarcity of fuel and incompetent service aggravated the suffering due to the wretched caravansaries on the route, and to the tedious progress of the laden mules through the snow.

After a few weeks of rest and sight-seeing at Teheran, Mrs. Bishop went south again to Isfahan, and from there started on her journey among the Bakhtiari nomads of Luristan. The Ilyats, or nomadic tribes, are an interesting class of the people of Persia, of whom they form more than a tenth part. They are scattered over the whole country in small tribes, and their wandering flocks and herds and their shaggy black tents make a striking contrast to the gardens and villages of the stationary population. In the north they are quiet and attract little attention, although the present dynasty of Persia sprang from the Khajar nomads of the Elburtz mountains, and, in consequence, founded its capital, Teheran, far from the old caravan lines, but near its own strongholds. In southwestern Persia, however, the Bakhtiari and Feili Lurs, of the mountains of Luristan, have been a constant menace to the country, and are now held in only partial control by the Government, through hostages kept at Teheran, and by the characteristic policy of fomenting quarrels among their different chiefs. The Feili Lurs form one of the obstacles to the development of the new trade route from the Persian Gulf to Teheran. This road, starting from the head of navigation on the Karun River, passes through their country, and will need to be strongly guarded to be safe from their depredations.

Little was known about either tribe, as few travellers have ever been among them, and it shows great courage on Mrs. Bishop's part to have undertaken this part of her journey, and great tact and persistence to have accomplished it safely. She had obtained at Teheran letters from the Amin-es-Sultan, or Prime Minister, to the Ilkhani, the head chief of the Bakhtiari Lurs, and to their other Khans, commanding them to supply escorts and to provide for her safety She had, as the leader of her party, a man, presumably a European, although he appears in the narrative only as the "Agha" or "Sahib," who possessed great presence of mind and ability. Yet she regarded rightly, as her main reliance, her medical knowledge and the ample supply of medicine which she carried. Whenever her tent was pitched, a crowd gathered clamoring for "feringee" medicine, and she spent much of her time in treating the sick and in giving away remedies.

Her reputation as an English "Hakim" preceded her, and had a marked effect in allaying suspicion and smoothing over difficulties. Nevertheless, she had many serious adventures. She was robbed of her money at one of the first villages she stopped at; but, although the thief escaped, the village was compelled by the Ilkhani to make good the loss. Her camp was attacked several times at night, and her party was fired upon in the daytime. Parties of wandering horsemen came up and discussed openly with her escorts their intention of stripping the entire caravan, and were with difficulty dissuaded from attempting it. Her small belongings were constantly pilfered, even by the chiefs who pretended to protect her. Mrs. Bishop intended to go back to Isfahan after a short trip, but her return was cut off by an outbreak of fighting, and she found it safer to push on through the unexplored western portion of the Bakhtiari country. She followed up the upper courses of the Karun River, and located its true source, and discovered an unnamed lake. After three months of travel and camp life, she arrived safely at Burugird.

Her account gives a clear idea of the unrestrained life of a turbulent people. They are divided into many small tribes, ruled by petty khans, over whom the Ilkhani has slight control, outside of his immediate neighborhood. The khans are usually engaged in interminable vendetta warfare with each other, and care for little else. The migrations of the tribes consist of semi-annual journeys between their summer camps, in the high mountain valleys, and the mud villages lower down, where they pass the winter. Each family and tribe has certain inherited rights of pasturage, over which there is constant quarrelling. They are a pastoral people in the main, although of late years they have irrigated and cultivated some of their mountain valleys. Though Mohammedans, most of their women go unveiled, and, except in the harems of the principal khans, are little secluded. Mrs. Bishop found the women grossly ignorant, and her ceremonious visits to the harems very tedious. The women complained of the monotony of their lives and begged for love philters. The men were finely formed, active and brave, though cruel. They were faithful to their immediate chiefs, and had, unlike most Persians, some respect for their word once given. Many of them possessed great intelligence, although mixed with the crafty cunning and childish ignorance of savages. They professed to Mrs. Bishop great friendship for the English, and hopes for a British occupation of southern Persia, which would enforce order and relieve them from the misgovernment of the Shah.

After leaving the Bakhtiari country, Mrs. Bishop travelled through some of the most populous and fertile parts of Persia, to Hamadan, and thence to Urumia. She was especially interested in the American and English missionaries, whose efforts are spent mainly on the subject Christian races, as they are not allowed to work openly among the Moslems. Judging from her own experience among the Bakhtiaris, and from the success of those medical missionaries who have been sent out, she advocates strongly the further use of this means of gaining influence among the Persians.

In all parts of Persia Mrs. Bishop found, as do most travellers, among Persians of all classes who talked freely with her, the settled conviction that, at the crisis which will come at the Shah's death, northern Persia will fall into the hands of Russia, and southern Persia probably to England. This prospect is looked forward to with Oriental resignation, due partly, no doubt, to the feeling that any change from the rapacity of the tax farmers and the universal corruption of judges and all other officials would be for the better. Were there any hope for a reform of administration, there might be hope for a more vigorous patriotism and a brighter future. The Shah is intelligent and, Mrs. Bishop thinks, earnestly desirous for the welfare of his country, while the peasantry she found, in the main, industrious, honest, and frugal, not abjectly poor, considering their simple habits of life, and capable of great improvement under more favorable conditions. But between the Shah and his people is a mass of infamous corruption, unchecked by any public opinion. The best-meant plans of the Shah are rendered abortive by the crowd of venal courtiers and officials that surround him, as well as by the intrigues of Russian agents, who are anxious to let things drift from bad to worse, and by the fanatical hostility of the Mollahs, or priests, to any project in which they detect a European tendency. This last influence was shown, within a few months, by the riotous opposition to the tobacco *régie*, and was so powerful that the Shah was obliged to cancel the concession he had granted.

The latter part of the second volume describes Mrs. Bishop's journey from Urumia through the mountains of Kurdistan to Trebizond. She visits the Nestorian Patriarch, Mar Shimum, at Kochanes, and describes the present humble conditions of the Nestorian, or Syrian, branch of the Christian Church, once so widespread and powerful. Her sympathies were deeply moved by the suffering of the Nestorian and Armenian Christians from the depredations of the savage Kurds, who constantly marauded the Christian villages without restraint from the Turkish authorities. We know, from outside sources, that Mrs. Bishop exerted her influence strongly at Constantinople to persuade the Turkish Government to hold the Kurds under control, and even refrained from mentioning the theft of her own valuable journals and diaries lest she should diminish the force of her unselfish appeal.

Mrs. Bishop's book does not pretend to discuss deeply social problems and conditions, although her notes on Persian questions and character show keen observation, as well as a familiarity with the opinions held by old English residents in that country. She has more to tell of the villages on her route, the people she met, the scenes along the road, the daily happenings of her caravan, and the incidents of her camps; in short, of all the minor details which go far to give a vivid picture of the country, its people, and their life.

Historical Essays. By Edward A. Freeman, M.A., Hon. D.C.L., and LL.D., Regius Professor of Modern History in the University of Oxford. Fourth Series. Macmillan & Co.

This volume is made up of twenty-two essays on various subjects, archæological, topographical, historical, and political. The most important papers are those on Carthage, Aix, Orange Autun, and the Lords of Ardres. The most remarkable is that on "Points in the History of Portugal and Brazil," full of proofs of accurate learning, though published, the author tells us, with only a few verbal changes, as it was written at Bordighera, where he had no opportunity of reference to any books whatever. The most characteristic, perhaps, is that on the Channel Tunnel, against the construction of which Prof. Freeman is inclined to protest, not on engineering or military grounds, but because it would impair the insularity which is the determining

factor and the salient feature of English history.

The volume had scarcely come into our hands when the news arrived of its author's death. He died, it seems, of smallpox. But he had for some time been an invalid and had found a Southern climate necessary in winter. The fruits of his valetudinarian sojourn in Sicily were two bulky volumes comprising the early part of a Sicilian history on the largest scale, prodigious in the minuteness of their erudition, and giving proof of an amount of labor in the way of exploration and research which would have been trying to most men in their highest health. His powers of work were indeed immense, and corresponded to the robustness of his typically Anglo-Saxon frame. We may use the phrase "Anglo-Saxon" since he is no longer here to rebuke us. The long list of his works and the range of their subjects attest his sleepless industry. Of the period of history following that treated by Gibbon and comprising the early Middle Ages he is, certainly among English writers, the king. His thoughts were turned and his life was dedicated to his special work by his Oxford training, received at the time when Newman was in the ascendant and neo-Catholicism was the creed of intellectual youth. He was the leading spirit in the Oxford Architectural Society formed for the revival of mediæval art. It is not likely that he retained later in life the beliefs or the religious aspirations of his Oxford days, but he retained his love as well as his knowledge of church architecture, his special interest in the period to which it belonged, and a feeling, to say the least, of coldness towards the Reformation, of which there are traces in one of the papers of this volume. The iconoclasm of the Reformation could not fail to be hateful to him. His knowledge of church architecture was of great service to him in treating the history of a period so largely chronicled in stone. His affection for the Middle Ages was carried to a great height when he could set a literary value on mediæval chronicles, insist that they should be read in the original, and even insinuate for them a claim to a place beside the classics. He was also a great master of Hellenic and Roman history and of the general history of political institutions; Federal government being in this department his favorite theme.

His weakness as an historian lies in his too exclusive attention to the political side of national life, and his comparative disregard of its spiritual, intellectual, social, and economical elements. He shows little feeling for any but the political life even of Athens, and little taste for literature, poetry, or any art except the church architecture of the Middle Ages. That he rather eschewed the philosophy of history, and abstained from putting forth any general theory of human progress, confining himself to facts, with their ascertained relations and sequences, was a fault on the right side, if not a merit, in an age of generalization. His learning was immense, and embraced all printed matter bearing on his period; manuscripts he did not explore. His memory was very strong, and his accuracy was almost unfailing. As a critic, he was apt to be merciless to inaccuracy, forgetting that weakness of the physical memory, such as betrays a writer into little slips, is compatible with real mastery of a subject. The inaccuracy of Mr. Froude, however, on whom he was thought to be most severe, is not only extraordinary but sinister. Prof. Freeman's historical sympathies were strongly marked, but they never caused him to swerve from truth, and they rarely caused him to swerve from justice. He is just to William while his heart is evidently with Harold. His passionate love of his subject, by leading him to revel to excess in its details, impaired the flow of his narrative and laid him open to the charge of pedantry. His pedantry, however, was that of enthusiasm, not of display. His style, though clear, vigorous, and masculine, is too diffuse, and the voluminousness of his writings will interfere with their currency, if not with their fame.

The historian took not only an active but a vehement interest in the politics of his own day, especially in the cause of struggling nationalities, and above all in that of the Christian nationalities which were striving to escape from the domination of the Turk, against whom the shafts of his learned hatred ceaselessly flew. On these subjects he not only wrote, but spoke, with a force and effect which would have surprised those who had heard him only as a lecturer. He, however, carried the historian and archæologist into the political field, and, could he have had his way, Europe would have been almost rearranged territorially upon the plan of the Middle Ages. He even repined at the union of Sicily with Italy, because Sicily had ethnological peculiarities and an interesting history of her own.

As a visitor to this country, Prof. Freeman fell into the error, not uncommon among English visitors, of presuming a little too much on our love of republican simplicity. There was always, however, in his address and attire something of the Englishman anterior to the Conquest. But he was a man of sterling worth, who loved justice, hated iniquity, and strove to perform all his duties in life—those which belonged to the landowner as well as those which belonged to the professor. He did an immense stroke of work, first-rate of its kind, ran a noble course, and rests in honor.

The Real Japan. By Henry Norman. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Mr. Henry Norman, a clever English journalist, has essayed to give us a work whose quality is midway between the German thoroughness of Rein and the superficial and often frivolous narratives of passing travellers. Taking a house in Japan, and spending some months in the capital, he set himself resolutely to study especially the Japan of the era of "Enlightened Peace," which began with the *coup d'état* in Kioto in 1868. No other writer, he thinks, has given an account of the political, economic, educational, and social conditions of this era. Indeed, so rapid are the vital political processes now proceeding, that it is impossible to take more than a snap-shot photograph of present conditions. One may indeed catch a view of the emerging image from the mask, but to describe it as finished life would be a mistake. The author clearly understands and modestly states his limitations, and then sets himself manfully to the task. Honesty of purpose and the utmost possible accuracy of statement are his only claims. In his volume, which is made up of his selected and recast letters to English journals, he discusses what will interest serious students of Japan, while yet picturing the charms which so fascinate tourists. The illustrations have been chosen with care, and most of them, especially the faces of the women, have been successfully reproduced. It is really refreshing to note the disappearance of the African cast of features so prominent in the venerable woodcuts of popular works on Japan, and to see the true Japanese expression and lineaments accurately represented.

After the inevitable chapter on household accommodations and the environment of the domicile, the author naturally introduces us to Japanese journalism. The total circulation of the 550 newspapers and periodicals amounts in one year to 95,932,270 copies. In Tokio alone are 17 political dailies, circulating monthly 3,906,000, and 116 periodicals circulating monthly in all 495,000 copies. Very appropriately we have two pages, with portrait, devoted to Capt. F. Brinkley, R.A., the accomplished editor of the leading journal in Japan, if not in the Far East. The *Japan Mail* is the product chiefly of his brains and energy, and its influence on native and foreign opinion, as well as its filling and fertilizing power upon the makers of books on Japan, can hardly be overestimated. Like Mr. Norman's other descriptive chapters, that on the vernacular press is well salted with criticism.

In describing and analyzing Japanese justice and education, Mr. Norman proves conclusively, whether he knows it or not, that both those systems are more direct outgrowths of old Japan than foreign and borrowed or ready-made manufactures. In matters of police and law, he is surprised at the espionage yet practised, and at the patriarchal methods still in vogue; yet these are nothing more than what have been customary for a millennium or two. The application of American cataloguing to the books and photographs composing the rogues' gallery and library of biography in Tokio of 150,000 criminals, amused him. The wonderful capacity of the average Japanese to do fine art work is utilized in the prison system, and a large proportion of the cheap "art-products" of our shops are the work of native "artists" involuntarily deprived of their liberty. In giving us the real "Japan as a Military Power," he shows how deep-seated and deadly is the vice of militarism in that country, and why education is crippled and poverty is so general. With 50,000 young men under arms, mighty forts building, and great arsenals lavishly equipped, there is not much hope of Japan's national wealth increasing rapidly, or her innate barbarism being quickly reformed. This disease of militarism is not merely a matter of finance, and waste of resources, with all its attendant evil influences; it is also made the pretext of despotism, and proves that thus far Japan's parliamentary or representative system is but a caricature of the English or American pattern. The expenses of the army and navy, all of them, are put by the Government into the "fixed expenditures," which the Diet is powerless to change. Hence it is true that the people of Japan do not yet control their country. The military influence is still the true power.

It is more agreeable to turn to the chapters on arts and crafts, and here we have much fresh and luminous information pleasantly communicated. Amid much that is degrading, Mr. Norman finds genuine art-products, and shows that, even under such altered environment, the inborn spirit and potency of the natives are creating true works of beauty instinct with power to charm. Even while he praises, however, he looks with Ruskin's eye upon the Japanese landscape, which for ages has touched the imagination, ruined by the swift advance of modern industries that destroy and desolate. He turns with delight to tell us all about the Japanese women, and even to suggest how their dress may be reformed. His analysis of female costume is quite detailed. Fortunately, but few native women have adopted

the complex and unbecoming paraphernalia of western women. Even in Tokio, the most "civilized" city, not more than one in five hundred of the men wears foreign clothes, and "you perhaps see two or three Japanese ladies in a foreign dress in a week." After appropriately sandwiching two chapters on fun and an outing, Mr. Norman describes a genuine growth of real Japan. He devotes twenty-two pages to the institution of licensed prostitution —"the most remarkable attempt ever made to solve the great problem of human society." In his treatment of this subject and his references to other writers, the author reveals what is his chief limitation and great defect, viz., lack of full and accurate knowledge of the history and life of Japan before A. D. 1868. Some of his slips are amusing, as in his statement that "the New Year's Day call" was "imitated from the Americans," though the custom in Japan existed before America was discovered. It is more likely that the Dutch imitated the custom from Japan and thence introduced it to Manhattan Island, it being exotic in America beyond the area of New Netherland. Many other things which Mr. Norman thinks modern and borrowed in Japan, because resembling what is in vogue in Europe, are indigenous and ancient. In "Japan for the Japanese," the author ably discusses the complicated problem of treaty revision—a subject which dragged along for twenty years and has already wrecked three cabinets.

Mechanically, the book, with its heavy clay-loaded paper, poor ink, and cheap binding, is not attractive, but, taken alogether, the contents are of sterling interest. Certainly the Japanese should be grateful to such an intelligent and judicial critic, who is equally removed, in the attitude of his mind, from indiscriminate laudation, of which we have too much, and from the harsh censure of the soured and disappointed.

One thing seems certain from this fresh survey of the subject, and is made evident even through the author's very limitations. It is that the opening of Japan to modern civilization was even more the result of the working of forces from within than impact from without: leaven more than gunpowder wrought the result. The original movement began before Commodore Perry was even born. It originated with students and thinking men. It was a movement towards a goal long since passed, but the momentum of which is not yet spent. It is also certain from the facts of history that of all peoples who supplied the elements of expansion and transmutation, not to say the principles of rebirth, the Dutch were the leaders. When dispassionate history is set in luminous phrase, and the voices of religious hate as well as the din of jealous rivals in trade are stilled, it will be found that the little company of merchants from the Netherlands on the isle of Déshima wrought, even more than Perry's Paixhans, or Lord Elgin's diplomacy, the renascence of the real Japan.

Charles Devens's Orations and Addresses. Edited by Arthur Lithgow Devens. With a Memoir by John Codman Ropes. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

It is high testimony to the standard of merit prevailing in a community that the subject of this memorial was hardly what would be called a distinguished man. He was a patriot of the purest feeling, a gallant soldier, a courteous gentleman, an honorable judge, a brilliant orator—withal, it seems, a man lovable and well-beloved. Yet he would have disclaimed for himself any exceptional virtue. In his orations he loved to dwell upon the high and solemn sense of duty which led the private soldiers of the Union cause to devote to it their lives; and, as he said, the qualities of courage, fidelity, and patriotism ennoble him who exhibits them, no matter what his rank or station. And no one would have recognized with more generous pride that, in the State of which he was an honored citizen, civic virtue has been as common as military, and that those who have been ennobled by it are not to be numbered. Where magistrates as a rule are upright, an honorable judge attracts no attention, and in a community whose chief city long since counted her hundred orators, only eloquence of the highest order can bring fame.

Yet we think that they who have prepared this volume have done well. There is a tendency in the human mind to dwell upon what is exceptional and to exaggerate distinctions, and it is occasionally wholesome to bring it down to a consideration of ordinary virtue and commonplace greatness. The career of Gen. Devens, as briefly sketched by Mr. Ropes, seems to us well adapted to serve as a type of that of the conscientious servant of the public. "Few men have ever lived who were better fitted to discharge the ordinary tasks which belong to public office, whether civil or military, than was Charles Devens. He brought to their accomplishment, in the first place, an honest, courageous, and unreserved purpose to do his duty, and, in the second place, sound judgment, great tact, and good administrative ability." The importance of such characters as this to the daily life of the world cannot be overestimated, and their commemoration is a useful service.

Mr. Ropes speaks highly of Gen. Devens's success as an orator. He was a handsome man, of imposing figure and fine voice, but he owed his power less to these gifts than to his deep and evidently sincere feeling. The written record of course preserves none of these accessories, and yet there are passages in the orations upon subjects connected with the civil war that impress the reader as truly eloquent. Mr. Ropes might well have made a broader claim than that some of these addresses deserve a permanent place in the historical literature of Massachusetts. Some sentences are of a Websterian dignity, as the following from the address at the dedication of the soldiers' monument at Worcester:

"The duties which the citizens of every free government owe to it are of necessity of a higher and more solemn character than the obligations which are due from the subjects of any other State. It is emphatically their own, made by their own will, to be sustained, if sustained at all, by their own power. When menaced by disorder from within or foes from without, it is for themselves to defend it. This duty cannot be avoided or transferred; they who would be free, and they who would preserve their freedom, alike 'themselves must strike the blow.'"

Nor will men at any time read some parts of the oration on Gen. Meade without feeling the blood stir in their veins. We quote a few sentences from the account of the repulse of Pickett's charge:

"The hour for the Army of the Potomac has come. Up now, men of New England, and show yourselves in the field the same stout defenders of the Constitution and the Union that your statesmen have ever done in the forum! Up, men of the Middle States, upon whose soil this unholy attempt to strike at the keystone of the arch is made! Up, men of the West, whose fortunes have so long been cast with this Eastern army, that you may bear back beyond the mountains the tidings of the great victory won to-day on the Atlantic slope! Up, true men of the South, few though you are in numbers, who fight in our ranks to-day!"

There are passages, too, of genuine pathos in these orations, passages so unmistakably the utterance of deep feeling that they must always remain impressive. The account of the battle of Bunker Hill in the oration at the centennial anniversary is an excellent piece of description, perhaps as good as any account we have of that momentous action. Certainly the spirit that carried our country through its two great wars was well understood by Gen. Devens, and his words will explain to posterity the sacredness of the feeling with which their fathers took up the sword. Gen. Devens was the last man in the world to indulge in military bluster, but his appeal to his troops after the disaster at Ball's Bluff shows that he was of the class of soldiers which is most terrible in war. It seems not unfitting to apply to him the lines with which he ended his eulogy of Meade:

"Mild in manner, fair in favor,
Kind in temper, fierce in fight;
Warrior nobler, gentler, braver,
Never will behold the light."

Legendary Fictions of the Irish Celts. Collected and narrated by Patrick Kennedy. Macmillan. 1891. 8vo, pp. xvi., 312.

We have had occasion from time to time to call attention to the increased interest in Celtic folk-tales as shown by the recent collections of Lady Wilde, Dr. Hyde, and our own countryman, Mr. Curtin. It is to be hoped that these works, interesting and valuable as they are, will not throw into the shade the labors of one of their predecessors, Mr. Patrick Kennedy, who has been justly termed the Irish Grimm. Mr. Kennedy was born in 1801 and died in 1873, at Dublin, where for many years he had been a bookseller, noted for the integrity of his character and his interest in Irish archæology. In 1862 he published in the *Dublin University Magazine* an instalment of his folk-lore collections under the title "Leinster Folk Lore," reprinted later with additions as 'Legendary Fictions of the Irish Celts.' This delightful work was followed in 1870 and 1871 by 'Fireside Stories of Ireland' and 'The Bardic Stories of Ireland'—all three so popular that they soon became out of print. It was thus a happy thought of the Macmillans to issue in an attractive form Mr. Kennedy's first work, and it is to be hoped that they may soon bring out a new edition of the two other works just mentioned.

In most of the modern scientific collections of folk-tales, the stories are taken down literally from the lips of the people. Imbriani had his Florentine tales ('La Novellaja Fiorentina,' Leghorn, 1877) stenographed. These popular versions are often mere skeletons of stories, whose only interest is a scientific one. Sometimes a collector like the Grimms appears, and then how different the result! Besides this, in some countries popular tales of a certain kind are confined to the nursery, or to the class representing the intellectual development of the nursery; in others these tales are combined with local elements, and we have such semi-popular tales as still delight the readers of Lever and Lover. Kennedy struck the happy medium, and presented his stories with accuracy and yet made them full of life and local color. The very first story in Kennedy's book, "Jack and his Comrades," illustrates what we have just said. This is the Grimm story of "The Bremen Town-Musicians," and is a wide-

ly diffused tale. In most of the versions animals alone are the actors, but in Kennedy's, Jack, the only son of a widow, lends human interest to the story, and the tale becomes a little masterpiece of comic narration. Besides "household stories," Kennedy's book contains fairy legends, ghost stories, witchcraft, Ossianic and other early legends, and legends of the Celtic saints. For popular reading it could not be improved, while it will always retain its interest and worth for students.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Beardsley, Rev. E. E. Addresses and Discourses, Historical and Religious. Cambridge: Riverside Press.
Boyesen, Prof. H. H. Essays on German Literature. Scribners. $1.50.
Collingwood, H. W. The Business Hen: Breeding and Feeding Poultry for Profit. New York: Rural Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Crawford, F. Marion. The Three Fates. Macmillan. $1.
Eastman, Edith V. The Ethics of Music. Boston: Damrell & Upham. 75 cents.
Everybody's Pocket Cyclopædia. Harpers.
Farrer, J. A. Books Condemned to be Burnt. London: Elliot Stock; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.25.
Hague, J. B. The Odes and Epodes of Horace. Putnams. $1.75.
Irwin, R. B. History of the Nineteenth Army Corps. Putnams. $4.50.
Jastrow, M. A Dictionary of the Targumim, etc. Part V. Putnams. $2.
Matthew, James E. Manual of Musical History. Putnams. $3.
Meyer, Prof. Lothar. Outlines of Theoretical Chemistry. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Millet, F. D. A Capillary Crime, and Other Stories. Harpers.
Mirkhond's Rauzat-us-safa. Part I. Vols. 1 and 2. [Oriental Translation Fund.] London: Royal Asiatic Society; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.
Ormsbee, Agnes B. The House Comfortable. Harpers.
Orpen, G. H. The Song of Dermot and the Earl. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Parsons, J. R., jr. French Schools through American Eyes. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. $1.
Public Statues and Monuments of New York. Palliser, Palliser & Co. $1.50.
Ramsey, Samuel. The English Language and English Grammar. Putnams. $3.
Robinson, Charles. The Kansas Conflict. Harpers.
Rousset, Camille. Recollections of Marshal Macdonald, Duke of Tarentum. 2 vols. Scribners. $10.
Ruskin, John. Lectures on Art. [Brantwood Edition.] Charles E. Merrill & Co. $1.50.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. The Duchess of Angoulême and the Two Restorations. Scribners. $1.25.
Sharp, William. The Life and Letters of Joseph Severn. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $5.
Shindler, Rev. R. From the Usher's Desk to the Tabernacle Pulpit: Life and Labors of Charles Haddon Spurgeon. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Silsby, Mary R. Tributes to Shakspere. Harpers.
Sneath, Prof. E. H. The Philosophy of Reid. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Sotheran, Charles. Horace Greeley and Other Pioneers of American Socialism. Humboldt Publishing Co.
Soule, Richard. A Dictionary of English Synonymes. New ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.25.
Souvestre, Emile. Man and Money. Cassell. 50 cents.
Spencer, H. Social Statics. Abridged and revised, together with The Man versus the State. Appletons.
Spiers, I. H. B. Racine's Esther. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Stebbing, W. Sir Walter Raleigh. Macmillan. $2.60.
Stephen, Sir J. F. Horæ Sabbaticæ. First and Second Series. Macmillan. $1.50 each.
Stevens, B. F. Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773–83. Vols. XI. and XII. London: B. F. Stevens.
Stevens, Prof. G. B. The Pauline Theology. Scribners. $2.
Stevenson, R. L. Across the Plains; with Other Memories and Essays. Scribners. $1.25.
Stories from English History for Young Americans. Harpers.
Strachey, Sir John. Hastings and the Rohilla War. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Strahan, S. A. K. Marriage and Disease. Appletons.
Sullivan, J. W. Direct Legislation by the Citizenship through the Initiative and Referendum. Twentieth Century Publishing Co.
Stovall, P. A. Robert Toombs. Cassell. $2.50.
Syme, David. On the Modification of Organisms. London: Street & Co.
Taylor, Georgiana M. Lays of Lowly Service. James Pott & Co.
Weeks-Shaw, Clara S. A Text-Book of Nursing. 2d ed., revised and enlarged. Appletons.

Allen's (C. R.) Laboratory Exercises in Elementary Physics. Teachers' Edition. 277 pp. 12mo. Teachers' price, $1.00; by mail, $1.10.

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Bright's (J. W.) Anglo-Saxon Reader. 394 pp. 12mo. Teachers' price, $1.75; by mail, $1.86.

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Hall (E. H.) & Bergen's (J. Y., Jr.) Physics. 388 pp. 12mo. Teachers' price, $1.25; by mail, $1.37.

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James's (Wm.) Psychology--Briefer Course. (American Science Series.) 478 pp. 12mo. Teachers' price, $1.60; by mail, $1.74.

This work is an abridgment and rewriting (two-fifths of the volume is either new or rewritten) by Prof. James of his 'Principles of Psychology,' and has been prepared as more directly available for the class-room than the larger book.

Whitney's (W. D.) Introductory French Reader. 256 pp. 16mo. Teachers' price, 70 cents; by mail, 76 cents.

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The Philosophy of Kant. As contained in extracts from his own writings. Selected and translated by JOHN WATSON, LL.D., Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Queen's College, Kingston, Canada, author of "Kant and His English Critics." x+356 pp. 12mo. Teachers' price, $1.75; by mail, $1.87.

The Philosophy of Locke. In extracts from the Essay Concerning Human Understanding. Arranged with Introductory Notes and Biographical Sketch by JOHN E. RUSSELL, A.M., Professor of Philosophy in Williams College. 160 pp. 12mo. Teachers' price, $1.00; by mail, $1.10.

The Philosophy of Reid. As contained in the "Inquiry into the Human Mind on the Principles of Common-Sense." With introduction and Selected Notes by E. HERSHEY SNEATH, Ph.D., Instructor in Philosophy in Yale University. viii.+367 pp. 12mo. Teachers' price, $1.50; by mail, $1.62.

The Philosophy of Spinoza. As contained in the first, second, and fifth parts of the "Ethics," and in extracts from the third and fourth. Translated from the Latin and edited with notes, by GEORGE STUART FULLERTON, Professor of Philosophy in the University of Pennsylvania. vi.+204 pp. 12mo. Teachers' price, $1.20; by mail, $1.30.

The Philosophy of Descartes. In Extracts from his Writings. Selected and Translated by H. A. P. TORREY, Professor in the University of Vermont. xii+345 pp. 12mo. Teachers' price, $1.50; by mail, $1.62. (*Ready April 25.*)

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Published by BOERICKE & TAFEL,
1011 Arch St., Philadelphia, Pa.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 21, 1892.

The Week.

THE trouble with Italy arising out of the New Orleans massacre has been creditably and satisfactorily settled by the payment of an indemnity by us of $25,000 for the benefit of the victims, which the Italian Government accepts and undertakes to distribute. The deep regret of the American Government for what happened had already been expressed. But we trust some step will now be taken by the Administration to deliver the Government from the humiliation of inability to control the judicial proceedings to which the affair has given rise. Mr. Blaine had a good technical defence, through the treaty with Italy, against the attempt to fasten on the Federal Government the legal responsibility for the attack on the Italians in New Orleans. By the treaty Italy agreed to be content with such protection for the persons and property of Italians sojourning in this country as native Americans enjoy, namely, the protection of the State laws. But when the State of Louisiana refused to give this protection, and the effort to punish the lynchers ended in a total failure of justice, the Government at Washington certainly cut rather a sorry figure before the civilized world. It was morally responsible for the tragedy, but legally powerless to punish it. The situation made every intelligent American very much ashamed. The remedy seems simple enough—the passage of an act of Congress giving the United States courts jurisdiction of offences committed against foreigners, if they like to seek redress in these courts. The Supreme Court, in the case of Baldwin vs. Franks, has intimated that Congress has the power to make section 5519 of the Revised Statutes cover aliens resident in or sojourning in this country. This section makes penal the conspiracy of two or more persons "to deprive, either directly or indirectly, any person or class of persons of the equal protection of the laws, and of equal protection under the laws." This might not serve the purpose exactly of enabling United States authorities to protect foreigners, but the power to pass this act implies the power to pass another of the same sort.

It is announced that our Government is on the point of signing a copyright treaty with Spain, which probably means that the same advantages are to be extended to Spain by Presidential proclamation as have already been accorded to England, France, Belgium, and Switzerland; that is to say, Spanish authors can secure copyright in this country on condition of simultaneous publication, and provided their books are printed here from type set by American labor. This last proviso is one that has greatly impaired the benefits of our new Copyright Law to English writers, and made them almost nugatory to Frenchmen. At any rate, Zola, who is about the only French author of note to have made a trial of the new law thus far, states that he has copyrighted one book in America, but never will another, as the process proves to be so troublesome and costly. If he discovers the case to be such, it is certain that no Spanish writer will find the privilege of any substantial value. The simultaneous-printing clause has raised the interesting question whether a story first published serially in an English magazine can secure copyright in the United States. The practice of one publisher would appear to indicate that he thought not. Though the authorized publisher for J. M. Barrie in this country, he did not dare to wait till that writer's 'Little Minister,' published in England in *Good Words*, reached its end, but brought out an edition with the concluding instalment missing. Having thus forestalled any possible piratical rival, he afterwards printed the story complete. We also see it stated that some American authors suffer from the new law, inasmuch as they are no longer able to get copyright both in England and their own land on a single set of plates, made perhaps in England at rates cheaper than our own. Of course, the friends of copyright had to take what they could get when the bill passed, and be thankful that it was as well with them as it was; but in their future efforts to perfect the measure they surely will endeavor to have the simultaneous-printing and American-composition clauses stricken out.

The recent announcement of Mr. Wanamaker that he will retire from public life at the end of President Harrison's term and return to the management of his private business, confirms the report that the President is more or less weary of him. Taken by and large, Wanamaker has been the heaviest of the many burdens that the Harrison Administration has placed upon the country. He was taken from his bargain-counter and the Bethany Sunday-school by President Harrison, and was thus enabled to add politics to his professional mixture of piety and business. He not only entered the Cabinet as the most religious Republican business man in the world, as Col. Shepard is the most religious Republican editor in the world, but he entered it as the first man who was known to have bought his portfolio for cash. There was an incongruity about these two qualifications for the place which has not been dispelled by his conduct in office. He has been a failure as Postmaster-General, although he has made some improvements in the postal service of the country; he has demoralized it with "politics" of the most worldly sort, and, while persistently talking piety, has so ignored and violated the civil-service regulations that a steadily increasing crop of scandal has been accumulating in his wake, till he is now at the point of an open rupture with the Civil-Service Commission.

It is likely to be a long time before another President repeats the Wanamaker experiment. No successor to Harrison will think it worth while to seek to increase his popularity by putting a professionally religious man into high office, for Wanamaker and Harrison together have dispelled for ever the idea which many people had, that such men would make better public officials than men either not professionally religious or not religious at all. In doing this, Wanamaker and Harrison have brought discredit upon religion, but they have done the country a service by making it difficult if not impossible for demagogues and humbugs of all kinds to get into office by loud professions of piety. Wanamaker was the first of his kind in national politics, and he is likely to be the last. His decline dates from the revelation of his connection with the Keystone Bank rascals, for it seems to be one of the peculiarities of President Harrison that he has no further use for a faithful friend who allows himself to be caught and exposed. He dropped Dudley after the "blocks of five" charge had been proved against him, and dropped Quay after his performances with the State funds of Pennsylvania had been so completely exposed that the whole country pronounced him guilty. Now he is preparing to drop Wanamaker.

The action of the Nebraska Democratic State Convention on Thursday shows how rapid is the collapse of the free-silver movement. There is no part of the country where this movement seemed stronger two years ago than in Kansas and Nebraska. Republicans and Democrats alike appeared to be carried away by the craze. The Kansas Republicans, in their State Convention of 1890, adopted a resolution declaring that "we demand free coinage of silver, a measure strongly opposed and vigorously denounced by the late Democratic Administration, led by ex-President Grover Cleveland." The same year the Democrats of Nebraska adopted a platform condemning the Republicans for their unfriendliness to silver, and saying that "We declare ourselves in favor of the free coinage of silver." The free-coinage men went to Thursday's Convention expecting to repeat the declaration of 1890, but only one member of the whole Committee on Resolutions favored such a deliverance. The champion of sil-

ver, Congressman Bryan, then decided to carry the fight into the Convention itself, supposing that he would find an overwhelming majority of the delegates on his side; but although he is an exceedingly forcible speaker, and made the best possible case for his side, he was beaten by 247 to 229.

The Florida Republicans held a State Convention last week, elected Harrison delegates to the National Convention, and adopted a platform in which they complain that they are cheated in elections so badly that it is of no use to vote. The concluding resolution is as follows:

"That we consider it utterly useless for us to put tickets in the field for any office—State, Congressional, or national—and we hereby decline to do so until our rights are protected and our political liberty secured to us by the enactment of an effective national election law."

If no Republican ticket is nominated in Florida until a Force Bill has been adopted, it will be a long time before there is a Republican ticket in the field. Probably it will be the best thing for the State not to have a Republican ticket. The Democrats are bound to split as soon as there is no opposition to them, and, when that happens, both factions will insist upon fair play at the polls. The only cure for such troubles is to be found at home; they can never be removed by sending troops from Washington.

The *Congressional Record* for the first session of the Fifty-first Congress consisted of eleven large volumes of nearly one thousand pages each, besides an index volume, itself the largest of the series. As the session was of eleven months' duration, this was equivalent to about one thousand pages per month. But the present Congress bids fair to beat that average, not in the way of actually spoken words, but under the customary "leave to print," which has now become a gross and even shameful abuse. During the past week several members on the Democratic side have attempted to secure a reprint of Henry George's book, 'Protection or Free Trade,' as a part of the national records by introducing successive chapters into their own speeches. In some cases there was no speech at all made by the member who thus loaded the *Record*, but only a few words, saying, "These are my sentiments," followed by several pages of Mr. George's book. Of course, this hint was not lost on the other side of the House. Accordingly, we find in the *Record* of Saturday a similar effort on the part of Mr. Milliken of Maine, who says, "These are my sentiments"—writing eight lines for that purpose—and then puts in fifteen pages of a campaign document on the protectionist side that has been in circulation for some time, the author's name not being announced. Next in order comes Jerry Simpson of Kansas, with six pages of Henry George. Mr. Simpson is more economical of his own speech than Mr. Milliken was, for he uses only six lines to Milliken's eight. Then comes Mr. Dolliver of Iowa with five pages of the writings of R. G. Horr, introduced by nine lines of his own composition. This number of the *Congressional Record* contains fifty-two pages of matter, including two pages of petitions presented and referred. Twenty-five pages are occupied with the sayings of George, Horr, and the unknown author of the Republican campaign document. This exhibit would ordinarily imply barrenness of ideas and poverty of intellect among the Congressmen who make such use of the *Record*, but this would not be the true explanation of the matter. They want to circulate certain documents at the public expense. This would be very smart, although dishonest, if the practice could be restricted to one side; but when both parties resort to it, it becomes a burden to both.

Not long ago a circular was issued by the publisher of the *Tribune*, in which he solemnly and unselfishly appealed to all good Republicans to subscribe for his paper, on the ground that it was about to "educate" the people of this country on the tariff question. The educational campaign was going on at high pressure in Sunday's issue, and something was provided to suit every taste. To show the catholic impartiality with which the editing is done, we put side by side extracts from its London correspondence (first page) and its editorial utterances (sixth page):

FIRST PAGE.

America and the McKinley tariff have heretofore been held responsible for a good part of the diminution in the volume of English trade, but it now appears that the effect of this particular cause has been overestimated. . . . They [the Democratic and Mugwump allies in America of the British manufacturer] like to attribute to the McKinley tariff all or nearly all the ills that flesh is heir to. But since it benefits us and hardly hurts their British allies, they may, perhaps, be induced to attack their own country on some other ground.

SIXTH PAGE.

The trade returns in England prove that the McKinley Tariff Act has damaged the export trade of that country. Experts differ in determining the percentage of loss; but they unite in admitting that the effects of American legislation have been very serious. As the McKinley Act has materially benefited the United States, it would be natural to expect a compensating loss somewhere on the other side; and England is as well prepared to bear the loss as any other European country. The authors of the act were not legislating for England, but for the United States, and they deliberately brought about a transfer of industry from one side of the ocean to the other.

We must add a third even more authoritative extract, to be found in a recent speech of the editor himself. Said Mr. Reid:

"In any case, we shall have plenty of trade with her, and I hope a growing trade. There is every reason for it. Each country produces at the best what the other wants. France must buy our raw materials and certain of our manufactures. We must buy the finest and most artistic things in the world, whatever they cost, and it is France that makes them. Who supposes that you could stop American women from buying French gowns, fine silks, ribbons, and *articles de Paris;* or American men from buying French pictures and bronzes and tapestries, Bordeaux and champagnes, even if a dozen McKinleys stood in the way? We'll grumble about the price, of course—why shouldn't we?—but we'll buy all the same."

Thus we get the three opinions—that the McKinley Bill has not checked foreign exports to this country; that it has; that it has not and will not, but will only raise prices in this country. It is certain that no other than "the greatest American newspaper" would give its readers such an embarrassment of riches in a single number.

The majority report of the Joint Committee of the Legislature in the Maynard case has been made, but as every one knew what it was to be, it is not necessary to analyze it, particularly as it is not likely to exert the smallest influence on public opinion. The report will, however, have considerable value for Judge Maynard himself, as he will be able to send it down to his posterity as the genuine official judgment of the constituted authorities on his conduct, and as a sufficient answer to the Committee of the Bar Association when all knowledge of the standing and acquirements of his whitewashers shall have perished from the earth. But it will do the Judge no good during his mortal career, owing to the notoriety of his case and the extraordinary severity of the blow dealt to his reputation by the Bar Association. By the bye, why does he not have the whole Committee arrested for "criminal libel"? He would have no difficulty in getting warrants for every man of them. Their report was not privileged, and is as full of libellous matter as an egg is of meat.

The Speedway Law has been repealed and the Central Park has thus been delivered, we trust for all time, from one of the most devastating raids upon its beauty and usefulness ever devised. The Tammany leaders are rejoicing greatly over the repeal, and one of them, Mr. Gilroy, is reported as having said, "This means 20,000 votes for Tammany Hall this fall." What Mr. Gilroy meant was, that if the repeal bill had failed of passage, Tammany would have lost that number of votes. His statement is, therefore, a confession that fear of losing votes is the all-powerful motive for good government in Tammany. Rather than face a possible loss of 20,000 votes, the Tammany bosses compel the Legislature to repeal a law which, under orders from the same bosses, the same Legislature passed only a few weeks earlier. The speedway project was a Tammany invention; and Tammany influence would have carried it into execution but for the fear of the loss of votes. In other words, Tammany did not abandon its raid because convinced of its outrageous character, but because it was frightened by

public opinion into a temporary act of contrition and decent behavior.

The eulogy on Croker which ex-Secretary Whitney left behind in the *World* on Thursday before sailing for Europe, as a man who has "worked his way up by force of character and good sense," and "as perfectly honest," and "as hard a worker as there is in the country," entirely misconstrues the objections felt to Croker in this community. Croker may be "honest," in the sense of not committing either grand or petty larceny, and may be a "hard worker," but how do these things qualify him to be ruler of a great city, to sit in private and distribute its offices without the slightest regard to the fitness of the appointees, to sell judicial nominations and pocket the money without accounting, so far as the public knows, to anybody; to decide, without appeal, and often by telegraph, what bills shall pass the State Legislature and what shall not, being all the while a very ignorant and illiterate man, who has never given the smallest outward sign of concern for the public interest? What was he working at when he was working so hard? Is it not astonishing that any American, with a spark of national pride or a spark of care for the good old cause of free government, should not be shocked at seeing the chief city of the Union ruled by such a man almost as absolutely as Tiberius ruled Rome, and with even more contempt for constitutional forms (for Tiberius took great pains to hide his legislative power behind the authority of the Senate)—and all this so early in the national annals? We say with deliberation that history may be searched in vain for a situation so full of humiliation as that in which New York sits to-day, under the domination of three or four ignorant men of foreign birth. We do not blame Croker in the least for getting what he has got—he must have some imperial stuff in him to get it; but what shall we say to the descendants of the Pilgrims, and the Signers, and the Knickerbockers, who are happy and content under his sway, and plaster him with adulation?

When the New York Presbytery voted last fall to dismiss the case against Prof. Briggs, it was clear that such a decision meant only the wish of the majority to hush up the question irrespective of its real merits, and it was equally clear to any dispassionate observer of the situation in the denomination at large that the case could not find a final settlement in that way. The victory of the anti-Briggs party in the Presbytery in the election of delegates to the General Assembly on Monday week, and the agitation of the same old issue reported from various Presbyteries of the country, notably at Cincinnati and at Cleveland, show how impossible it is to cover up such a fire when it has once broken out. The present outlook is for some action at the General Assembly, a month from now, which will put an unmistakable ban upon the accused professor and the seminary that retains him in its corps of instructors. Saying nothing of the weight of argument on the two sides of the controversy, it is perfectly evident that the conservatives have the heaviest battalions, and mean to use them relentlessly. They include almost all the noted politicians of the Church, who have the unfaltering faith of the Cardinal in the "odd man" as the organ of the will of Providence, and who have been busily at work all the winter in seeing to it that there shall be no doubt on which side that man shall turn up. The turn-about in the Presbytery of this city is no doubt due in great part to the maintenance by Prof. Briggs of his positive and aggressive position. If he had gone about on tip-toe, with a padlock on his mouth, the compromisers and hushers-up would have stood by him; but he is not that kind of a man, and the issue he has created is now more unavoidably upon the Presbyterian Church than ever before.

We have not yet seen any authentic account of the proceedings of the Central American Diet which met in San Salvador on February 15, but it is safe to say that the results of its deliberations will not promise so fair as did those of the meeting of three years ago. At that time a full-fledged plan for confederation was agreed upon, needing only the approval of the Congresses of the separate countries to be carried into effect. The outlook for peace and union was very rosy for a time, but the next year came the Pan-American Congress and gave the Spanish Americans such an over-dose of fraternity that a reaction set in as soon as the delegates got home, and they have been flying at each other's throats since in a way quite unexampled in all their history. The Central American republics in particular fell foul of one another with the proverbial fury of a family quarrel, and the project of federation seemed for ever abandoned. However, it was to be discussed again in this year's Diet, together with a proposal, in the meantime, to formulate a general criminal and commercial code, to remove various restrictions on trade, and to make the laws governing citizenship and extradition uniform in the five countries. Certainly, all industrial and progressive interests call for the abolition of the existing territorial divisions, with their perpetually antagonistic and clashing governments; but the curse of popular ignorance and of military rule thinly disguised under republican forms will probably continue to retard the advance of Central America for a long while.

The revelations about the condition of that portion of the British Army which remains at home after the regiments have been drained of their best men for foreign service, are one more indictment, and a very serious one, of the system of voluntary enlistment in our day. The accounts given by officials of the poor quality of the home garrisons simply mean that in order to fill the ranks large numbers of weedy men have been enlisted. To the question, Why have weedy men to be enlisted? the answer is, that the pay is too small in the present condition of the labor market, and the soldier's trade is too much discredited by the memories of what it used to be in the early part of the century. Wellington's army was literally composed of the dregs of the population, and was kept in order by a savage discipline in which ferocious flogging played a large part. This degraded the army horribly in the popular eye, and made the friends of a young man who enlisted give up him as a social pariah. The life of the soldier in the barracks, too, was wretched, and fully expressed the view taken of his deserts by his superiors. Since then his condition has been greatly improved. He is well lodged, and though scantily, yet is on the whole well fed. Very elaborate care is taken of his health, and he is supplied with books and periodicals and schools, which, for a man desirous of self-improvement, would make a term of enlistment a by no means undesirable mode of beginning life, if it were not for the traditions which surround the calling. "A common soldier" still occupies the very lowest place in English life. The uniform which glorifies the officer degrades the private, no matter how many victories he wins in all quarters of the globe. This tradition is not likely to be broken up until conscription sweeps all classes into the ranks.

The exceedingly bitter feeling excited among the lower classes of Berlin by the Emperor's Brandenburg speech found characteristic expression in the cry of the mob during the recent riots: "Wir bleiben hier; der Lump kann gehen" (We mean to stay; the Ragamuffin may go). Only a series of utterances that seemed to be wilful and systematic outrages of public sentiment could have provoked such insulting shouts under the palace windows of the Prussian capital. The educated classes have declined the proffered expatriation in dignified language in the press, and the comic papers have had their fling at the new "L'État, c'est moi." Americans who wonder at the Emperor's folly, however, should bethink themselves of recent events at home in the same spirit. Speaker Reed's treatment of the minority was an almost explicit denial of their right to any standing at all in the House or in the government of the country, and fell little short of Cromwell's expulsion of the Rump Parliament. And, in the campaign of 1888, who can recall without shame the impudent appropriation of the national flag as an exclusive symbol by the protectionist party, and the relegation of its opponents to the British flag, thus proclaiming a moral disfranchisement, denaturalization, and deportation of one-half the citizens of the United States!

SCOPE OF THE MAY CONVENTION MOVEMENT.

It must be apparent to all close observers that the protesting Democratic State Convention which is to be held in this State next month is to be something more than an anti-Hill gathering. The experienced Democratic managers who are organizing the Convention are not working for temporary results alone. They are not seeking merely the selection, by a genuinely representative party Convention, of a delegation to Chicago which will fitly represent the party, but are seeking to set the party itself in such a light before the people of the State that a self-respecting citizen may not be ashamed to say that he belongs to it. So long as the party consents to be dominated by the Hill Machine, self-respecting citizens will hesitate to ally themselves with it or to vote for its candidates. This was shown to everybody's satisfaction in the town elections. The odium of Hillism drove over to the Republican side thousands of voters who had in the November election voted the Democratic ticket, and kept thousands of other Democratic voters away from the polls.

Sagacious Democratic leaders have been quick to catch the alarm from this situation. They had been uneasy for a long time under the Hill domination, and it was only a question of time when they would revolt from it. The calling of the snap Convention gave them their opportunity, but it was merely the culminating act in a long series of abuses by the party machine which he had built up. Accordingly, in organizing a protest within the party against that Convention, the leaders of the revolt determined to make their work thorough and reorganize the party itself. That is what the May Convention is destined to do. The delegates to that Convention will be elected on what will undoubtedly be the fairest enrolment of voters ever made by a great party in this State, and as fair as was ever made in any State. It will therefore be a representative body in the fullest sense of the term, and will command recognition as the organized will of the Democratic voters of New York State.

That this will be the character of the May Convention is evident from the statements which have been made in reference to the work of enrolment in various counties of the State. In Erie County, out of a total of 29,000 Democratic voters, about 20,000 have been enrolled in protest against the methods which culminated in the snap Convention. In Madison County, over 2,000 have been enrolled in a total of 3,500, and the same proportion holds in nearly all the other counties of the State. When it is borne in mind that every voter who signs his name to the list is liable to the charge of bolting, the significance of these figures becomes apparent, for Democrats are proverbially loath to take any step which looks like a violation of party fealty.

The real explanation of this revolt, which is not so much a revolt as it is the uprising of the masses of the party against a clique of unworthy leaders, is to be found in the steadily increasing uneasiness which the decent men in the party have felt during the seven years of Hill's control. They saw, when the snap Convention was called and held, that they had tolerated this control too long, that they ought to have disputed it years ago, and that the only way open to them now for the salvation of their party in the State lay in giving the party an opportunity to take its organization into its own hands. They had been restless for a long time under the practice which prevailed among Republicans everywhere of holding up the Democratic party of the State of New York as a "horrible example" to the rest of the country; and when the snap Convention put Hill before the country as the choice of his party in the State, there was only one way in which the Republican charge could be met. That was to repudiate Hill and destroy his Machine. The May Convention movement has been forced to make this its objective point from the outset, and it is now certain of accomplishing it.

The Democratic party of the rest of the country ought to be deeply interested in the success of this movement, and ought to do all in its power to see that its work not only is completely successful, but is sanctioned by the National Convention. Nothing has done the Democratic cause in the nation at large greater harm than the bad character of the controlling influences of the Democratic party in this the foremost State in the Union. That the party in this State should have as its leading representative a man like David B. Hill, with an apparently all-powerful organization of semi-criminals and liquor-dealers behind him, and that the whole party should accept him as its representative, were facts which were worth thousands of votes to the Republican candidates.

The May Convention will remove this stigma, and will do the Democratic party in the nation a service of incalculable value, second—if second—only to the Bar Association's unpartisan verdict in the Maynard case. That verdict was regarded by Hill as a deadly assault upon himself, and he was right in so considering it. Maynard's offence was an outgrowth of Hill's system, and the Bar Association's verdict was the first gun of the Democratic revolution against that system. It was one of the most powerful moral tonics ever administered to the debilitated system of a great political party. No parallel to it can be found in the history of either of the great parties in this country. The good effect of it upon the New York Democracy will be heightened and strengthened when the May Convention shall have met and done its work, but the cure will not be completed unless that work is recognized and confirmed by the National Convention.

THE PROPER WORK OF THE CITY CLUB.

No more encouraging gathering has been held in this city for many a day than that which assembled last week to usher into formal existence the new City Club. In numbers it exceeded both the expectations of the promoters of the movement and the capacity of the hall, and in character it was representative of all that is worthy and of good repute in the community. That such a body of men should come together at a time when there is no particular provocation for protest against municipal maladministration, simply because they had been asked to form a permanent organization in the interest of good city government, is a most encouraging sign. It shows that there is such a thing as civic pride in this community, and that the number of people who are ashamed of the existing condition of affairs is much greater than has been suspected.

It is a great pity that Mr. Carter's and Mr. Hewitt's speeches were not fully reported, for they were both full of doctrine, of reproof and of instruction regarding the condition of city politics. Mr. Carter's was especially interesting as in a certain sense tracing out the programme of the Club's work. On this programme so traced we have no criticism to offer except on one point, but this is an important one. We are unable to quote his exact words, but we are sure we preserve the sense when we say that he urged on the Club to avoid "personalities" or attacks on individuals, and confine themselves in their agitation to trying to show up the iniquity of "the system." The fault of "the system" is, in his view, that it compels candidates to take office under a great burden of pledges, and it is as the result of the efforts of the candidates to redeem these pledges that we get bad government; so that if we break up the system of giving these pledges, we shall reform the municipal administration.

Now, we make bold to say that if the City Club fails in the vigorous and constant use of personalities, it will fail altogether to do the work it has set before itself. Personalities have got a bad name because they are too frequently used in lieu of argument concerning matters of opinion. But the fight against Tammany Hall, wherein, as Mr. Hewitt well pointed out, the work of reform in this city must mainly consist, does not arise out of differences of opinion among honest men. This city is badly governed owing to the bad conduct of certain men, and owing to nothing else under heaven. The "system," in so far as they have one, differs in no respect from the distribution of parts which conspirators have always to make when they undertake to rob a bank. Some watch on the sidewalk, some inside the door, one holds the lantern, another plies the cold chisel, and another puts the dynamite in

the hole. All concerted action among criminals, as among honest men, needs a system, but no denunciation of the system will ever do anything to bring the criminals to justice.

If the Club go about among the workingmen of this city, refraining from hard words about the Tammany leaders and expending all their invective simply on the Tammany Society as an objectionable organization, they will accomplish nothing; the plain voters will soon tire of their preaching. The plan of taking pledges in order to secure election has nothing objectionable in it *per se*. Such pledges are exacted in all parliamentary countries from candidates for all sorts of offices. The reformers demand them just as much as the Tammany men. They reflect no discredit either on those who exact them or those who give them. The City Club will have to extort them vigorously from candidates for municipal offices, as well as from candidates for the Legislature, if it means to make an impression. Each pledge must be judged on its own merits, and by its nature we must judge the man who makes it. There was, for instance, no harm in Mayor Grant's pledging himself before election to appoint certain men to office. What concerns the public, and what will concern the City Club, is what kind of men he did appoint in execution of these pledges. This shows us at once the use, the necessity, for personality. No system, no plan of action, comes down out of the sky. Men make systems to suit their needs. If they make them for bad ends, they are bad men. If Grant uses his appointing power to put grossly unfit men on the police bench, for instance, what do we care whether it is done under pledge or out of his own head? What would be the use in asking him? In either case it shows his own unfitness for the Mayoralty, and it thus would become the business of the Club to denounce him, not as A or C or X, or as a "System," but as Hugh J. Grant, guilty of gross offences against the public weal. It was not a system which robbed the city in 1870. It was certain individuals named William M. Tweed, Richard B. Connolly, and others, and the work of reform consisted in catching, trying, and punishing them, and using them by name to enlighten the public judgment and sharpen the public conscience.

We constantly forget that the work of municipal government consists almost wholly in administration, and the higher duty of administration consists almost wholly in the exercise of the appointing power. Nearly the whole of the Mayor's task, and by far the most important part of it, consists in the filling of offices. If the offices of this city were to-day filled by competent men of good character, and had been so for the last twenty years, wherein would the badness of the city government consist? What need would there be for the City Club? Does not this badness now consist in the fact that the sweepers do not sweep, that the pavers do not pave, the police do not police, the justices do not judge, or judge wrongly or corruptly, the tax-spenders do not spend, or spend on improper objects, that the Park Commissioners are unfaithful to their trust, and the Park laborers loaf and drink? Why, the whole city government is simply a mass of more or less corrupt and unsavory personality. Persons are the thing to be reformed. Personal character and personal conduct are the things to be investigated. "Who are you?" and "How did you get here?" and "What are you doing?" are the city reformers' first, second, and third questions.

The main duty of the City Club will be, therefore, unless we are greatly mistaken, the duty of finding out who these creatures who reign over us are, how they get into city service, and in what manner they are earning their salaries, and of explaining to the voters what they discover. Next after it will be the protection, which only a strong organization can give, to the poor voters who are now intimidated into subservience to Tammany by the police justices, the police captains, and the "leaders" of the various districts. This class must find in the Club a strong tower of defence. Moreover, it must relieve the newspaper press of some of the expense and risk of tracking these unclean animals to their original lairs, and showing in what manner they qualified for the profession of public plunderers. Nor is it by any means necessary, as some try to persuade us, that the members of the Club must spend their evenings in the slums, and labor with the refuse of the city population, in order to roll up majorities against Tammany. Nothing the Club or any organization can do will oust Tammany from its control of the haunts of extreme poverty, and of vice and crime. In those depths the Boss will always reign supreme. The business of the Club is to organize against Tammany that large majority of decent people, rich and poor, which has always existed, which has never voted the Tammany ticket, but which is defeated, betrayed, and confused at every municipal election by the raising of Federal issues. It was not from the slums that the 30,000 registered voters came who refused to vote at the last municipal election; it was from comfortable or luxurious homes. The evangelization of these heathen is to be the proper work of the Club, and it will be neither difficult nor repulsive.

A PERSISTENT LITERARY SUPERSTITION.

A PICTURE of publishers sitting at a banquet where wine was quaffed from the skulls of their victims—the unfortunate writers of the books out of which they had made enormous profits—would be regarded by most people as belonging to almost the prehistoric age of literary caricature; yet the idea underlying it has a surprising vitality even at the present day. No one at all in contact with the book-publishing trade, or with periodical literature, can have failed to come upon occasional survivals of the old superstition. Now it will be a beseeching letter from some struggling genius unable to make head against the universal conspiracy of publishers to prevent his writings from winning that immortal renown which type, ink, and paper are alone needed to secure. Again it will be the fine bravado of some book printed by its author, defiantly announcing that it had been declined by all the leading publishers of the country, who were now to see what a mistake they had made. Perhaps it will be a puzzled request to be shown how to get the "entrée" into a specified magazine or quarterly. The evidence rapidly accumulates, in short, before any one in a position to observe it, that there are multitudes of people who still think that publishers are set for the suppression of talent, and that there are some mysterious and occult paths of "influence" which a writer must learn to tread before he can hope to arrive at publication.

This old and persistent illusion was made the subject of remark in a speech by Mr. Frederick Macmillan at the Booksellers' Annual Trade Dinner in London last month. Speaking in the name of publishers in general, he affirmed that "the necessity of having successful books on their lists is only equalled by their assiduity in looking for them." He also cited some statistics of the publications of the Macmillans during 1891, which have an interesting bearing upon the question of the relation of publishers to authors not yet known to fame. The house mentioned published during the twelvemonth 166 new books. Of these no less than 144 were what might be called bespoken—that is to say, they had not, for a variety of reasons, to be passed upon in the manuscript stage; they were either in continuation of a series already begun, or were volumes which well-known writers had been commissioned to produce, or were the works of authors whose names were alone a guarantee of success, and for whose writings many publishers are eager competitors. The remaining twenty-two volumes were voluntary offerings to the firm, and were accepted on their merits; but they were the only survivors out of a total of 315 manuscripts offered.

Such an experience very well epitomizes the general course of the publishing business. Because it is a business, and not a philanthropic or happy-go-lucky enterprise, it necessarily follows that publishers must have their main dealings with writers who have already won a place in the profession. In other words, publishers must know beforehand what the bulk of their year's output is to consist of; they must have their foregoing engagements and contracts, and cannot sit back idly awaiting a volume of poems from Gifted Hopkins

or a novel from George Winton Wood—that preposterous character in Crawford's latest story who writes in ten days a powerful novel which soon brings him in $10,000. But this is not to say that they will not give a fair and respectful hearing to the effusions of Gifted and of George. It is curious how strong is the conviction of many unsuccessful literary aspirants that their manuscripts are rejected by publishers because returned unread. It seems to them simply impossible that their genius could have failed to be recognized except in that way. So sure are some mute, inglorious Miltons that this is the case that, as Mr. Macmillan asserts, it is becoming their practice to propose to bring their manuscripts in person and read them aloud in the publisher's astonished ear, thus putting their talent in open and incontrovertible evidence.

Such offers are, we believe, generally declined with thanks; but there is really no occasion for making them. True genius is not half so anxious to find a publisher as a publisher is to find true genius. Vast as is the supply of writing in these days, the supply of good writing is nowhere near the demand for it. Its dearth is all that drives an editor or a publisher to search through the masses of manuscript sent him. In spite of the teachings of a long and discouraging experience, he still hopes to find a brilliant article or an original book turning up in some unexpected quarter. His ghoul-like glee is not, as is commonly supposed, exhibited in the act of returning a manuscript, but when, scarcely believing his own eyes, he electrifies his associates by telling them that he has discovered a bit of high-class work in a writer whom nobody ever heard of before. No, the struggling geniuses and their friends are altogether wrong in contending that the publisher is their great obstacle and enemy. They are the very ones he is on the watch for and spends his time and money in trying to find. His idea of what a genius is may be somewhat different from theirs, but when he finds the genuine article, or thinks he does, he is happier than the genius is. So eager is he in the search for this hid treasure that he is often over-credulous instead of, as usually said, over-sceptical, and has to pay dear for being too confident that he has at last found his man. The hardships and losses of the unrecognized author have been a frequent theme of the melancholy muse; who will ever sing of the disappointments and losses of the publisher who, to his cost, has recognized an author only to find that the reading world will not recognize him?

We are not propounding publishers as fit for immediate canonization; they doubtless have their faults, and there is a goodly array of Devil's Advocates to exhibit them skilfully and with a loud noise. Into the general question of their relations with authors we have not here entered. All that we have sought to do is to point out the folly of supposing that it is their interest, or is ever imagined by them to be their interest, to discourage young or unknown writers. They do discourage unknown stupidity or mediocrity, and are properly shy of unknown eccentricity; but to suppose that they deliberately suppress what the public would enjoy or profit by is to suppose that they are not only knaves, but fools.

THE REGENERATION OF EGYPT.

Menlo Park, Cal., March 15, 1892.

In the Valley of the Nile to-day there are three Egypts. There are the sub-stratum dominions of the Egypt Exploration Fund—an ancient land of sphinx, pyramid, mummy, and scarab, ruled over in this century by a dynasty of archæologists. Superimposed is the Egypt of Mohammed, with its tapering minarets, swelling domes, and dusky bazaars, and all the torpifying influences focalized at Cairo in the teachings of the great university-mosque of El-Azhar with its 19,000 students swaying and muttering over the Koran. Above this, in turn, is the Egypt of the English occupation. The English soldier kicks football in the yard of the barracks where Arabi hatched his rebellion, and the English tourist plays polo under the shadow of the great pyramid, to the regimental music of the Royal Irish Rifles.

England is known to be the greatest of colonizers and the most successful governor of Orientals, but the reforms she has wrought in Egypt during the past nine years are simply astounding. A looted treasury, a disorganized and almost hopelessly corrupt administration, a rebellious and cowardly army, and a people crushed under unbearable taxation have in this short space of time, and in the face of Oriental apathy and French obstruction, been metamorphosed into order, plenty, and content. This work of the English in Egypt is an achievement of which every Anglo-Saxon must be proud. And yet there has been little romance in this restoration. It is chiefly a story of common sense, honesty, and straightforward hard work. The sole trustee of an insolvent people first sought to reëstablish their financial credit. The basis for any such substantial improvement must be intelligent care of the resources of the country. The wealth of Egypt is exclusively agricultural; the productiveness of the soil depends primarily upon irrigation and the regulation of the Nile; therefore, attention was first turned to engineering works for the proper accumulation and distribution of the water supply.

English irrigation officers of long experience in India were brought to Egypt, and they immediately set to work to remedy, first of all, the sorry condition of the Delta. Here the irrigation is done by deep canals, and an attempt had been made in former years to supply these canals by holding up the waters of the Nile at the apex of the Delta by means of a great barrage, or weir. The barrage had been constructed by a French engineer at a cost of $10,000,000, but as soon as completed it had cracked, and, for eighteen years before the English occupation, had been abandoned. At the time of the arrival of the English engineers, a contract had been made for forcing the water into the canals of one province only, at an annual cost of from $250,000 to $300,000, and arrangements had about been perfected for supplying the rest of the Delta in the same way at an initial cost of $3,500,000 and an annual expense of $1,250,000. But the English engineers at once repaired and strengthened the condemned barrage, and steam-pumps were rendered unnecessary. Continuous irrigation must be accompanied by drainage, and 1,500 miles of drains have been put in since 1884. Lagoons in the north of the Delta cover 1,280,000 acres, but in a few years half of this land will have been reclaimed and cultivated. Already 200,000 acres have been reclaimed. In upper Egypt the defects were likewise great, for the water failed to reach the higher lands, and in years of average Nile flood there was an annual loss of nearly $200,000. In the very deficient flood of 1877, the loss was about $5,500,000; in 1888 it was $1,500,000; but even then there was water enough if it could have reached the land. Col. Ross, the chief irrigation officer, has proved that by a system of canals, sluices, siphons, escapes, and weirs, the whole Nile Valley can receive the necessary mud-charged water, even in the worst years. These works, now under construction, will be completed in 1893 at a cost of $3,000,000.

A few instances of the economies effected by the English engineers may not be uninteresting. In 1885, at a cost of $25,000 for cutting a main drainage channel between the canals Tanah and Gabada, 30,000 acres, water-logged and worthless from salt infiltrations, were reclaimed. In 1886, a new head channel was given to the Kurtamia Canal at a cost once for all of less than $10,000, thus saving an annual outlay of $7,500 for silt-clearance. The Samana Canal had been neglected for twenty years, and all the lower portion of the tract it should have supplied with water had been thrown out of cultivation and was inhabited by a few Bedouins; but a judicious expenditure of $15,000 on the canal brought back into cultivation 50,000 acres, and the deserted villages are all rebuilt. To clear the Sahel Canal of silt each year used to require 18,000 men working for forty days; but by a junction canal and a siphon the canal now clears itself—or, in other words, by an expenditure once for all of $27,000, an annual saving of $35,000 has been effected. One of the results of the work of the Irrigation Department is that, since 1884, the average annual yield of cotton has been 150,000 tons greater than in the five years preceding 1884, representing a value of over $4,000,000 yearly, exclusive of the cotton seed. The cotton crop of 1891 in Egypt was the largest ever known.

A word must be said as to the character of these engineers who have been foremost in the redemption of Egypt. They have had to contend with vested abuses on every side, learn the spoken Arabic of the common people, and overcome religious prejudices and superstitions which, as Balzac says, are the most indestructible form of human thought. While the French engineers always stayed in Cairo, each of the present irrigation inspectors travels over his district again and again, often on foot, suffering much hardship, and seeking the shelter of the humblest mud huts, lest, by accepting the entertainment of the wealthy proprietors, he be suspected by the poorer natives of having been bribed. In Ismail's time the canals were first tapped for the estates of the Khedive, then for the pashas and village sheikhs, and last of all for the poorest native; but now all are served alike. In times of scanty supply, the water is given in rotation to the land without reference to the owner. In former days a poor man was completely at the mercy of his rich neighbor and of the corrupt native inspector, who, unless bribed, would not open a sluice at a critical time for the crops. Now the poor no longer have to

bribe for water; they have confidence in the English inspectors and have learned that petitions will be listened to and wrongs redressed. The actual head executive officer of public works is Sir Colin Scott-Moncrieff; the chief of irrigation works is Col. J. C. Ross, who knows thoroughly every canal and something of nearly every landholder in Egypt. Of course the history of these public improvements is not a record of monotonous successes. There have been mistakes and failures, but the errors were almost worth committing for the sake of the candor, no less refreshing than astonishing, with which they are admitted in the official reports. Here is a sentence from Moncrieff's report for 1886: "The dredging contracts have been altogether badly drawn up, a circumstance I regret all the more that I am directly responsible for them." In his report for 1888 he says: "I am sorry that I cannot accept this view of the case. The consequences show that the Council and Mudir were both wrong, and that Maj. Brown, their technical adviser [an irrigation inspector], was still more wrong, his error being shared by the direction in Cairo whose representative he was and who tacitly approved of his action."

The greatest social reform carried out by the English is one connected with the annual clearing of these canals from silt. From immemorial times public works had depended for their execution upon forced unpaid labor, and this system was the core of most of the official corruption. The sheikh compelled the poor man to give his labor for weeks on the canals, while the rich bribed exemption for their laborers, and the crops of the wealthy flourished, while those of his absent neighbor suffered for want of cultivation. The English set about to abolish this system and to substitute paid contract labor, but were met with a prophecy that wages would not bring the laborers and only force could drive the fellaheen to clear the canals. Nevertheless, the gradual suppression of the *corvée* was undertaken. In 1883, the amount of this forced unpaid labor was equal to 202,650 men working for 100 days; in five years it had been reduced to 58,788 men for 100 days; and in December, 1889, the *corvée* was totally abolished for the first time, probably, in all the thousands of years of Egyptian history. Slavery, too, really no longer exists. An office for the abolition of slavery was created, and from 1883 to 1889 over 10,000 slaves were set free, the provincial governors being required to refer all cases of slavery to this department. In one province of upper Egypt nine-tenths of the workmen employed in lifting water were formerly slaves, but the number has now been reduced to one-tenth.

Another interest under the care of the Department of Public Works is the construction of agricultural roads. Until three years ago it would have been impossible to take a cart-load of produce from one centre of population to another in the Delta. Few of the canals being navigable, the cotton was carried to the railway on camels, which, though adapted for the desert, were not suited to the alluvial soil of lower Egypt. In 1889 surveys were made, roads were begun, and, from results obtained on local private roads on the State domain, it is expected that carts will take the place of camels.

Before the arrival of Sir Evelyn Wood, into whose hands and those of English officers was given the reorganization of the Egyptian army, the lot of a native soldier was ill-fed imprisonment and the lash. Systematic abuse had extinguished every spark of courage. Twelve thousand men had been sent to the Russo-Turkish war, but the behavior of a brigade put under fire at the battle of Karahassankeni was so unsatisfactory to the Turkish commander that none of the Egyptian troops were brought into action again. Their cowardice at the battle of Tel el-Kebir is a matter of more recent history. Now, the whip has been abolished, the native soldier has enough to eat and is paid regularly. When Capt. Hallam Parr wanted six men for hazardous service at Suakin, the whole battalion volunteered. At the joint reviews of English and Egyptian troops held last winter in Cairo, the natives really carried off the honors for soldierly appearance and proficiency in tactics. When Tokar was retaken by the engagement of a year ago, there was no complaint of want of bravery on the part of the natives who were now fighting under English officers. The fellaheen soldier had not forgotten that, during the cholera epidemic of 1883, it was English officers who had nursed him day and night, doing the most menial labors for him, and burying those of his comrades who succumbed to the disease.

In the civil service, too, reforms were immediately set on foot. The number of employees was reduced during the first year of the English occupation to an extent effecting an annual saving of $113,000. The number of English in the civil service is, however, still much smaller than of French or Italians. Previously there had been no fixed rules for promotion. It had been customary to increase the salary of an official without reference to the post he held, while now the salary of a position is fixed and without regard to the individual who holds it.

In 1890 there was a reduction of 50 per cent. in the rates of internal letter postage, with a result that the number of letters increased by a like per cent.; and it may be said in general that the postal arrangements of Egypt are now equal to those of Europe. At the beginning of last year, a reduction of one-half was likewise made in telegraph rates, yet the month of January, 1891, showed a considerable increase of receipts over the same month of the previous year. The railway service has been improved; trains now run on time, and the number of passengers carried in 1889 was over a million more than in 1886.

The police, at present numbering about 7,000 men, were formerly undisciplined and subject to the provincial governors; the body has been put under English officers, completely reorganized, and is subject to proper discipline. A large number of small prisons have been abolished, records of offenders are kept, hygienic rules and prison labor have been adopted, and the prison administration is not behind that of European countries.

Probably the most serious obstacles have been encountered by the English sanitary officers. They have had to combat the prejudices of an ignorant, teeming population which was ready to attribute every epidemic to the decrees of fate. The mosques, with their unsanitary latrines, and the cemeteries are all fruitful beds of disease, but, as they are connected so intimately with the religious life of the people, it is difficult to remedy the existing evils without arousing fanatical antagonism. Something, however, has been accomplished, and, in Cairo, old sewers that were nothing more than elongated cesspools whose course could be traced by the cases of typhoid fever occurring in the adjacent houses, have been filled up, and in 1890 30,000 tons of sewage were removed from the city. Under the old régime, the hospitals were unclean pens to which a native would not go unless taken forcibly by the police. Now these establishments are clean, properly equipped, and have their dietary. Patients are no longer brought in chains, and may leave when they like. At Kasr el-Aini, in Cairo, considerably over 100,000 cases were treated during 1890, and most of the provincial hospitals show proportionate returns. Moreover, dispensaries have been opened in thirteen towns; registration of births and deaths is required; vaccination is obligatory; a veterinary department has been established to suppress cattle diseases; barbers and midwives, the former being practitioners of minor surgery, are required to submit to an examination to determine their proficiency; and, as a matter of special importance, there has been organized a system of flying hospitals for stamping out epidemics of smallpox, typhoid, and typhus fever. It is true that all of these sanitary reforms are not yet perfect in their practical workings.

In 1887 there were only twelve schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction, with an attendance of 1,919, of whom only 50 per cent. were paying pupils. Three years later the number of schools and pupils had quadrupled. This is the more noteworthy because education is not compulsory. A training college for native teachers and an agricultural college have been opened, and the medical school has been reorganized with a six years' course. The Government schools are now superior to private schools, while formerly the contrary was the case.

The most recent reforms have been concerned with the judiciary; Justice Scott, a Judge with experience in India, having last year been appointed judicial adviser to the Government. This appointment means English inspection of the native courts; the facilitation of justice to litigants; a reduction of the opportunities for influencing the decisions of the native judges; and the prevention of interference on the part of higher native officials connected with the executive department of the Government—an interference that has been recognized as existing. Last year, soon after the establishment of the new courts of summary jurisdiction as a part of this reform in upper Egypt, the business disposed of was five times that transacted under the old system.

This, in brief, is the story of what the English have done in Egypt. The history of the regeneration wrought has been admirably epitomized by Mr. Alfred Milner, the Under Secretary for Finance in Egypt:

"Does it make for the independence of Egypt that her material prosperity should be placed above the reach of accident by great durable public works? that her army should be taught to fight? that justice should be brought within the reach of the poorest peasant? above all, that a new generation should be brought up in the practice of, and the demand for, conscientious and incorrupt administration? So much for our honesty on the positive side. Now look at it on the negative. Have we pursued any exclusively English interest? No. Have we laid hands on the privileges of any other nation, on the capitulations, the international tribunals, the Caisse de la Dette? No. Have we sought to use our predominant influence to favor English trade, English residents, English contractors, to the prejudice of those of other nations? No. Have we, as we are sometimes accused of doing, crammed the public service with English officials? No, a thousand times no. The great work of irrigation, of which we have spoken so much, involves the employment of only seventeen Englishmen, from top to bottom, and, in the other departments which we

control, the number is even smaller in proportion. In the Ministry of Finance, with its hundreds of employees, there are just half-a-dozen English. Wherever a vacancy arises for which there is a competent native candidate, it is filled by a native. It is not our aim to make the public service English in its personnel, but to make it English, or rather let me say European, civilized, progressive in its spirit."

EDWIN H. WOODRUFF.

GONCOURT AND HIS FRIENDS.

PARIS, April 1, 1892.

I MUST confess having read with much interest all the successive volumes of the 'Journal des Goncourt.' The memoirs of the literary and artistic society of our time have an extraordinary degree of sincerity. Goncourt—why should we say any more the Goncourts?—is an impressionist, a photograph; he might almost be called also a phonograph—he can repeat a conversation word for word. His receptive faculties have prepared him admirably for the work he has undertaken. Instead of thinking at his fireside and allowing his thoughts to vanish like the smoke and flame of his chimney, he thinks with his pen in his hand, and we become his confidants. The new volume, which is the sixth of the series, and extends from 1878 to 1884, is the last which will appear in his lifetime. You remember, perhaps, that the fourth volume was the occasion of a bitter quarrel between Goncourt and Renan. I must suppose that by refusing to publish in his lifetime the part of the 'Journal' which relates to the years after 1884, Goncourt has taken a wise precaution; most probably he speaks in this latter part of many people whom we see every day, he breaks many idols, he goes against the current of public opinion at many points.

As usual, Goncourt gives at the end of his volume an alphabetical list of names; from it it is easy to find out at a glance the persons who play the greatest part in his existence. Princess Mathilde is one. One day she confided to him her excessive love for France and Paris:

"I have a real need of Paris, of its pavement, . . . the quays, in the evening, with all their lights. . . . There are some days when I feel so happy to live in it. . . . It has so long been my desire to inhabit it. . . . No, when I am not in France, there is a real perturbation in me. I have the *diable au corps* to return to it, to find myself with Frenchmen. . . . The first time I put my foot on French soil, in August, 1841, it was two o'clock in the morning. . . . The first *pantalon garance* I saw was too much for me; I leaped from my carriage to embrace him. Yes, I embraced him!"

Another day, "walking in the streets of Montmorency, in fine health, the Princess, leaning on my arm, and smiling at the beautiful sun, at the happiness of her life surrounded with the affection of a small, friendly society, stopped suddenly and said: 'Yes, it would be hard to go away; I confess that I find life good.'"

These little extracts have a touch of reality which gives the 'Journal' its character; they are bits of life. One day, the Princess speaks of her return to Paris after the war and the Commune; she had to walk from the northern terminus to the Boulevard Haussmann, without being able to find a carriage. "At last, dead with fatigue, she sat on a bench which still stands opposite her former hôtel in the Rue de Courcelles, and there, dying with thirst, and not daring to enter any house, she sent Julie, her maid, to get her a glass of *groseille* in a wine-shop at the door of her hôtel." The conversation falls one day on the beauty of the Princess when she was young: "Yes," said she, "I had an extraordinary complexion. I remember that in Switzerland, when I was fourteen years old, they put on my cheek a leaf of a Bengal rose, and it was impossible to see any difference." The Princess has a sense of fun: she tells one day of a quarrel she had had with her coachman about an old horse she wished to sell. "How can the Princess think of getting rid of the last horse we have . . . that has had arms presented to him?" (That was during the imperial days, when the guard of the Tuileries presented arms to the Princess.)

The new volume of the 'Journal' is full of Daudet and of Daudet's family. Those who admire Daudet's novels will find much in it that will interest them: "I am entirely subjective," says Daudet one day; "I can invent nothing. . . . I have already put all my family in my books. . . . I cannot go any more to the South." It is quite true that Daudet is not a creator, he takes all his types from life; he has used in his books Gambetta, Morny, and a number of others; we all know in Paris who the Nabab was, we can put the names on all the characters of his novels. Daudet explains the subject of 'Les Rois en Exil' to Goncourt: "A very good conception, as it is at the same time poetical and ironical. He wants to make a king's tutor out of the son of a democrat, whom two friars find in a hôtel in the Latin Quarter, with its stairs full of girls *en savates*. This, well done, would be of a delicate and great modernity. Suddenly Daudet interrupts himself: 'You see, it is very unfortunate . . . In reality, you have perturbed me—yes, Flaubert and my wife . . . I have no style—no, no, that is positive. The man born on the other side of the Loire cannot write French prose.' And so he goes on, thinking aloud." The conversation of Daudet can be defined in a word: it is improvisation. It is a mixture of pretty little things, of fine observation, of droll remarks, of fancies poetically comical.

The drama made of the 'Rois en Exil' was first read at Daudet's house. Coquelin had given his advice to Delair, who had constructed the drama. "Coquelin is quite amusing with his infantine admiration for the work which he has hatched. 'You will see how it is done. . . . That's what I call *du théâtre*,' and he begins to read the thing as if sugar were melting in his mouth. Gambetta hears all the play standing, in the posture of a caryatid. He is gay, *bon enfant*, amiable. Really, it must be confessed, among the political men he is the only one who has a social charm—a charm in which disappears at times the vulgarity of his person."

Turgeneff comes in for a large share in the 'Journal,' and, as usual, the citations made of his conversations are very original. At one of the dinners of the Five (they were only four after the death of Flaubert), there was a rambling conversation on death—"love or death, curiously enough, is always the subject of our conversations after dinner." Daudet says that this idea of death poisons his life; he never has entered a new apartment without looking for the location of his coffin. Zola is not more cheerful; since his mother died and, the staircase being too small, had to be taken down by the window, he never looks at this window without thinking who will come down first from it, he or his wife.

"'Yes, death, since that day, is always in our thoughts and often—for we have now a light in our bedroom—when I look at my wife, who does not sleep, I feel she thinks of that, too, and we remain thus, without making an allusion to what we are both thinking of, . . . from a sort of *pudeur*, yes, of *pudeur*. . . . Oh! it is a terrible thought [and I see terror in his eyes]. There are nights when I spring suddenly to my feet and remain for a moment in a state of unspeakable terror.'

"'As for me,' says Turgeneff, 'it is a very familiar thought, but when it comes, I dismiss it so,' said he, making a gesture of refusal. 'For for us, the "Slav fog" (*brouillard slav*) has something good—it has the merit of protecting us against the logic of our ideas, against the extreme pursuit of deduction. With us, you see, they tell us when we are in a blizzard, "Don't think of the cold, or you will die." Well, thanks to this fog I was speaking about, the Slav does not think of the cold, and with me the idea of death effaces itself and is rapidly dissipated.'"

On February 1, 1880, Turgeneff gave a dinner to Zola, Daudet, and Goncourt on the eve of his departure for Russia.

"He leaves for his country, this time, affected by a strange sentiment of incertitude—a feeling, he says, which he had in his early youth, in crossing the Baltic, when the ship was completely surrounded by fog, and when he had no other companion than a monkey chained on the bridge. Then, while we are still alone, he begins to talk of the life which he is going to lead during six weeks, of his home, . . . and of the interviews he has from a little balcony, which almost touches the ground, with the peasants his neighbors. Delicate observer and fine comedian that he is, he gives me the representation of three strata of the present generation: the old peasants, whose sonorous and empty talk he imitates, composed of monosyllables and endless adverbs; the sons of these peasants, who speak like lawyers with fine words; the grandsons, the silent, diplomatic stratum, the destructive stratum; and when I said that these conversations must tire him, he replied, no; it is very curious what you can draw from those illiterate people, whose heads are always at work in solitude and quiet."

Flaubert is very often mentioned and cited. Flaubert makes at times very true remarks: he says, for instance, that all the descendants of Rousseau, all the Romantics, have no very clear conscience of right or wrong; he cites Chateaubriand, Madame Sand, Sainte-Beuve, and he ends thus, after a moment's reflection, "It is true, Renan does not feel indignant at injustice." Flaubert, however, is not flattered; he is represented as a sort of coarse and Pantagruelic companion, full at times of an exuberant gayety; at other times falling into a kind of aggressive sadness. "He must be allowed always to play the leading part; he likes to talk on nasty subjects; with his brick-colored face, redder than a Jordaens, and his long flowing hair, he makes me think of a descendant of a Red Indian." Flaubert delights in abusing and astonishing the bourgeois.

On Easter Sunday, in 1880, Daudet, Zola, and Goncourt go and make Flaubert a visit at Croisset. Maupassant takes them from the station at Rouen to Flaubert's house, who receives them with his hat on, in a sort of pinafore (*calobre*), and with "his good affectionate face." "It is really very fine, his place: this immense Seine, on which the masts of the boats are not seen to move as they would in a theatre; the great trees, with their forms tormented by the winds of the sea; the park; the long terrace to the south, the peripatetic alley—all makes a true asylum for a man of letters."

They all returned soon afterwards to Croisset to attend Flaubert's funeral. The doctor took Goncourt into a corner:

"'He did not die of apoplexy, he died in an epileptic attack. . . . In his youth, you know, he had had fits. The journey in the East had nearly cured him—he remained sixteen years without having any; but the annoyance of his niece's affairs made him ill again, . . . and last Saturday he died of an attack of congestive epilepsy, with all the symptoms, with foam at the mouth. . . . Perhaps if

I had been there, by making him breathe for half an hour, I might have saved him.' Oh! it was a terrible impression to enter into the room of the dead: . . . his handkerchief on the table, near his papers, the little pipe with the ashes in it, the volume of Corneille in which he had read the day before, only half put back on the library shelf. The procession begins; we go up a dusty road to a little church—the church in which Madame Bovary made her confession."

I must end. I will only add that this last volume of the 'Journal' seems to me the best of the series.

Correspondence.

WALT WHITMAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is with great hesitation that I venture to protest against the judgment passed on the dead poet in the *Nation*. But some one who knew Walt Whitman in his later years should tell your readers that he was not prematurely broken down by indulgence and excess. He died an old man with the clear mind and kindly heart which had always been his. Strong emotions and neglect of regular habits may have helped to bring on a stroke of paralysis, but poets are not commonly censured for these. The egotism of Walt Whitman was that of a little child, who likes to be petted and loved. His praise of America was that of a little child, who sees no fault in his mother or his home. His outspokenness was that of a little child, who has not been taught the conventions of polite society. Anything in his poetry objectionable to our hypersensitive taste is allied to the contents of the Elizabethan drama—in no way to the licentiousness of the Restoration.

Walt Whitman may not be much read by the common people; but what poet is read by the common people? At all events, the common people who knew him loved him. The formal faults pointed out by your critic may be present, but good technique is common in the world; insight and inspiration are rare.

"Mighty Prophet! Seer blest!
On whom those truths do rest
Which we are toiling all our lives to find,
In darkness lost, the darkness of the grave;
Thou, over whom thy Immortality
Broods like the Day, a Master o'er a Slave,
A Presence which is not to be put by;
Thou little child. . . ."

C.

Garrison, N. Y., April 13, 1892.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH LITERATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Naturally I am greatly gratified to find Prof. Emerson declaring that my little paper in the April *Educational Review* "will be of service," despite his opinion that it is "somewhat behind the times," since I am apparently not "acquainted with the literature of the subject." Therefore I was grieved to discover also that he had not been quite candid in his presentation of the "facts" to which he called your attention, and by means of which he sought to convey the impression that I had carelessly or wilfully overlooked certain institutions of learning where that is done which I had said was not done anywhere, so far as I knew.

What I wished to show in my paper was, that there was no institution of learning in the United States acknowledging that the teaching of the English language and the teaching of English literature are equally important, and wholly unrelated one to the other, and recognizing this truth by the establishment of two full and independent professorships, one of the English language and one of English literature. If Prof. Emerson knows the name of any college or university where these two equal professorships exist side by side, he failed to include its name in his letter to you.

Brander Matthews.

Columbia College, New York.

ANOTHER WORD ON DANISH LITERATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having for some time past made a special study of Danish literature, I feel tempted to say a few words anent the letters on this subject recently published in your valuable paper. Though sympathizing with the sentiments that evidently prompted their writers, I feel bound to say that these gentlemen have fallen into the error, not uncommon with explorers in a new field, of somewhat overrating the intrinsic value of what they came across, simply because it presented a new and unfamiliar aspect.

Thus, I venture to say that the mention made, with a certain respect, by Prof. Bronk of a writer whom he styles "Schjoerring," would make any Dane of education smile. There is, to be sure, a lady by the name of Miss Johanne Schjoerring, who, like our own Charlotte M. Braeme, produces numerous novels much relished by certain members of the gentle sex; but to consider this well-paying rubbish part of Danish literature, in the strict sense of this term, has, to my knowledge, never occurred to any of the compatriots of the immortal Hans Christian Andersen.

There are writers among those mentioned both by Prof. Bronk and by Mr. Dodge who may hardly be said to rise far above the "Schjoerring level"; there are others, like Ploug, who, no doubt, are of a nobler description, but yet not at all suitable for transplantation into a foreign idiom. Not even in the success, in English dress, of a book like Drachmann's 'Pledged' should I have much faith, the novel in question being too ponderous and diffuse; but several of the minor pieces of this writer are of unexceptionable merit, and I am sure that, in these days of short stories, a collection of Drachmann's sailor tales would prove a boon to both publishers and readers. Then there is Jacobsen's 'Marie Grubbe,' an historical novel wherein the psychological subtlety of a Turgeneff or a Bourget is blended with the amazing picturesque powers of a Gautier or a Sienkiewicz. But for the horribly affected dialogue of Jacobsen's other novel, 'Niels Lyhne,' this study of modern Danish society might be likewise recommended, but I confess that the high rank awarded to this book by the great critic, Georg Brandes, and other Danish writers, to me seems somewhat imperilled by the intolerable Gongorisms in which it abounds, especially, as noticed, in what is supposed to be the every-day talk of men and women of the nineteenth century.

Schandorph, whose name is given by Prof. Bronk, is an excellent writer of short, humorous stories—his novels strike me as a trifle heavy; and Herman Bang has produced at least one masterpiece, the tale 'At the Roadside' (*Ved Veien*), a pure gem of delicate irony and penetrating sadness. Of Georg Brandes it were needless to speak, most of his beautiful works being familiar to students of literature, in either German or English translations, but I wish some one would give us a translation of some of the dramatic essays written by his brother, Edward Brandes. I am convinced that all who know this delightful writer will agree with me when I declare that very few, even among the most famous French critics of matters dramatic, have equalled the Dane, and that by none has he been surpassed. Of course, what he has written concerning Danish plays and actors is, as a rule, of local interest only, but his papers on Salvini, Sarah Bernhardt, and other celebrities of universal fame may be enjoyed by readers of any nationality, and they possess the rare merit not only of conveying an impression, vivid and profoundly conceived, of the subject directly treated, but besides that of enouncing—by the way, as it were—a whole code of dramatic philosophy, so to speak, as sound and well-founded as it is clearly and brilliantly formulated. Edward Brandes is also the author of sundry plays, some of which, "A Visit," for instance, are masterpieces; but I regret to say that the present state of the American stage would scarcely encourage an attempt to introduce them before our footlights. There are no fire-engines or tanks in Dr. Brandes's dramas, not even an Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs who unites with his state office that of chief of a gang of assassins.

T. E. H.

New York, April 15, 1892.

GOV. ANDREW ON THE DRED SCOTT DECISION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have been much gratified by the elaborate review of 'The History of the Supreme Court of the United States,' appearing in your pages for March 31 and April 7. The reviewer has called my attention to an analysis of the Dred Scott case by the late Gov. Andrew of Massachusetts, while a member of the Legislature of that State. I confess that this escaped me. Will you kindly refer me to the debate in which this analysis was stated? I would very much like to read it.—Very truly yours,

Hampton L. Carson.

Philadelphia, April 8, 1892.

[The analysis above referred to was made by Gov. Andrew in a speech in the Massachusetts Legislature, delivered in 1858. His speeches, addresses, and other writings have never been published in book form, and Chandler's Memoir contains no allusion to this speech. At the time when the "Dred Scott decision" was a subject of discussion, the analysis was cited and quoted, and is to be found in (among others) the annotated edition of Mr. Lincoln's Cooper Institute Address, and in the "Oration of George Sumner, delivered before the municipal authorities of the City of Boston, July 4, 1859." As we have had more than one inquiry concerning it, and it is something not easily accessible to readers, we subjoin the extract given by Mr. Sumner.—Ed. Nation.]

"On the question of the possibility of citizenship to one of Dred Scott's color, extraction, and origin, three justices, viz., Taney, Wayne, and Daniel, held the negative. Nelson and Campbell passed over the plea by which the question was raised. Grier agreed with Nelson. Catron said the question was not open. McLean agreed with Catron, but thought the plea bad. Curtis agreed that the question was open, but attacked the plea, met its averments, and decided that a free-born colored person, native to any State, is a citizen

thereof, by birth, and is therefore a citizen of the Union, and entitled to sue in the Federal courts. But three judges of the Supreme Court have, as yet, judicially denied the capacity of citizenship to such as Dred Scott and family.

"Had a majority of the Court directly sustained the plea in abatement, and denied the jurisdiction of the Circuit Court appealed from, then all else they could have said and done would have been done and said in a cause not theirs to try and not theirs to discuss. In the absence of such a majority, one step more was to be taken. And the next step reveals an agreement of six of the justices, on a point decisive of the cause, and putting an end to all the functions of the Court.

"It is this. Scott was first carried to Rock Island, in the State of Illinois, where he remained about two years, before going with his master to Fort Snelling, in the Territory of Wisconsin. His claim to freedom was rested on the alleged effect of his translation from a slave State, and again into a free Territory. If, by his removal to Illinois, he became emancipated from his master, the subsequent continuance of his pilgrimage into the Louisiana Purchase could not add to his freedom, nor alter the fact. If, by reason of any want or infirmity in the laws of Illinois, or of conformity on his part to their behests, Dred Scott remained a slave while he remained in that State, then—for the sake of learning the effect on him of his Territorial residence beyond the Mississippi, and of his marriage and other proceedings there, and the effect of the sojournment and marriage of Harriet, in the same Territory, upon herself and her children—it might become needful to advance one other step into the investigation of the law; to inspect the Missouri Compromise, banishing slavery to the south of the line of 36° 30′, in the Louisiana Purchase.

"But no exigency of the cause ever demanded or justified that advance; for six of the Justices, including the Chief Justice himself, decided that the *status* of the plaintiff, as free or slave, was dependent, not upon the laws of the State into which he had been, but of the State of Missouri, in which he was at the commencement of the suit. The Chief Justice asserted that 'it is now firmly settled by the decisions of the highest court in the State that Scott and his family, on their return, were not free, but were, by the laws of Missouri, the property of the defendant.' This was the burden of the opinion of Nelson, who declares 'the question is one solely depending upon the law of Missouri, and that the Federal Court sitting in the State, and trying the case before us, was bound to follow it.' It received the emphatic endorsement of Wayne, whose general concurrence was with the Chief Justice. Grier concurred in set terms with Nelson on all 'the questions discussed by him.' Campbell says, 'The claim of the plaintiff to freedom depends upon the effect to be given to his absence from Missouri, in company with his master in Illinois and Minnesota, *and this effect is to be ascertained by reference to the laws of Missouri.*' Five of the Justices then (if no more of them) regarded the law of Missouri as decisive of the plaintiff's rights.

"The Chief Justice and Justices Wayne and Nelson and Grier plainly hold that, on this point, the Courts of the United States were bound to follow the decision of the Court of Missouri, which had already passed upon the question. And if Campbell did not intend to be bound by the Missouri Court, we are at a loss to understand what he does mean; since, asking, 'What is the law of Missouri in such a case?' and, after citing Scott vs. Emerson in the 15th Missouri reports and various authorities of several States, he concludes that 'questions of status are closely connected with questions arising out of the social and political organization of the State where they originate, and each sovereign power must determine them within its own territories.' He held conclusively and distinctly, and so also did Mr. Justice Catron, in common with all the judges besides McLean and Curtis—on their own investigation and reasoning—that the law of Missouri (to be ascertained either by themselves, or by exploring the declared opinions of the courts), must rule the cause. And they all affirm that, irrespective of the law of Illinois and of the Territory, Scott was a slave by the law of Missouri, on his return within the confines of its jurisdiction.

"If the law of Illinois could have had no possible effect to secure freedom for Scott when again remitted to Missouri, it follows that neither could the laws of the Territory have availed him. The majority of the Court had no occasion, therefore, to follow them into the Territory, in order to look into the condition of Harriet and the children; because Dred, as a slave, could have no wife nor child known to the law or recognized by the Court. But if any such occasion had existed, the same answer—the effect of the Missouri law—was sufficient to control the cause."

CHOICE OF ELECTORS BY PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Forum* for February, Mr. Edmunds and Mr. Phelps discuss the question whether Presidential electors should be chosen by Representative districts, as is proposed this year in Michigan. Mr. Phelps approves of this method; Mr. Edmunds objects, and suggests that some form of proportional representation, preferably the cumulative vote, be tried instead.

There is no doubt that the choice by Representative districts is open to at least two objections: the temptation to gerrymander, and the injustice of allowing the party of the majority to name the two Electors-at-Large—an important matter in the small States. On the other hand, the cumulative vote, whatever be its theoretical merits, is very uncertain in its working, is not well adapted to the choice of large bodies, and is unnecessarily complicated for the appointment of Electors. In voting for Electors, the people are not selecting men for their merits, but are merely naming clerks to perform an almost mechanical duty. People vote, not for these men rather than for those, but for the party or the men giving their name to the ticket. That form of proportional representation is, in this case, the best which most accurately and simply gives expression to the will of the voters.

The best-known forms of proportional representation are, in the order of their simplicity, the free list, the limited vote, the cumulative vote, and the assignable vote, commonly called the Hare system.

The two last methods are too uncertain and too complicated for the present purpose. The limited vote has great merits where selection is to be made among candidates of all parties (or of no party), where independence at the polls is to be encouraged, and where care must be taken to prevent objectionable men from slipping in at the foot of a successful ticket. But for the choice of Electors, where voters are divided by party lines, where it is of no importance which names on a certain ticket are selected to perform the clerical duty, and where it is of the utmost importance that each ticket shall have assigned to it, obviously and without question, the exact number of Electors to which it is entitled by the number of its backers, there is no method at once so simple and so accurate as that of the free list.

To illustrate the method: Suppose that a State entitled to 12 Electors casts about 300,000 votes. There are three tickets in the field. The Republicans cast about half the votes, the Democrats about a third, the Prohibitionists the other sixth. Obviously the Republicans are entitled to 6 Electors, the Democrats to 4, the Prohibitionists to 2. The executive officers, therefore, after canvassing the votes, send certificates of election to the first 6 names on the Republican ticket, the first 4 names on the Democratic, the first 2 on the Prohibitionist; and the votes of these 12 men, when opened at Washington, express with accuracy the decision of the people of the State. Under our present system, the Republicans in this State would secure all the Electors, even though their vote were much less than half of the whole. Under the proposed district system, they would secure the two Electors-at-Large, and probably from six to eight of the rest—eight to ten in all; while the Prohibitionists would not be represented at all.

It is obvious that, if all the States were to choose their Electors by the method of the free list, not only would the Electoral vote of each State be an accurate echo of the popular voice, but the result for the whole country must be much more accurate than under either the present system or the district method. To test the matter, the figures of the election of 1888 have been examined, and the actual result of the election has been compared with (1) the "ideal" result, obtained by dividing the entire Electoral vote of the country among the various tickets in proportion to the vote received by each; (2) the result if each State had used the free list; and (3) the result if each State had voted by Representative districts. (In the last case, it was necessary to suppose that each district would have chosen an Elector of the same political faith as the Representative actually chosen.) The results are interesting.

At the election of 1888, the Republicans secured 233 Electors, the Democrats 168.

(1.) *Ideal.* The country cast about 11,000,000 votes. Of these the Democrats cast 5,500,000, the Republicans 5,400,000, the Prohibitionists 250,000, and the Labor parties, combined, 130,000. Of the 401 Electors, therefore, the Democrats should have had 195, the Republicans 192, the Prohibitionists 9, the Laborers 5.

(2.) *Free List.* Under the operation of the free list, the result would have been: Democrat 203, Republican 189, Prohibition 5, Labor 4.

(3.) *Districts.* If the two Senatorial Electors in each State had been elected by general ticket, and the others by Representative districts, the result would have been: Democrat 190, Republican 211—certainly an unfortunate test of a system that aims to secure a result representing, even roughly, the popular will.

It is hardly necessary to say that, on the adoption of a just system of proportional representation, the rule requiring a majority vote of the Electoral College, with the alternative of a choice by the House of Representatives, should be repealed. When the country has a method of election which secures the appointment as President of the person representing the largest number of voters, the antiquated "majority" notion, which still, with unhappy results, controls elections in one or two small communities, may well be abandoned.

There is much to say in favor of the use of the free list, or of the limited vote, in choosing aldermen, public boards and committees, and even Representatives in Congress, especially in those States which have adopted the official ballot; "but that's another story." C. P. W.

Milton, Mass., April 10, 1892.

THE EDUCATION OF YOUTH IN THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your paper of March 31 is before me, and it would give me great pleasure to accept the conclusions of "W. W.," in his letter on "The Education of Young Men," as applying

to the South; but the facts, as observed by me while living at different times in three States of the South, all go to confirm the view of Mr. Holmes as expressed in your issue of March 10. So far as the North and the West are concerned, I cannot speak from personal knowledge, but am perfectly willing to accept the opinion expressed by three such papers as the St. Louis *Republic*, the Buffalo *Courier*, and the *Nation*. Mr. Holmes has correctly enumerated the causes that have conspired to bring about this sad result in the South; but I think we may add another. The emancipation of the negro in the South emancipated another class —the poor white; for before the war there was no middle class in the slave States. There was no place under the sun for the poor white. After the war all was changed. The members of this class found opportunities for improving their condition which they were quick to seize. Many of them were possessed of a shrewd common sense which was readily convertible into gold, given only an opportunity. They did not deem it necessary for their sons to have more than the merest business education; but as their daughters could not go into the counting-room, and could not run the plantation, they decided that the best thing they could do for them was to give them a good education, and this they have done in many cases, and the daughters in turn have made desirable marriages.

I have observed that the same disparity exists among the German and Swedish emigrants in Texas, as regards the education of their sons and daughters. In other words, the great upward movement in education among the lower classes has affected girls mainly. Visiting a number of the schools of this State recently, I was struck with the fact that in the high-school grades the girls outnumbered the boys very largely. The boys had stopped to go into business, or in many cases to do nothing, while the girls had the perseverance and the ambition to continue. The evil exists most glaringly in the smaller towns and more newly settled communities of the South. One of the larger towns of the State of Texas, with which I happen to be acquainted, will serve as an example. In this town there is an unusual number of accomplished young women, but the young men with whom they associate are, to say the least, ordinary; the sum total of their "book knowledge" being, in most cases, confined to the three R's, and their sole accomplishment the ability to dance with grace. On one occasion I asked one of the young ladies who received the attentions of such men, how she could tolerate them. She said in substance: "I *don't*, but it is this or nothing, and I don't care to be placed upon the retired list at present." This young lady, rather than select a life partner from such a herd, gave her hand to a man twenty years older than herself. Can we blame her very much because she did not have the grace to allow herself to be "shelved"? Let those of her sisters who would have acted differently cast the first stone at her. It has come to be the exception, and not the rule, for a young woman in the South to marry a man who is, so far as education goes, her equal.

It does not seem to me that "W. W." is correct in his analysis of what education is. He asks: "Is it not the acquiring of knowledge, irrespective of how it is acquired?" This we cannot admit unqualifiedly. A blacksmith may each day become more and more intimately acquainted with his trade—may, in fact, daily learn something new about it; still, at the end of a long life, he will not be known as an educated man. It does not seem, then, that "W. W.'s" position is a tenable one when he urges: May not the young business man be an educated man though he knows little about books? for is he not thoroughly up in his business, and is he not in this direction adding something daily to his store of knowledge?

"Si dives, qui sapiens est,
Et sutor bonus et solus formosus et est rex,
Cur optas quod habes? Non nosti quid pater, inquit,
Chrysippus dicat: Sapiens crepidas sibi nunquam
Nec soleas fecit, sutor tamen est sapiens."

Making shoes is one thing, and being a king is another and a very different thing; though some people, both in years gone by and in the present year of grace, have thought that the one implies the other. A. L. B.

University of Mississippi, April 4, 1892.

"LAW ENGLISH."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article in your issue of March 31, entitled "Decay in Professional Mannerisms," suggests decay in other respects than those mentioned. Certain changes in progress in the legal profession, which are unfortunately not as commendable as those that you point out, readily occur to a member of that profession. Not to mention decay in professional ethics, oratory, or even manners, which the evidence of tradition at least tends to establish as a fact, one of the most noticeable and rapid processes of deterioration is the decay in professional language.

An example of this is the language not only being spoken but written in the community in which this letter is penned.

There seems to be a steady growth of what, after the analogy of that moss-grown corruption of the classical tongue, known as "Law Latin," may not inaptly be called "Law English." The following are a few illustrations of "English as she is spoke and writ" at the bar and on the bench of the State of Illinois.

The use of the word "office" as a verb not only has become common among attorneys-at-law, but has lately received the sanction of the Supreme Court: "An attorney officing in the same building" (126 Ill., 587).

The Appellate Court speak of a witness who "testified . . . that he was up to G's house" (37 Ill. App., 381). By a failure to see quotation marks in the opinion, the Court indicates an appropriation of the witness's choice phrase.

"We are satisfied that the testimony given by the appellee . . . establish these facts" (54 Ill., 198).

"The train ran from Quincy to Hannibal and return" (109 Ill., 320).

"We cannot say that five thousand dollars is a compensation too large for an injury so serious, and which at any moment may become strangulated and produce death" (38 Ill., 245). Whether it was the injury which the judges feared would at any moment become strangulated, or whether they were harrowed by the thought of the compensation's producing death, is left in some doubt.

The last three quotations are samples of the deliberate utterances of the highest tribunal in this State. "If they do these things in a green tree, what shall be done in the dry?" S. R. T.

Chicago, April 4, 1892.

"DOG GONE IT."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Fifty years ago, people of pretty good habits of speech in Virginia, and their children in Ohio, said, in the first person, "I'll be dog'd"; second person, "Dog on you"; third person, "Dog on it, Dog on him." Others, of inferior speech, said *dawg* for dog, and *awn* for on—"I'll be dawg'd," "Dawg *awn* you," etc. Then, as often occurs in similar cases, the *g* was carried forward from *dawg* to *awn*, making "Daw' *gawn* you," "Daw' *gawn* him," "Daw' *gawn* it." In our time, people trying to be correct put the *g* back in *dawg* without removing it from *awn*, and so have made "Dog gone it," and I observe that some dialect story-writers make their people say, "I'll be dog goned." But in the old phrase nobody said, "I'll be dog *on'd*." The *on* came in only in the second and third persons.

Dialect often has a grammatical structure which is not to be disregarded, but few writers have the thoroughness of knowledge which distinguished Mr. Lowell's handling of his dialect, or, perhaps, his sense of the importance of accuracy in the matter. But entire accuracy is not easy. I think "Dog gone it" is simply "Dog on it." The Southern and Western people of those earlier times swore outright, without circumlocution, and profaned the Sacred Name with shocking readiness; but although the queer oath of Socrates —"By the dog of Egypt"—may have been solemn originally, I think our phrase has no relation to anything higher, but is derived from the use of the dog as a soldier, or as a fierce beast under control. These qualities gave him great social and economic importance in wild regions. It was no light thing to be dogged—that is, chased, bitten and worried by a powerful and furious dog. The verb *to dog*, in the sense of setting on or inciting a dog to attack an animal or a man, was much used when I was young, but I do not often see it in literature of late. J. B. Harrison.

Franklin Falls, N. H., April 15, 1892.

SCHLEIERMACHER, NOVALIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Whether the expression *Gott-trunkener Mensch*, as applied to Spinoza, is also used by Schleiermacher, as well as by Novalis, I do not know; but in the second of Schleiermacher's "Reden über die Religion," page 38 of Carl Schwarz's edition in the "Bibliothek der deutschen Nationalliteratur des 18. und 19. Jahrhunderts," may be found a passage which is sometimes quoted or alluded to in histories of philosophy, and, being as enthusiastic as Novalis's expression, may explain your critic's inadvertence, if such indeed it be. The passage begins as follows: "Opfert mit mir ehrerbietig eine Locke den Manen des heiligen verstossenen Spinoza! Ihn durchdrang der hohe Weltgeist, das Unendliche war sein Anfang und Ende," etc.—Yours truly,

H. C. Bierwirth.

Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass., April 15, 1892.

Notes.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce a 'Life of Joshua R. Giddings,' by his son-in-law, George W. Julian; 'The Best Letters of Charles Lamb,' edited by Edward Gilpin Johnson; 'A Cabinet of Gems [from Sir Philip Sidney]' and 'Selections from Sir Walter Raleigh'—first volumes in "The Elizabethan Library," edited by Dr. A. B. Grosart.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press the

'Itinerary of Gen. Washington, from June 15, 1775, to December 23, 1783,' by William S. Baker; 'In Starry Realms,' a new work on astronomy, by Robert S. Ball; and 'A Too Short Vacation,' by Lucy L. Williams and Emma V. McLoughlin, illustrated by the authors with their own kodak.

Macmillan & Co. are about to bring out a new and enlarged edition of S. Dana Horton's 'Silver in Europe'; a new, thoroughly revised and corrected edition of Prof. Jowett's translation of the 'Dialogues' of Plato, in five octavo volumes; and (by way of the Clarendon Press) a 'History of the New World called America,' by E. J. Payne.

Bernard Quaritch, 15 Piccadilly, London, will publish in parts 'Old Wedgwood: The English Relief Art Work of the Eighteenth Century, made by Josiah Wedgwood at Etruria, in Staffordshire, 1760–1795,' by F. Rathbone, with illustrations in color from the best-known examples in public and private collections.

Among minor books of reference of its class, 'The New Cabinet Cyclopædia,' just issued in eight duodecimo volumes by Gebbie & Co., Philadelphia, may meet a certain want for very condensed information, occupying little room on the shelf, and costing comparatively little. The chief editor has been Dr. Charles Annandale, an experienced dictionary-maker, and the American portion has been revised by Mr. A. R. Spofford of our National Library. So far as we have tested it, it has been pretty well brought down, for events, to the date of the present year. Thus, the recent fortunes of Chili are traceable under Balmaceda, Chili, and the United States, but very briefly. On the other hand, so remarkable a find as that of Aristotle's 'Constitution of Athens' is not alluded to under Aristotle or under Papyrus, where the unlimited field of discovery opened by the mummy-cases surely deserved mention. Under Aluminium, no hint is given of the extraordinary decline in the cost of producing that metal, so that it now has about the value of copper. Under Egypt, the English occupation and administration of the country are not explicitly stated. Among the biographical entries, Crispi will be sought in vain. Under Phonograph, the name of the inventor is ignored, though the machine is enumerated in Edison's list. In general there is no reference to the sources of fuller or first-hand information. The lack of scholarly and consistent editing is shown by the spellings "Tourguenieff" (main title), and "Turgenieff" (under Russia). That Bismarck should be said in the same short article to have resigned his Chancellorship in 1889 and in March, 1890, is evidence of faulty proof-reading as well as editing. The numerous full-page maps are very good; the cuts but ordinary.

Mr. Arthur John Butler's translation of the 'Memoirs of Baron de Marbot,' which the Messrs Longman publish in two handsome volumes, with portraits and maps, is very fluent and idiomatic, and has been anything but mechanically performed. To compress the work, Mr. Butler has paraphrased certain portions of it, marking these abstracts by brackets. He has also occasionally called attention in foot-notes to the different, if not more correct, views held by historians and students. Finally, he has provided an index, but this ought to have been analytic; and so simple a device as the running date-line should not have been neglected. In all other respects this reproduction of a first-rate memoir deserves to be praised. Marbot's face, by the way, is not especially attractive at either age.

From Macmillan & Co. we have a new edition of Prof. Hales's useful 'Essays and Notes on Shakspere,' still bearing the London imprint of George Bell & Sons, as in 1884, when we commented on it. It appears to be quite unchanged. Also, a fresh issue of the reprint of the first edition of the 'Pickwick Papers,' published in 1886, with the original illustrations and a bibliographical introduction by the younger Dickens. The nature and the reduced price of this edition must tend to make it the most popular among all classes. Finally, the same firm contributes a little 'Tennyson for the Young,' selected and edited by Albert Ainger, and contrived *not* to be usable for examinations in English literature. We cannot doubt its attractiveness for English children, but the dialect poems will in this country be generally passed over.

Mrs. Gaskell's 'Cranford' forms volume 37 of the "Knickerbocker Nuggets" (Putnams), and we are pleased to observe that in it Martha's "lion" is not turned into a "loin"—a blunder which has marred other recent editions of the book, as has been pointed out by correspondents of ours.

A good idea has been imperfectly carried out in 'Public Statues and Monuments of New York' (Palliser, Palliser & Co.). These heliotype prints have been grouped with relevancy, but the "decorative" borders and legends are in poor taste, and the individual work is sacrificed to the group. The smaller scale should have been reserved for the poorer statues—*i. e.*, for the greater number. There is, of course, a moral in bracketing Brown's Lincoln and St. Gaudens's Farragut, but the latter statue deserved a page to itself, and the first in the book.

One of the latest of the series of "Artistes Célèbres" published by *L'Art* (Macmillan) is 'Les Brueghel,' by Émile Michel. We must say that the Brueghels seem to us to be among the painters whom the world might willingly forget. It is a license of speech to call the nightmares of the elder Brueghel art at all, while the flower and landscape-painting of his son "Velvet" Brueghel hardly rises above an elegant mediocrity. He was a neat and accomplished craftsman, but assuredly not a great man. The other members of the family are even less worth remembrance. The book is, as usual with the series, well made and profusely illustrated.

'Longmans' School Geography,' noticed by us a few months ago, is now followed by two valuable atlases, the 'New Atlas,' political and physical, and the 'New School Atlas'; the first with fifty, the second with a selection of thirty-eight maps. Both are prepared by Stanford, the well-known London map publisher, and edited by Chisholm and Leete, the authors of the geography above named. Apart from a certain lack of delicacy in coloring, the maps are neat and attractive. Strong emphasis is given to physical features, and the variety of illustration in this direction is unusual. Both atlases are well adapted to use in this country by the arrangement of the sheets, which places the United States on early pages, and by the introduction of appropriate physical maps of our territory. The omission of names from the maps has been carried, in our judgment, too far: only seven cities are given in Indiana, only eight in Iowa. A small book of 'Questions to Longmans' School Geography' is also received; and for this all our teachers of geography should be grateful. It makes no claim to completeness, but it is extremely suggestive.

The manner in which islands are tied on to the adjacent mainland by sand bars is illustrated on an extraordinarily large scale in the case of Ceylon, where Adam's Bridge is found by Dr. Walther of Jena (Supplement 102 to *Petermann's Mitteilungen*) to be a string of sand and coral reefs, built out chiefly from the coast of India by the strong currents of the southwest monsoon. The shoals that connect the northern point of Ceylon with Calymene Point on the mainland are less developed, presumably owing to the relative weakness of the northeast monsoon; but if the process goes on, there will in time be an enclosed lagoon between the two bars, comparable in kind but not in size to that now seen behind the little peninsula of Giens, near Toulon, on the southern coast of France.

Among the early Bulletins of the Geological Society of America containing papers read at the Columbus meeting last winter, none is more important than one by Salisbury, who announces the results of his studies on the drift of New Jersey south of the generally recognized terminal moraine. The sharp definition of the glaciated area announced more than ten years ago by the Geological Surveys of New Jersey and Pennsylvania has been generally accepted as conclusive, but must now be regarded as applicable only to the latest ice invasion, while the more weathered drift of a greater and much older invasion is found twenty or thirty miles further south. The complication of the glacial period by division into at least two glacial epochs, widely separated in time compared to the duration of either epoch alone or of post-glacial time, is thus confirmed in the East as well as in the Western States.

Another notable contribution to the glacial problem is found in Leverett's essay on the "Moraines and Raised Beaches about Lake Erie" in the *American Journal of Science* for April, with a map illustrating in rather too rough a manner the prolonged studies of the author in the field. This work has been under the direction of President Chamberlin, for the United States Geological Survey, and serves to illustrate how far theory had outstripped observation; and also how rational the theory is when extended observations, such as are here chronicled, call for so few serious changes in the conclusions already inferred. The southwestward overflow of the glacial Lake Erie, as announced by Gilbert over twenty years ago, is here confirmed; and an indirect discharge for a later phase of the same lake at a lower level is inferred by the way of Lakes Huron and Michigan past Chicago to the Mississippi. At the present rate of discovery, we shall have a good basis for theories of glacial climate by the close of this century.

Cambridge Historical Essays, No. V., is entitled, 'The Influence and Development of English Gilds, as illustrated by the History of the Craft Gilds of Shrewsbury,' being the Thirlwall Dissertation for 1891 by Francis Aidan Hibbert, B.A. (Cambridge, Eng.: University Press). The attention of the author is concentrated, as the title indicates, on the craft gilds of Shrewsbury, but he also strives to point out "how the Shrewsbury records bear upon the various theories which have been put forth respecting Gilds." After a few introductory remarks concerning the place of this borough in gild history (ch. i), and a short sketch of the rise of the gild merchant and craft gilds in general (ch. ii-iii), the history of the Shrewsbury craft fraternities is considered, from the fifteenth to the nineteenth century inclusive (ch. iv-viii). The book throws much light on the trade and customs of an ordinary provincial town, especially in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The development of craft fraternities remains

the obscurest portion of the gild history of England. This gap would soon be filled up if students would make special investigations into the history of crafts in particular towns, as Mr. Hibbert has done in the case of Shrewsbury.

A new "monthly review of scientific progress," called *Natural Science*, was launched last month by Macmillan & Co. Its aim is "to interpret simply and without excessive technicalities the main results of contemporary work in natural science to those who try to follow the general progress of modern thought." It is reactionary, in favor of the amateur, against the undue development of professionalism. Its scheme consists of notes and comments, signed contributed articles, book reviews; news of universities, museums, and societies; and correspondence. The table of contents in No. 1 is varied. Several of the ten papers are illustrated, and typographically the magazine is open and attractive.

The *Journal of American Folk-Lore* for January–March has an interesting paper, by Henry R. Lang, on the "Portuguese Element in New England," and chiefly at New Bedford, where from seven to eight thousand are congregated. The annual immigration, mostly from the Azores, is from 1,500 to 2,000. They are a good class of population, their names and speech are rapidly Anglicized, and they prefer the common to the parochial schools. Mr. Lang does not intimate that they have made any additions to the local idiom or vocabulary of their American neighbors.

We do not remember to have met before with such a document as is printed in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for April, viz., the newly found paper in which Maj.-Gen. Daniel Denison, on December 26, 1672, "in the sixtieth and one year of his age," "thought meet to acquaint you [his grandchildren] with your predecessors, and your decent from them." Such light on New England pedigrees and British connections has been so conspicuously wanting that Savage, Chester, Waters, and the *Register* itself owe their genealogical existence to the defect. In the same number it is stated that the earliest known Bible provided with blank pages for family records was printed for Mathew Carey in Philadelphia in 1802.

The Bulletin of the Boston Public Library for April contains the diary of a tour in the Eastern States by Robert Gilmor of Baltimore in 1797. The text has real value, as witness the following regarding Boston—"a handsome town, filled with well built houses in general, and some very superb ones, though mostly of wood. The streets are, however, bad, being narrow, wretchedly paved, and no sideway of brick for foot-passengers: my feet were quite sore with traversing the round stones." But Mr. Gilmor also made pen drawings of houses and landscapes, and these too are of no little value. The Bulletin gives them in facsimile. One of these is a curious "view of New York taken on the road to Utrecht baths, that leads through the narrows"; another is of Broadway from the Battery. The views of Boston show the beacon behind the State House.

Every catalogue of English Prose Fiction is welcome, as sure to differ from every other. That of the St. Louis Public Library is before us, with appendices of musical novels, and of historical novels arranged chronologically and by countries.

—A continuous stream of new text-books in English history and geography testifies to the growing interest felt by Americans of to-day in the elder branch of their race. Among these is a pleasant little book, entitled 'A Short History of England,' by Miss E. S. Kirkland (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). It gives no evidence of any study beyond the usual standard authors; but the story is told in an interesting, gossipy way, and is enlivened by brief and apt extracts. It has the merit of being easy to read; but as a text-book it has too many defects of plan and knowledge to be recommended. The book is devoid of the usual conveniences which the reader has a right to expect, and which are indispensable in a school-book: the table of contents is very scanty; there are no maps; and there is not even an index. The old-fashioned proportions are observed: about six-tenths of the book is devoted to the period before 1600, and about one-tenth to the period since 1783. American colonization and its effects on England are dismissed with four allusions. The book departs little from the conventional history, and presents no new views. With a certain liveliness of style there is occasionally a didactic strain which borders on the ludicrous. Thus, the readers are warned that James I. was "an habitual profane swearer." Since Elizabeth had a similar aptitude for strong language, it is hardly fair to single her successor out as a sinner beyond his fellows. The foot-notes often stop to define terms which may be found in every dictionary. While not very erroneous, the book establishes no claim to supplant other text-books now in use.

—Osmund Airy's text-book of 'English History from the Earliest Times, for Colleges and Schools' (Longmans, Green & Co.), is much more dangerous, because it is backed by the name of a well-known historical scholar, and has a well-considered apparatus: side-headings and running dates are provided; there are elaborate sub-sections for class use, and a good index. The genealogical tables, the summaries of dates at the ends of the chapters, and the rough but serviceable maps, suggest that the book is meant to be crammed. A careful examination strengthens the suspicion; like Bright's useful book, this seems to bring in, or at least to allude to, everything that a student of English history ought to know. Thus, on page 509, we have board schools, abolition of the sale of commissions, disuse of religious tests, the Ballot Act, the Supreme Court of Judicature, the Education Bill of 1873, the election of 1874, and, in a foot-note, the war of 1870–71, the creation of the German Empire, and the unification of Italy. The foot-notes are often made a mausoleum for events for which there is no room elsewhere. In order to get in this mass of details, it has been necessary to condense and often to distort more important matters. Thus, after describing the interference of James I. at the Synod of Dort (p. 241), the narrative goes on to say: "There . . . the North beat the South. The works of Vorstius were condemned; Barneveldt . . . was put to death." Surely, Maurice of Nassau had some influence. This habit of throwing together two things, each correct, but of which the relations are completely distorted, is not made any better by Mr. Airy's omissions. Canning's influence on English affairs before 1822 is ignored. The difficulties with America over the neutral trade, and the war in which the pride of the English navy was humbled, are dismissed in the following foot-note: "War had broken out in 1812 with the United States through the anger caused by the orders in council. It was brought to a close in 1814 by the Treaty of Ghent." Mr. Airy is not bound to write the history of the United States, but he is bound to give American and English boys alike some notion of the commercial warfare which was so essential a part of the Napoleonic struggle. On things American the book is throughout very faulty. One of the colonies in 1763, he tells us, was "Hampshire"; during the French and Indian war, "the loyalty of the colonists went to the winds" (p. 393). In 1630 the people of "New Plymouth . . . were joined by 1,000 Puritans under John Winthrop" (p. 247). Cornwallis was captured at "Yorktown at the mouth of the Chesapeake." The map of the colonies in 1775 (p. 393) shows the same degree of special knowledge. A book of the compass of Mr. Airy's might be written which would show the development of the English nation; in the attempt to give too much, the whole is obscured and confused, and serious errors go uncorrected.

—It is a pleasure to examine and to commend Mr. S. R. Gardiner's 'School Atlas of English History' (Longmans, Green & Co.). It goes far to remove the greatest difficulty in the way of good teaching of English history, for it furnishes a clear, well-engraved set of maps covering the whole period to 1891. The author properly includes maps of Europe, America, India, and Africa, to illustrate English settlements, diplomacy, and campaigns. An excellent index adds much to the value of the whole. A set of twenty-two plans of battle-fields makes up the total number of distinct maps to eighty-eight. A few errors may be noted in the European maps, as Switzerland in No. 28, and the Empire in No. 51. The American maps, Nos. 45, 46, and 48, are bad enough to pass for a practical joke. There does not appear to be one State boundary correct in the map of the United States in 1783. If these be domestic and unimportant matters, at least the boundaries of Quebec and Nova Scotia and the line west of Lake Huron belong to the history of England. With these maps replaced, the atlas will be in all respects serviceable and praiseworthy.

—A noteworthy revival of Byzantine studies has marked the last twenty-five years. Until then the traditions of Allatius and others of the seventeenth century were kept up by only a few scholars, whose labors met with little encouragement. Among the most remarkable of these disinterested workers was the late Prof. Sophocles of Harvard, who has unfortunately left no one to continue his labors in America. Many other Greeks have worked in various parts of the vacant field, and among these Paspatis has accumulated invaluable materials relating to the Byzantine monuments of Constantinople. Much has also been done for the understanding of Byzantine architecture in France. It was at Marseilles that Demetrios Bikélas, recently named Chevalier of the Legion of Honor, delivered his lectures "Περὶ Βυζαντινῶν." These were published in Greek (London, 1874), and were translated into English for the *Scottish Review*, where they appeared in 1886–1887. They are essays on "Byzantinism," "Hellenism," and "The Subjects of the Byzantine Empire," and form by no means the least important part of a book of Bikélas's essays, published in 1890 by the Marquess of Bute under the title of 'Seven Essays on Christian Greece.' In England, meanwhile, the Hellenic Society, having on its council Dr. Freshfield, an enlightened student of Byzantine antiquities, has begun a very important work with the generous support of two or three liberal givers. Messrs. Schultz and Barnsley have spent laborious months at the Monastery

of St. Luke on Mt. Parnassus, at Saloniki, and at the little church of Daphnæ, half way between Athens and Eleusis, as well as at other Byzantine churches in the Levant. Students of the mosaics at Venice and Ravenna will be glad when these wonderfully faithful reproductions and plans are ready for publication. Facilities for subscribing will then doubtless be afforded. Meanwhile, Dr. Karl Krumbacher, professor at the Munich University, has issued the prospectus of a *Revue Byzantine*. Teubner of Leipzig is to be the publisher, and David Nutt, 270 Strand, will receive subscriptions. The projected periodical is to appear quarterly, and its articles will be mainly in French and German, although the collaboration of Greek, English, and Italian "Byzantinists" is already pledged to support it. Its pages will afford a much-needed meeting-ground for all workers in this hitherto neglected branch of learning, and it is to be hoped that America, the adopted home of Sophocles, will give ungrudging support to this effort at organizing the studies which he did so much to make profitable.

—Among the most important researches which astronomers have in hand at present is an investigation of that period of minute oscillation of the earth's axis which gives rise to the phenomena of variable latitude. At its last meeting in the autumn of 1890, the International Geodetic Union, on the motion of Prof. Foerster of Berlin, resolved to send an astronomical expedition to Honolulu, for the purpose of making a twelvemonth series of latitude observations, coincident with a like series at the Royal Observatory, Berlin. Dr. Marcuse of Berlin and Mr. Preston of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey accordingly went out for this purpose, and the first three months of their work produced substantial results of a most promising character. Upon coördinating several hundred determinations of Honolulu latitude with corresponding results at the Berlin Observatory, Dr. Foerster finds that beyond doubt the latitude in Berlin during this period increased by one-third of a second (about thirty feet), and decreased in Honolulu by almost exactly the same amount. So long ago as 1876, Sir William Thomson, in his Glasgow address, presented a dynamical conclusion that irregular movements of the earth's axis to the extent of a half second may be produced by the temporary changes of sea-level due to meteorological causes, and this striking result of the Honolulu expedition is to be regarded as observational proof of Sir William Thomson's conclusion. It is to be expected that England will coöperate with the other great nations in carrying out the plans of the International Geodetic Union for the most minute investigation of this fundamental problem in astronomy. As a first effort it is proposed to establish four permanent stations for regular and continued observations of this geographical coördinate, at points of approximately equal latitude and on meridians about 90° apart. In this way it is hoped to ascertain the cause of those variations of latitude which have for a long time been suspected at Berlin, Greenwich, and other great observatories, and which could not be wholly attributed to errors of observation. Not only is the research of the first importance in respect to the fundamental observational work in astronomy, but it has exceeding interest in connection with tidal, meteorological, and geological observations and speculations.

PATRICK HENRY.—I.

Patrick Henry. Life, Correspondence, and Speeches. By William Wirt Henry. 3 volumes. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

If William Wirt, the first biographer of Patrick Henry, felt constrained to admit that the materials from which he wrote were "scanty," "meagre," and "utterly disproportionate to the great fame" of his hero, Mr. William Wirt Henry, the learned author and compiler of these three portly volumes, acknowledges that he can make no "such excuse" for either the character or proportions of his work. He is embarrassed rather by the riches of his materials. The new matter he has gathered is indeed of great value, not only for the light it sheds on Patrick Henry's career, but also for the clearer view it gives of many Revolutionary records which are hidden from the public eye in the Executive journals or letter-books kept by Patrick Henry during his five years of service as Governor of Virginia; and others of which are obscured rather than preserved in the manuscript or printed journals of the deliberative bodies in which he sat, whether as a member of the Virginia House of Delegates or of the Continental Congress. The first two of these volumes are devoted to a minute and circumstantial narrative of the life of Patrick Henry, considered in connection with the eventful times in which he acted such a leading part. The third volume contains his correspondence, so far as it has been collected, and a report of the speeches he made in the Virginia Convention of 1788, when sitting in judgment on the Federal Constitution.

If at some few points the reader may be tempted to dissent from the biographer's distribution of his praises and censures, it must none the less be conceded that he is as intelligent and candid in the use of his materials as he has been industrious in their collection and conscientious and impartial in reproducing them with textual accuracy. The eminence of Patrick Henry as a natural orator, even in the absence of any authentic reports of his speeches, is proved by the immediate effects of his eloquence, and by the acknowledged leadership which his eloquence won for him not only among his fellow-citizens in Virginia, but among the members of any deliberative assembly. The style of his eloquence, described by Jefferson as "bold, grand, and overwhelming," has been likened to that with which Mirabeau stormed from the French tribune. The imperious sway with which he controlled the currents of public opinion in his native commonwealth is evidenced not only by the large popular following which he always commanded, but also by the dismay which he often carried into the ranks of his political opponents whenever he set up his banners against them. In 1787 we find Madison confessing himself startled by the spectre of the "omnipotence" which Henry was likely to wield in the debate over the adoption of the Constitution, and at a little later date we find Gen. Washington complaining that "the edicts of Mr. Henry" against Federal measures "are enregistered with less opposition in the Virginia Assembly than those of the grand monarch by his parliaments."

Perhaps the celebrity of Patrick Henry's fame as an orator is proved best of all by the luxuriant growth of popular traditions which gathered in later years around the fallen shrines of his prowess in debate, long after that prowess had passed into the dimness and haze of popular reminiscence. Grote, the historian, has told us in one of his *Westminster* Essays—we quote his idea, not his words—that wherever the popular *Mythus* hides its head in the clouds, and turns the clouds into a nimbus for the glorification of some saint or hero, we may be sure that the saint or hero had some species of preëminence which was sufficient to create in his favor a whole cycle of legends, along with a popular appetite for believing in their authenticity. Of such myths it may be said, that whenever they attach themselves to certain names they do not spring up unbidden, but appear only at points where some great power has been exercised over the emotions of men. That is, the *Mythus* never rushes in with its distortions and exaggerations except at points where some great event or some great character has prepared in the popular imagination a darkened chamber for the display of its enchantments. The oratorical legends which cluster around the name of Henry are all so many tributes to his surpassing eloquence.

Yet, in spite of the sudden brightness into which the name of Patrick Henry leaped at the epoch of the Revolution, it must be admitted that his latter-day fame has come to lack somewhat of the clear definition and large significance in which it loomed before the eyes of his contemporaries. And this result, it seems to us, is not entirely due to the improvidence with which he scattered his oratorical wealth, or to the flimsiness of the materials out of which Mr. Wirt contrived to weave the captivating but unsubstantial first biography of our "forest-born Demosthenes." It is due, we think, in largest part, to the fact that Patrick Henry, in following his sense of public duty, was called to fight two great losing battles in the two supreme crises of American history. In these two supreme conjunctures the conquering cause was pleasing to the gods, but the conquered cause was pleasing to the Virginian Cato. He vehemently opposed the ratification of the Federal Constitution in 1788, and, after that Constitution was adopted, he declared that he "would have nothing to do with it," and fell for a time so completely out of touch with his countrymen that he not only refused to embark his political fortunes in what he called "the crazy machine" of the Federal Government, but became so disaffected to the new polity that, in the first flush of his disgust, he thought of emigrating to North Carolina, where he would be outside of "the more perfect Union," inasmuch as that State, sharing in his fears, and, as some charged, following his lead, had at first rejected the Constitution. At a later date, when North Carolina had acceded to the Union, he joined with some land companies in the purchase of vast demesnes in the remote and unsettled parts of Georgia—the tract bought by all the companies comprised 15,000,000 acres—not only, as he confessed, from motives of speculation, but also from a wish to get on the "frontier" of our consolidated empire, where, far from the "tyranny" that was likely to be established in the metropolitan seat of Federal power, he might breathe the natal air of freedom.

Yet this Republican Cato, who, in his dread of "centralization," was moved in 1790 to seek "an asylum from tyranny" in the wilds of the South, was moved in 1799 to join the Federalist party at a moment when its centralizing tendencies had become so extreme that the party itself was on the point of sinking beneath them into the popular odium from which it was never afterwards resuscitated. For reasons which seemed to him imperative, and from motives which were undoubtedly in the highest degree patriotic, he broke with the "Jef-

fersonian Democracy" at the very moment when that Democracy was on the eve of the long ascendancy which was destined to give to our politics a new complexion and to our polity a new destiny. For this "defection" he was branded by Jefferson as an "apostate," and it was but natural that as the star of Jefferson rose higher and higher towards the zenith, the old-time fame of Henry should have passed, for a season, into the shadow of the decadent Federalism. When it was proposed at the session of the Virginia Legislature which first convened after Henry's death that a marble bust of the Revolutionary patriot should be placed in the hall of the House of Delegates, the resolution was laid on the table by Republican votes. And so it came to pass that Patrick Henry, who, during the Federalist domination, had never enjoyed the grace of Federalism because his Republicanism was so impracticable, fell from the grace of Republicanism at the moment of its advent to power, because he selected that critical moment for embracing the Federalism which had become impracticable in the eyes of the people. We intend no reflection on either the intelligence or patriotism of Patrick Henry in thus adverting to the game of political cross-purposes by which, during the last ten years of his life, he voluntarily and persistently put himself into stalemate on the chess-board of Federal politics, so far as Federal office-bearing was concerned. In the perplexities and obscurities of concrete politics, it may often be the highest duty of a patriot to fight a losing battle; but it is quite impossible to lead a forlorn hope on some stricken field and at the same time take at its flood the tide in human affairs which leads on to fortune.

It is easy enough to follow the logic of Henry's ideas as well in his sullen opposition to the Constitution as in the sudden *revirement* with which he turned from the Republicanism he had once loved to the Federalism he had once detested. In 1784 he was anxious to strengthen the Federal arm of the Government. Even under the Articles of Confederation, he was willing, if necessary, to enforce the requisitions of Congress "by such distress on the property of the defaulting States or of their citizens as the United States in Congress assembled might deem adequate and most eligible." From this attitude he was shaken by the proposed surrender of the Mississippi River to Spain (for a term of years), at the behest of the Northern and Eastern States. The rights and interests of the planting States were magnified in his eyes precisely in proportion as it was sought to disparage them by this untoward project, and at the close of the year 1786 his mind was so "exceedingly soured" (the phrase is Madison's) by what had already passed under this head that, from being "a champion of the Federal cause," he relapsed at first into a doubtful advocate of constitutional revision, and stepped forth at last as a bitter opponent of constitutional reform on the lines projected by the Federal Convention. What wonder, then, that when the Constitution came before him in this frame of mind, he should declare that he "could not see a single Federal feature in it"; that it was confessedly a "national" Government; that it had "an awful squinting towards monarchy"; that under it the rights of the States would be extinguished, the liberties of the people would be put in jeopardy, the interests of the Southern States would be placed at the mercy of a "Northern conclave," the proceedings of Congress would be "hidden from the yeomanry of this country," and the Northern States would never "assent to regulations promotive of Southern aggrandizement"?

He had hoped for a time to secure the States in their "sovereign rights" under the new Constitution by insisting on previous amendments to this effect as the condition precedent of Virginia's ratification of the instrument. After the Constitution had been adopted as it came from the Federal Convention, and after the amendments which were subsequently added to it had not essentially changed its nature in his eyes, it was but logical that Patrick Henry should hold with the Federalists that the instrument was designed to create a strong national Government, and it was natural, too, that, as an honest man, he should refuse to conspire with the Republican leaders of 1798 in what seemed to him an attempt on their part to read "State rights" between the lines of a constitutional text which was, to him, nothing if not "national." He had forewarned the people of Virginia that if they made their bed on the Constitution, they must expect to suffer much amputation of their personal and municipal liberties at the hands of the Federal Procrustes; and when the Alien and Sedition Laws came to point his moral, he felt that he could not say the laws were "unconstitutional," however impolitic he may have thought them or the Constitution which authorized them. And he could not honestly say that the Kentucky and Virginia "Resolutions of '98" expressed the true intendment of the Constitution when, if there was anything about which he had been emphatic at the epoch of the ratification of the Constitution, it was that by that "abominable" instrument the States which before had been "the characteristics and the soul of a confederation," were to be crushed beneath "one great consolidated national Government of the people of all the States." The very extravagance of his language as a "State-rights" opponent of the Constitution, before its adoption, returned to plague him after its adoption, and shut him up to the hard alternative of being either a political anchorite in his Virginia Thebaid, or of being a Federalist *malgré lui* in the forum of national politics.

In the change of his party affiliations in 1798 and 1799 he was doubtless helped by his horror of the "French infidelity" with which Jefferson was then supposed to sympathize, and by his settled aversion to Madison, whom he had a double reason for disliking when that statesman became, in 1798, the author of the famous Virginia "Resolutions" of that year, after having been the great defender of "Federal rights" in the Virginia Convention of 1788. Patrick Henry had defeated the election of Madison as Senator of the United States in the first choice of Senators made by the Virginia Legislature under the Constitution, and in doing so had pronounced a "philippic" on the political principles of which Madison was assumed to be the exponent in 1788. He disliked Madison only the more when, in 1798, the quondam apologist of the Constitution, with all its national features, came forth as the champion of a State-rights metaphysics which had to Henry, as he understood the Constitution, the air of a spurious constitutionalism.

THE GROWTH OF NAVIES.

The Development of Navies during the Last Half Century. By Capt. S. Eardley-Wilmot, R.N. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THIS book, which is finely illustrated, is one of the series entitled "Events of Our Own Time," which was so well begun by the story of the 'War in the Crimea,' by Sir Edward Hamley. The period covered by the past fifty years is coincident with the reign of Queen Victoria, to whom this book is dedicated; and the development and progress of the English navy—the greatest military marine of the world—during the Victorian era, not improperly engrosses the greater part of the text and illustrations. The changes in the matériel of navies have been so great and striking during the last fifty years that the author is also justified in devoting himself mainly to that branch of the subject, though it should never be forgotten that the value of the matériel depends upon the personnel by which it is actuated.

The first chapter enters into a review of the English navy as it existed in 1840, which year was shortly after the introduction of steam into that service, there being at that time but nineteen steamers upon the list, and these all fitted with paddle-wheels. The first vessel with screw propeller was the *Archimedes*, which began its career also in 1840. Reference is made in this part of the book to the two principal naval operations between 1840 and the beginning of our civil war. The first one was the successful attack upon Acre in 1840, and the second the attack by the allied naval forces upon the sea defences of Sebastopol in 1854. This attack was unsuccessful, and brought forcibly to the notice of the naval and military world the great effect of a plunging fire upon attacking vessels. The attack of the *Galena* and the *Monitor* upon Drury's bluff during our own war emphasized this fact anew. In further discussing the part the navy took in the Crimean war, Capt. Eardley-Wilmot takes issue with Gen. Hamley in regard to the conduct of Admiral Lyons, whom Sir Edward Hamley terms the evil genius of Lord Raglan. We are not disposed here to comment upon this discussion, any more than to quote in this connection the criticism made by Sir Stafford Northcote upon the Crimean war, that "our weakness was shown in the confusion of our arrangements and the absence of military skill." It is quite certain, however, that without the naval supremacy of the allies in the Mediterranean and Black Seas, they would not have been enabled to prosecute this distant war to a successful conclusion, and to repair the many blunders that marked the supply, transport, and hospital services of the English army.

The first appearance of iron-clad vessels took place during this war at the allied attack upon Kinburn, the vessels being little more than floating batteries. The author gives to Col. Paixhans of the French army the credit of originating, in 1825, the idea of iron-clad vessels. France was also the leader in the construction of the iron-clad batteries used at Kinburn, as well as in the creation of the first sea-going iron-clad. In 1859 the celebrated Dupuy de Lôme, chief constructor of the French navy, presented to the world the sea-going armored vessel *La Gloire*, built of wood and armored with five inches of iron. From this vessel and from the *Warrior*, the first English sea-going iron-clad, is traced in the book the development of the broadside armored vessel until the *Alexandra*, with her twelve inches of armor, is reached.

In passing from broadside armored vessels to the early turret ships, the author makes the statement that the idea of a revolving turret upon a low iron-plated vessel originated with Capt. Cowper Coles of the English navy. It seems to be a singularly difficult matter to eradicate this idea from certain English minds. As a proof of his statement, the author mentions the fact that in 1855 Capt. Coles, during the Crimean

war, mounted a thirty-two-pounder on a raft for service in the shallow waters of the Sea of Azov, and that from this the plan of a turret iron-clad seems to have originated. But as a matter of fact Ericsson had already, upon the 26th of September, 1854, submitted a drawing of an iron-clad steam battery with revolving cupola to the Emperor Napoleon III. at Paris. This drawing was accompanied with an elaborate description and a demonstration of the utility of the battery. The receipt of these papers was promptly acknowledged by the French Emperor, through Gen. Favé, in very flattering terms.

Another error upon the part of the author is to be found in his description of the action between the *Kearsarge* and the *Alabama*, in stating, as one of the principal reasons of the defeat of the *Alabama*, the protection afforded to the *Kearsarge* by the sheet chain secured up and down the side of the ship in the wake of the machinery. Considering the fact that out of 370 shot and shell fired by the *Alabama*, only fourteen struck the hull of the *Kearsarge*, and only one (a thirty-two-pounder) struck the chain protection, this cannot justly be said to have performed a very important part in deciding the action. Superior skill in gunnery and heavier guns decided it, the *Kearsarge* having fired but 173 projectiles when the sinking of her antagonist closed the affair.

The performance of the American monitors led England to build a turret vessel, the *Captain*, but upon the plans presented by Capt. Coles. This vessel, which was masted, capsized in 1870 with nearly all hands, while carrying sail in a squall of wind off Cape Finisterre. The loss of the *Captain*, with its designer, led to an abandonment of the use of sail power upon turret vessels. The turret ship that followed after a long interval, the *Devastation*, was given instead twin screws, increased coal supply, and additional displacement and freeboard. The success of the *Devastation* as a sea-going vessel led to a further development of the type in the construction of the *Dreadnought* and *Inflexible*, the latter having twenty-four inches of armor, a displacement of more than 11,000 tons, and, in a length of 320 feet, the remarkable breadth of beam of seventy-four feet. The barbette system of iron-clads was the next to come to the front, having originated with the French; the turret system was used by them only for coast-defence vessels. The barbette, in this system, consists of a thick inclined wall of armor, usually pear-shaped, built into the ship, and enclosing a turntable which carries a gun at a sufficient height to permit it to fire freely over the wall in any direction.

We have thus described for us, in sufficient detail, by the author, these three systems of armored battle-ships, the broadside, turret, and barbette. To these types have been added others which are combinations or modifications of the three principal systems. The latest type of the first-class battle-ship constructing for the English navy is represented by the *Empress of India*, which vessel is a combination of the barbette and broadside types, with a displacement of 14,000 tons, an armor of eighteen inches in thickness, an armament of four sixty-seven-ton guns in barbette, and ten six-inch guns in broadside, a maximum speed of seventeen and a half knots, and a coal endurance of 5,000 miles at the rate of ten knots an hour. It may be mentioned here that very considerable discrepancy has been found in practice between the estimated and actual coal endurance of most modern men-of-war. Due allowance is not generally given to the drain upon the coal supply caused by running of the dynamos for electric lighting, the distillation of drinking-water, the amounts needed for cooking, heating, ventilation, pumping, and for hoisting purposes.

The English Admiralty, in their system of naval defence, have done little to establish or develop a type of vessels for purely coast defence, wisely using their sea-going armored vessels for that purpose. Upon this subject the author says that "the principle of building special ships for operations confined to the coast found no favor with our ancestors, taught by the experience of long wars that a sea-going fleet is the best defence against any attempt on the part of an enemy to approach our shores." It is a serious question with naval authorities whether a special type of coast-defence vessels is ever desirable; England no longer favors them, the best French writers are opposing further construction in that direction, while Italy does not provide for them in her naval programme. Our conditions are somewhat different, with our more numerous bays and harbors of moderate depth; but even with these conditions there should be very few of this type constructed, and they should be the last to be built. It is not probable that our navy will consist of many armored vessels, and hence the types adopted should be thoroughly sea-going, capable of using their battery in rough weather, and with sufficient speed and coal endurance to enable them to care for the interests of the United States abroad as well as at home. It is a singular state of affairs that the only armored vessels available or nearly ready at the present time for service are vessels designed and built for restricted coast-defensive purposes.

A chapter of the book is devoted to unarmored cruisers, these vessels being rightly considered as the successors of the old-time sailing frigates—the eyes of the fleet, as they were called. Speed was the first essential of the frigate, and should be also of the cruiser, and the old relation between the ship of the line and the frigate should exist between the armored battle-ship and the fast cruiser. The fight between the unarmored English cruisers *Shah* and *Amethyst*, and the small and badly manned Peruvian (now Chilian) iron-clad *Huascar*, dispelled the idea that a modern unarmored vessel of large displacement, even when aided by a second vessel, could cope with a small iron-clad.

After dealing with ships and their various types, the author proceeds to review the progress and development of ordnance, treating of the introduction of rifled guns, their growth in size, the adoption of the breech-loading system, and finally the advent of machine and rapid-firing guns. In the same way torpedoes and torpedo warfare and the advance in propulsion by steam are laid before the reader in a concise but intelligible and interesting manner. The final chapters are devoted to a short review of foreign navies, first European, then those of the United States and the South American countries. The great progress in European navies dates from the close of the Franco-German war. Previous to that time, France and England were the only nations that paid much attention to the development of their naval force, but since then Germany and Austria have each made and continue to make decided progress as naval Powers; Italy has created a strong navy, and ranks high as a Mediterranean naval Power, while Russia, handicapped as she is both by climate and by limited and badly placed coast line, is making rapid and well-planned advance. England has a definite aim in her naval policy, and that is to possess a navy sufficiently large to cope with the combined navies of any two European Powers—France and Russia, for example. France, without proposing to equal England in naval force, aims to have a navy equal in strength to the combined navies of Austria, Italy, and Germany.

In the United States we seem to have neither a definite nor a continuous naval policy. After many years, during which our navy was in a most humiliating condition and our coast line exposed to attack from any insignificant State possessing modern iron-clads and fast cruisers, we have begun to build a modern navy. This we have done in reverse order—fast cruisers, coast-defence vessels, and then battle-ships. But, unfortunately, from our historical experience we have no great reason to believe that this reconstruction, or rather replacement, will be sure to continue until a navy of sufficient strength has been built to protect our extensive maritime frontiers upon the Atlantic and Pacific, as well as our many and growing interests abroad. It must be remembered that the sea to us is no longer a security against attack; in these times of swift vessels with large coal endurance there is no frontier so weak as that along the sea—certainly none is more accessible, for the ocean is full of invisible roads leading from all directions. The construction of a ship canal across the Central American isthmus, whether under private or Government auspices, is only a question of time. This water link between our eastern and western coasts will put upon this country naval burdens and duties, and will demand from us a navy of sufficient strength to control the waters adjacent to the entrances of the canal so that we can assure to the world the neutralization and free use of the canal under all circumstances and against any Power. With these possibilities dawning, we should be impelled, as the French republic has been impelled, to consider the future needs of the republic, and, by legislative commission or otherwise, officially present to the people a naval policy both definite and lasting.

The Chinese, their Present and Future: Medical, Political, and Social. By Robert Coltman, jr., M.D. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis.

In this unpretentious volume of about two hundred pages we have the valuable impressions of a medical missionary in China honestly stated. Dr. Coltman became interested in the Chinese people while studying specimens of the race in Philadelphia. Their amazing skill in the use of the mouth as an atomizer for spraying shirt fronts in the laundry fascinated him. Thence he progressed to the perusal of books on China, only to find in them a lack of detail and meagreness of description in regard to the social state of the people and country at present. Thereupon he determined to go to China to study Chinese humanity at home. Receiving appointment as a medical missionary under the Presbyterian Board to Chinan-fu, the capital of Shang-tung, he reached his post in the autumn of 1885. He at once began the study of the language, and was soon at work among the people.

In plain, straightforward style, and in briefest phrase, Dr. Coltman tells so interesting a story that it is hard to leave the book until one has finished it. He does not describe all China, but he gives us a wonderfully vivid account of what he saw in Northern China. He describes the home life of the well-to-do and the average people, and sketches the routine of the laborers,

who scarcely keep body and soul together. It is refreshing to find a missionary telling the truth as he saw it, without feeling it necessary to blacken the character of the heathen. Evidently the author is somewhat like the famous translator of Confucius, the Rev. James Legge, who refused to attend meetings in Exeter Hall where the Chinese would be misrepresented. The facts are stated without reserve. Infanticide in the case of female children is rare in North China, for Dr. Coltman—like scores of inquirers in the same region—never heard of a single case. Nevertheless, the girls are often neglected, ill-fed, and poorly clothed, while their brothers receive every gift the fond fathers can lavish upon them. Even the mothers often despise their female offspring and abuse them beyond belief. Fighting among men is rare, except when a creditor tries to collect a debt. It is not often that injury is done; nor is swearing or blasphemy indulged in, the foulest of obscene language taking the place of oaths. Suicides and adultery (in spite of the seclusion of women) are common. The Chinaman is a born gambler. The deaths by starvation are numerous, and the picture of the laborer's struggle for life is pathetic. Yet, as Dr. Coltman points out, the Chinese need not emigrate across the ocean, so long as fertile land is so cheap in Manchuria. Naturally, the longest chapter is upon the diseases prevalent in China. Badly cooked food, vitiated water supply, and malarial climate combine to produce the almost universal stomach troubles. Practising no hygiene, ignorant of the germ theory of disease, yet knowing that no unboiled water is safe to use, they drink only hot water, and look with horror upon foreigners who like cold water. Eye-troubles come next to those of the alimentry canal. Nervous diseases are rare, and the people bear surgical operations well. In discussing syphilis, which is so prevalent, the author shows that this disease is usually the precursor of leprosy. This latter disease the author pronounces only moderately contagious or infectious, and to it he devotes a whole chapter.

On the whole, Dr. Coltman considers that morality in China is not far below the standard of America and England. A refreshingly unconventional chapter treats of missionaries and their work, and one which should be valuable to the merchant and intending fortune-seeker sets forth "business opportunities" in the Chinese cities. Most suggestive are the author's discussions of the present political situation and the future of China. He proves beyond a doubt that foreign intercourse has opened the eyes of a good many millions to the wretchedness of the Government and the unnecessarily hard social conditions under which they live. The causes of discontent are often those which arise from an intelligent perception that is creditable to those who complain. How to remedy the present evil and reform the abuses of ages is the question. Many of the Chinese hope for a change of dynasty, and, through revolution, improvement. Dr. Coltman believes it is not a change of dynasty, but a change of policy, that is needed. Hitherto, China's political safety has lain in the fact that European Governments have been too much occupied elsewhere to give China the attention which her turbulent people have deserved. After the riots and murders, indemnities have been paid, but the ringleaders have not been delivered up. By accepting satisfaction money, Europeans have made the Chinese think that they fear China. The time will come when the Treaty Powers will demand that China be interested in civilization. Unless this great mass of humanity awake from the fumes of the poppy, reform government, and develop resources, it must become the prey of more vigorous nations. There is less danger and menace to Christendom through a "Mongolian invasion" than conquest of China by the energetic men of the West, who want her iron and coal, her land for railways, and new customers for their own manufactures. Unless China awake, the alien will rule.

Except for its terseness and manly directness, Dr. Coltman's literary style is hardly to be commended. His English is of the local American sort, which makes one turn gladly to enjoy a classic author all the more by contrast. A number of well-executed photo-engravings enliven his pages, but there is no index. The neat cover bears in calligraphic Chinese the title and date of a book especially interesting because of its close touch with questions that are of vital interest to Americans.

The Living World: Whence it came and whither it is drifting. By H. W. Conn. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891. 8vo, pp. vii, 195, illustrated.

A CONCISE and forcible presentation of a widely accepted view of life and its evolution is given in this book. In the really scientific portions, those based on direct study of the recent or the fossil, it shows a discriminating familiarity on the part of the author with his subject that must be founded now on personal observation, and again on acquaintance with good authorities. It is a scientific review more or less affected by speculation and sentiment. There is some weakness in its orthography, as in "phylocarida," "stegecephala," "odontholcae," "numulitic," "eozoan," "cirrepedia," "belemites," "bracyura," and "globergerina," among other misspellings that might have been cured by a competent proofreader.

In the conjectural or speculative portions the work is open to more criticism. Numerous references make it evident that the author is thoroughly permeated by the gastræa myth. He says all biological studies point strongly to the conclusion that the sub-kingdoms of animals did not originate independently from the protozoa, but "all had a common ancestor, the gastræa, and this means that only once has the unicellular form given rise to an important line of multicellular descendants which perpetuated itself." There may be nothing impossible in this, but it is hardly probable, and it certainly has not been established. Persistent assertion, extensive advertising, and anxiety to find a common trunk for a genealogical tree have led many to accept the gastræa theory. But when the student, beginning with the single cell, considers the possible aggregations of cells in the evolution of the earlier multicellular types, scepticism at once asserts itself. The forms were limited to lines and planes and their combinations, and to solids. In shapes the protoplasmic solids naturally tended to those of drops of water; they were sub-globular, flattened on the lower side, and, as further enlarged, became depressed on the upper side, the two walls coming closer together, thus approaching the shape assigned the imaginary ancestral gastræa. Without reason that they should not, and without proof that they did not, the assumption that a number of lines, each passing through a stage somewhat resembling the mythical gastræa, were independently originated from the protozoa, is the more reasonable and evidently requires less proof. Seen from this point of view, the gastræal affinities between the sub-kingdoms become mere resemblances, due to physical causes. The plants furnish nothing to take the place of a gastræa, and it is asserted that new types were constantly arising till the cretaceous, and that there is every reason for believing they arose from the earliest existing plants in all cases.

In the sentimental portions of the work the conclusions are quite as positive as in the scientific. An orthodox believer seeking to harmonize science with his belief will regard the book with greater favor on that account. Science is usually distorted in attempts to make it accord with religion. Whether this author has avoided distortion, and whether his conclusions accord perfectly with scientific evolution, we leave his readers to judge. He has decided that the lower types have practically ended their evolution in the distant past; that man alone has possibilities of higher development, which in his case must be wholly mental; that "the new law of love" binds mankind into unity which checks the formation of castes, forcing man to advance as a whole; and that "the law of love is the only law which could produce the highest mental and moral development."

American Architecture. Studies by Montgomery Schuyler. With Illustrations. Harper & Bros.

MR. SCHUYLER is one of the few persons not architects who have something to say about architecture that is worth listening to. His book is a series of articles already published in periodicals, and mainly critical, on the architecture of New York and two or three Western cities. The criticism is very intelligent, usually just, though perhaps more magisterial than will quite please those whom it touches, and with much of the incisiveness of professional criticism, set forth with great cleverness and animation of style, and enforced by illustrations of more than common excellence. The only thing that need put the reader on his guard is a disposition to what the Germans call *Tendenz*, due to a certain partiality in the point of view which Mr. Schuyler establishes in his introductory note. This standpoint is that of sincerity, the straightforward expression of use and construction—a favorite point of view, and admirable for criticism in one degree, but too one-sided for complete judgment. Mr. Schuyler has too much sense for the art of architecture to confine himself to this standpoint, but at times he keeps close enough to it to narrow his appreciation. His discussion of the Brooklyn bridge is an example: his account of its ugliness is just, but his analysis, it seems to us, is at fault, and involves a popular fallacy. It is ugly, he says, because the anatomy of the towers and the anchorages is not brought out in the modelling. This is assertion without any foundation. It may be met by the other assertion that the piers of the bridge are ugly because Roebling lacked the sense of beauty, or else the power to express it, and that the anatomy of the towers and anchorages might have been modelled as emphatically as that of the Farnese Hercules, or of one of Michael Angelo's risen saints, and the piers have still been as ugly as now.

The truth is, that while sincerity and the expression of purpose are as admirable in architecture as in life and conduct, and while the defiance or even neglect of them produces a discord that mars or destroys the effect of beauty, they are independent of it, and no more pro-

duce beautiful architecture than good sentiment and good grammar produce beautiful poetry. He who fancies himself able to make things beautiful by simply making them sincere or useful, or by elucidating in them the laws of construction, is but laying up disappointment for himself and for those who trust in him.

Horace and the Elegiac Poets. By W. Y. Sellar, LL.D., late Professor of Humanity in the University of Edinburgh. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

THIRTY years ago was published Mr. Sellar's first book on the Roman Poets of the Republic; after three lustres followed the first volumes of his Poets of the Augustan Age; and now, after nearly the like interval, comes its companion. It is the work of one in whom were united qualities which nowadays too rarely meet in a single man, for together with sound scholarship he had the gift of literary appreciation and the power of making others share his own enjoyment of literary art. As one lays down the book and reflects that nothing more is to follow from the same hand, strong indeed is the sense of the loss which the lovers of true classical learning have sustained. Not that Mr. Sellar stood in the front rank as scholars are often reckoned now: he invented no modification of the triple-root theory, nor troubled himself with the question whether *-dus* is from *dha-* or from *da-*. Possibly there is not a word about the subjunctive or the locative in all his writings. But he was no "play" scholar either, for a man must have a head as well as a heart to write such a book as this. He would have been the last to belittle the achievements of scholars working in the fields of pure philology, grammar, or criticism; for he knew that these are the men who make possible all intelligent literary study, which else were a vain and unsubstantial thing. But, for himself, he was content to build on the foundations which they laid.

The present book contains a portrait of Mr. Sellar, and a short memoir by his nephew, Mr. Andrew Lang. The first half of the work, some two hundred pages, is devoted to Horace, the second, of the same extent, to Roman elegy and the principal elegiac poets, concluding with a brief sketch of Ovid, left unfinished at the writer's death. The second half contains much that is good, and not the least so is the strong plea for Propertius, whose poems, indeed, in the last few years are getting to be better known and appreciated than they were formerly. But it is the part about Horace that will prove of the greatest value and most general interest. The first chapter treats of the life and personal characteristics of Horace himself. In him Mr. Sellar found "the most complete exponent of the actual life and movement of his time," and yet one who "among all the ancient poets suits the greatest variety of modern tastes." The explanation of this apparent paradox is that "to each successive age and century he seems to express its own familiar wisdom and experience"; that he never talks as from a pulpit, and that he addresses us as his intimate friends, and with the most charming frankness. His own characterization of Lucilius, "comis atque urbanus," better fits himself. He was distinctly a man of the world, knowing his own value, requiring to receive it from all, no matter what the inequality in rank, yet so capable of inspiring deep affection that the dying commendation of the favorite minister of Augustus was "Horati Flacci ut mei esto memor." But "his most marked characteristic was his self-dependence. To live for himself—that is, not to live in selfish isolation, but to be true to his own nature, to be what he was meant to be, and not to try to be or to seem to be anything else—and to be independent of fortune, is the sum of his philosophy."

These broad outlines are of course filled in with more particular treatment of the life and surroundings of the poet, of his relations to society, and of the development of his genius through the three periods into which his literary life is divided. Then follows a chapter on the Satires, their contents and quality. The two great distinctions of Horace as a satirist—his moderation and his truth to nature—are excellently brought out, as well as one of the great charms of these writings, that the satire never hurts. Even when he is laughing at you, you cannot help laughing with him, and nobody ever better hit off this characteristic than the much-abused Persius—

> "vitium ridenti Flaccus amico
> Tangit, et admissus circum praecordia ludit."

Mr. Sellar was of course alive to the excellence of the metrical form of these "Talks," for such the Satires really are. He well says: "It was as great a triumph of art to bend the stately Latin hexameter into a flexible instrument for the use of his *Musa pedestris* as to have been the inventor of a prose style equal to that of Addison or Montaigne. . . . No later writers found the secret of it any more than of his lyrical metres"—and so on into more special considerations of the niceties of the form.

Of the Odes, to which without any doubt Horace owed his immortality, Mr. Sellar points out that they have been, ever since the revival of letters, one of the chief instruments by which literary taste and a delicate sense of language have been educated. This is due perhaps most of all to the fact that a wealth of meaning was conveyed by the use of the simplest and commonest words. We cannot dwell on the chapter devoted to the Odes, though it is the best in the book. The beauty of the rhythm—and Mr. Sellar recognized the fact that Horace rather neglected the Alexandrines and went back to the "integri fontes"—as well as the beauty of the language and the thought, all find fully appreciative treatment; yet it is not concealed from the reader that Horace never reached those heights of creative imagination to which Catullus soared, "nor was he capable of the sustained union of vivid feeling with vivid imagery which we find in the Epithalamium."

Space will not allow us to touch upon the many other topics of interest in the volume, but we are glad to note that the author was not one of those who see in Horace only the Anacreontic singer of the pleasures of love and wine. He appreciated to the full the ethical and patriotic strains in Horace's poetry, and did not hesitate to place him with Virgil, side by side, as the national and religious poets of Rome. Looking at him as a man, he saw no Epicurean idler, but a true lover of books, a lover of art, a lover of the independent life of the country—in a word, a type of the finest culture of his day. The picture suggests the name of another great poet, unhappily now gone from the world—one near whose heart were such studies as these which we have been considering. For Lowell, also, "the dew still glistened on the Sabine farm," and not the least of the regrets for his loss is the knowledge that he had thought of writing something on the Roman poet. They had much in common; as we read them we come to realize the truth that the function of the poet is in the main an ethical one, and that he should be of use in his generation. No idle singers of an empty day were they, in whose poems the first rank is held by the duties of patriotism and of friendship; each was one

> "Qui didicit patriae quid debeat et quid amicis."

Economic History since 1763. Compiled by Benjamin Rand, Ph.D., Assistant in Philosophy, Harvard University. Second edition, revised and enlarged. 8vo, pp. 567. Cambridge, Mass. 1892.

THE first edition of this book was noticed favorably in our columns soon after its publication in 1888. Prepared as a text-book for collegiate students in advanced courses, this work has proved so well adapted to their wants and also so useful to general readers, that continued demand for it has led to the preparation of the present revised and enlarged edition. This consists of selections from the writings of economists, statisticians, and historians illustrative of economic history since the Seven Years' War. The design of the compiler has been to exhibit, in a series of articles of permanent value, different phases of economic thought, and to present in chronological order a narrative of some of the more important events and influences of modern economic history. This design, which was embodied in no small degree in the first edition, is realized more fully in the second edition. The selections published in the former edition were: The Colonial Policy of Europe, from Adam Smith's 'Wealth of Nations'; The Great Inventions, from Walpole's 'History of England'; Economic Causes of the French Revolution, from Von Sybel's 'French Revolution'; The Emancipating Edict of Stein, from Seeley's 'Life and Times of Stein'; The Orders in Council and the Corn Laws, from Levi's 'History of British Commerce'; The Finances of England, 1793-1815, from Porter's 'Progress of the Nation'; The Zollverein, from Bowring's Report (Parl. Doc., 1840) and from Legoyt's 'La France et l'Étranger'; The New Gold, from Cairnes's 'Essays in Political Economy'; 'France under the Second Empire,' from Levasseur's 'Histoire des Classes Ouvrières'; The French Indemnity, from *Blackwood's Magazine* and from Kolb's 'The Condition of Nations'; The Recent Progress of Italy, from Wilson's 'The Resources of Modern Countries'; Public Debts, from Neymarck's 'Les Dettes Publiques Européennes'; and The United States in 1880, which included reports from the Tenth Census on Increase of Population, 1790-1880, by F. A. Walker and Henry Gannett; on The Factory System, by C. D. Wright; on The Cotton Manufactures, by Edward Atkinson; and on The Iron and Steel Industries, by J. M. Swank.

Comparison shows that in the second edition one of these selections, that on the Recent Progress of Italy, has been omitted, and that five new selections have been introduced. These changes have enriched the volume, especially for American readers, and given opportunity for fuller treatment by experts of some of the world-wide economic disturbances since 1873. This will appear upon citation of the titles and sources of the new chapters, which are as follows: The Agrarian Legislation of Hardenberg, from Morier's 'The Agrarian Legislation of Prussia in the Present Century'; The Commercial Policy of the Restoration, from Levasseur's 'Histoire des Classes Ouvrières en France depuis 1789'; Recent Changes in Transportation and Production, from Wells's 'Re-

cent Economic Changes'; The Liquidations of 1873-'76, from Giffen's 'Essays in Finance'; and The World's Progress in Trade and Industry, translated from Neumann-Spallart's 'Uebersichten der Weltwirthschaft.' Valuable appendices have been added to this edition, containing (besides leading sections from the English Navigation Acts which appeared in the original edition) important sections of American Navigation Acts and valuable statistics relating to the cost of the American Civil War, the payment of the war debt, the growth of Canada, and the United States in 1890—its population, iron-ore mining industry, production of pig-iron and steel, municipal receipts and expenditures, and national, State, and county indebtedness.

The mere enumeration of the contents of the present edition is a sufficient description of it for persons familiar with economic literature. The superior quality and authoritative origin of its different articles may be affirmed for the guidance of others. In bringing together and making available to many readers such valuable material, the compiler has rendered a substantial service to the cause of economic education in the United States. This book especially merits the attention of bankers, lawyers, legislators, and clergymen who desire to understand the causes of present financial, industrial, and social organizations, and to give effective aid in their improvement. It would not be difficult to name some important economic events since 1763 not specifically treated in this volume. Such, for example, are the abolition of slavery in English and French colonies, in the United States, and in Brazil (1833-'71), the opening of certain ports in China and Japan to Occidental trade and emigration since 1815. Discussion of these subjects might properly have been included, but it is doubtful whether the limits of a single volume would have allowed special consideration of them together with adequate treatment of the subjects selected. Further, the avowed design of this work is limited, and the events and influences selected for discussion may fairly be deemed the more important in modern history.

The difficulties of the compiler of such a volume are apt to be underestimated. He must not only find articles of intrinsic and permanent worth, but also of suitable length and acceptable literary form. One or other of these requirements forbids his use of large masses of material, and especially of many Government reports. Despite these difficulties, Dr. Rand has been successful in his undertaking. The educational service he has thus rendered will be best appreciated by persons who know how difficult it often is to persuade college students to avail themselves of their privileges for consulting the authorities on economic history, and how many general readers interested in this subject—especially country residents—do not have access to libraries containing the works of such authorities. No other single period of equal duration has witnessed so many and such far-reaching industrial and commercial revolutions as that from 1763 to 1890. No other single volume known to us seems likely to give the college student or the general reader so instructive, so interesting, and so trustworthy an account of these events as this 'Economic History.'

This edition contains what was wanting in the first, a bibliography and an index. The typographical execution is excellent.

Across Thibet. By Gabriel Bonvalot. Translated by C. B. Pitman. Cassell Publishing Co.

THIS portly and handsomely illustrated work is not from the hands of a tyro. Gabriel Bonvalot, though, as the frontispiece shows, not an old man or even of middle age, is a seasoned traveller. He has won laurels in the exploration of Central Asia, and within three years has issued his book 'Aux Indes par Terre.' Translated into English under the title of 'Through the Heart of Asia,' it has been the talk of all in England who watch with jealousy the movements of Russia. The book told of Bonvalot's journey through and over the table lands of the Pamir. In other words, this Frenchman found a new and dangerous path overland to India, which might be possible to a Russian invading army.

Scarcely rested from his daring journey, this intrepid scrambler over "the roof of the world" prepared to find a fresh path from civilization, across the Central Asian plateau into Tonquin. The Duc de Chartres, who wished his son, Prince Henry of Orleans, to see the world, furnished the means, and forthwith Bonvalot guaranteed to supply the courage, self-command, tenacity, and knowledge of human nature so necessary in the explorer. Huc and Przhvalsky were his literary mentors, but Rockhill, the American, who has gone back to Asia to beat the Frenchman's record if possible, had not yet written. It was but a pleasure journey to leave Paris July 6 and to get to the Siberian frontier. At Jarkent (of the map, Djarkent of the text) began on the 6th of September, 1889, his true journey. Organizing his caravan and proceeding to Kuldja, which only a few years ago was wrested by the Chinese from the Russians, the two Frenchmen were so fortunate as to find a willing companion in Father Dedeken, a Belgian missionary, of splendid physique, who would return home by way of the China Sea. Their plan was now to cross over the Tian Shan Mountains, and strike southward to Lhassa, the sacred city of the Lamas. Over this plateau the travellers moved in the increasing cold, giving names to the mountains after famous geographers and explorers. The plateau is from 13,000 to 20,000 feet in height, and many of the peaks are extinct volcanoes. Between the water in the lakes and the snow, there was only an occasional lack of the means of quenching thirst in this land of stones and sand. Although they met caravans and passed through villages, yet no hostilities were encountered along the route, and no startling adventures were experienced during the entire journey. Crossing the ice of a frozen lake which lay in an old crater, passing through a valley of dry bones, straddling the few inches' width of the possible source of the Yang-tse Kiang, celebrating the Chinese New Year's with the thermometer at 48 degrees below zero, and the death and burial of one of the caravan, were the chief excitements until the region near Lhassa was reached. Here they waited, hoping that orders granting permission to visit the sacred city would be received. Disappointed in their hopes, and with possibly sad loss to the theosophists, the Frenchmen had to content themselves with studying lamaism at the great Monastery of So, and Thibetan humanity on the roads and in the villages. Taking the eastern route at Ta-chien-la, situated at the intersection of the 30th parallel with the 100th meridian east of Paris, they again struck southward, reaching the Valley of the Red River, September 22, having finished 3,750 miles on foot or horseback.

The absence of tables of altitudes and distances, as well as the omission of the original chapter treating of the collections made by the travellers, makes it difficult to form an opinion as to the actual or probable value of Bonvalot's journey to science. Nor are there any indexes to the work, or maps, except a very fair general map of Central and Eastern Asia, with the route marked in red, and the names freshly added to the Thibetan Plateau. The temperatures have been expressed in Fahrenheit, and one cannot but note with admiration the courage, endurance, and good nature continually displayed by these Frenchmen, as well as remark the matter-of-fact tone in which the degradation of the mercury column is noted.

As a work for popular reading the book is well written and furnished. The story is lively, well garnished with wit and incident. The scores of illustrations are mostly from photographs by Prince Henry, who as skilfully as industriously worked the camera. The greasy and long-haired Thibetans are not attractive specimens of humanity, but the author seems to regard them more highly than Chinese, whom he heartily despises. In one instance, he outwitted a petty Mandarin who had kept his papers. Confiscating the official order, a warrant written by the Prefect of the district of Karachar, he gave it up only after his own were restored. Though already invited to visit and take tea with this same Prefect, he found the warrant (when photographed and translated later in Paris) to be a command to all Chinese officers to hinder and turn back the French party. This perfidy seems to be considered necessary by the Mandarins of the frontier and outlying districts of the Chinese Empire in order to prove to foreigners that administration is kept up. Practical diplomacy was usually successful, and out of numerous difficulties the patience, shrewdness, and good nature of the leader always extricated the party. Often in straits for food or water, they reached safely the fat valleys of Annam.

The question, "Is man too prolific?" receives a stereotyped affirmative answer from the Thibetans, whose Malthusianism is secured by a religious system. "Most of the males are now consecrated to Buddha, and the youth thus set apart do not marry, while they do not allow their hair to grow any more, and wear a yellow garter on their leg." This religious Malthusianism is calculated to please the economists who think that the world is too small for mankind.

The author closes his final chapter with the hope that the critics will not be too hard upon him. Since the supreme merit of a traveller is to be honest, to tell the whole truth, and to refrain from the temptation to sensational exaggeration, the critic, while praising the adventurous author for giving us a pleasing story of travel, must also thank him for the unvarnished tale. Nevertheless, Lhassa remains unvisited, and the forbidden city still lures. Unscientific as he was, Huc still remains about our only non-Asiatic authority concerning the metropolis of the Buddhist world.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Evelyn. A History of Greece. Part II. Putnams. $2.25.
About, Edmond. The Mother of a Marquise, and the Aunt's Stratagem. Cassell. 50 cents.
Anson, Sir W. R. The Law and Custom of the Constitution. Part II. The Crown. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
A Satchel Guide to Europe. 1892. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Bean, F. Col. Judson of Alabama. U. S. Book Co. 25 cents.
Bennett, Prof. C. E. Xenophon's Hellenica. Books V.—VII. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.

Black, William. A Princess of Thule. Harpers.
Briggs, Rev. C. A. The Bible, the Church, and the Reason. Scribners. $1.75.
Bultmann, Ida W. Freytag's Soll und Haben, Condensed and Edited with Notes. Boston: Ginn & Co. 70 cents.
Conybeare, F. C. Lotze's Outlines of a Philosophy of Religion. Macmillan. 90 cents.
Dallas, Susan. Diary of George Mifflin Dallas. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 28, 1892.

The Week.

WITHIN a week a fresh crop of rumors has sprung up in Washington touching a new international conference on the silver question. These rumors have been published in London, where they are received with much incredulity. The *Times* of that city considers Mr. Harrison's rumored negotiations on this subject "an obviously evasive and illusory attempt to temporize with the soft-money partisans." It sees no prospect of any international agreement or any improvement of the silver market, and it looks upon Mr. Goschen's expression of a desire for an enlarged use of silver as productive of more harm than good. Other English journals have expressed doubt whether there is any real ground for supposing that a new conference will be held. Until some official statement is made, no credence can be given to these reports. Yet there are obvious reasons why the Administration should desire to have a conference this year, or at all events have a hopeful negotiation on foot looking towards one. This would be a political advantage because it would put an end, for the time, to all intestine party disagreements such as those broached by Senator Teller last week. Everybody would be constrained to wait till the conference was ended before taking any step to form new alliances. In fact, Mr. Teller himself has moved for such a conference in the Senate and Mr. Lodge has moved for it in the House—these two representing the opposite extremes in the party. There is also a certain amount of international-conference feeling among the Democrats, but it is not among the free-coinage men. The Bland faction have always regarded international action as a subterfuge and a makeshift to gain time. They would not reject a conference—indeed, the Bland Bill has a clause in it looking to an agreement *after* we adopt free coinage. But they insist that our action shall not be contingent on that of any other country. Nevertheless, the actual pendency of an international conference would give them pause. It would enforce silence upon them during the interval. So the movement for a conference, if there is really one on foot, may be regarded as a temporary relief to the politicians on both sides.

When we look at practical results, we can discern nothing hopeful. Two facts militate always against a bimetallic agreement. One is, that all the governments on earth cannot prevent gold and silver from selling according to their respective costs of production. The other is, that the governments can never trust each other to the extent of believing that they will live up to the agreement. The agreement requires a mutual sacrifice of pecuniary interests to the common good. It is not an agreement which can be carried out by powder and ball or by chains and dungeons. It requires for its efficient execution the assent of all private individuals within the territorial scope of the treaty. It requires that the preference of people for gold over silver shall cease. But everybody knows that it will not cease at the bidding of a law passed by any number of governments. No government could enforce bimetallism on its own subjects beyond the settlement of contracts already in existence. As to all future bargains, the people's preference for gold over silver would find its way as easily and surely as their preference for potatoes over turnips. Knowledge of this elementary fact will always prevent the governments from trusting each other to enforce bimetallism.

The silverites contribute to the gayety of nations from time to time, and nobody is more diligent in this way than Senator Teller. In his speech on Wednesday week (the speech in which he warned the Republican party to beware of Colorado, Nevada, Idaho, and Montana), he gave a piece of his mind about Great Britain. The subject to which he was particularly directing his thought was the advantage that India gains as an exporter of wheat by having a depreciated currency. Senator Higgins of Delaware asked whether the construction of railways in India might not also have had considerable influence in promoting the export of wheat. Then the following colloquy took place:

> Mr. Teller—A Senator asks me where they got the money with which to build the railroads. Great Britain built the railroads for them.
>
> Mr. Stewart—And charged it to them.
>
> Mr. Teller—Of course India is paying for them. The financial policy of Great Britain has been to *never pay anything out to anybody where she does not get a full equivalent back.*

This financial policy is in marked contrast to that of the universal Yankee nation, otherwise Mr. Teller would not have referred to it in such severe terms. *Our* policy is to pay our money without getting anything like a full equivalent back. Yet when Mr. Blaine pointed out that we were losing $45,000,000 per annum in trading with Brazil, he did not speak of it in terms of admiration at all. On the contrary, he contended that we ought to do just as Great Britain does, namely, "get a full equivalent back"; and to this end he negotiated a treaty of reciprocity with Brazil, which has not had much effect except to show his earnest desire to recover some part of the $45,000,000.

The *modus vivendi* respecting Bering Sea provides that both Governments shall prohibit seal-killing by their subjects during the pendency of the arbitration. Article 7 provides that the agreement shall be ratified by the President, "by and with the advice and consent of the Senate," a formality which was dispensed with last year. This is a tacit acknowledgment of the illegality of last year's arrangement on our part. There was no law last year prohibiting American citizens from taking seals in Bering Sea beyond the three-mile limit. But a treaty duly ratified is a part of the supreme law of the land, and is binding on all the States and the citizens thereof. We congratulate President Harrison on his improved *modus vivendi.*

The rejection of the barbarous Anti-Chinese Bill in the Senate by the large majority of 43 to 14 is a pleasing omen, and we cannot allow it to pass without a word of thanks to Senator Sherman for his strong speech in condemnation of the measure, and especially for the high grounds on which his opposition to it was based. He said that this bill exceeded, in severity and in denial of the ordinary rights of humanity, any bill that was probably ever introduced into the Congress of the United States. With the exception of the old Fugitive Slave Law, this was undoubtedly a correct description. Before examining the "worse than Draconian code" sent over by the House, Mr. Sherman showed from the census reports that the Chinese population in California had actually decreased 4½ per cent. in the past ten years, the number now being 3,451 less than it was in 1880, and hence that these severe measures were unnecessary for the purpose of checking Chinese immigration. This fact staggered the Pacific Coast Senators, particularly Mr. Mitchell of Oregon, who had discovered from his inner consciousness that the number of Chinese in the whole country had largely increased. Mr. Mitchell was quite sure that if the number of Chinese in California had decreased, it was because there had been an overflow from that State all the time. The peculiarity of this cup is that the less there is in it, the more it over flows. Mr. Sherman dissected the bill carefully and exposed its shocking provisions thoroughly. Such a service deserves public recognition.

The bill pending before the Senate which requires the accounting officers of the Treasury to reopen all claims settled under a construction of law subsequently declared by the Supreme Court of the United States to be erroneous, and to adjust them in accordance with the law as construed by the Court, not only involves an immense expenditure of money, but is wholly indefensible in principle. When the Court of Claims was established in 1863, all claims against the Government

which had then accrued, if they belonged to any of the classes over which that Court was given jurisdiction, could have been presented to it for adjudication. Those whose demands have originated since 1863 have been treated with the greatest liberality. Every avenue that could be devised has been open to them. A simple, inexpensive, and easy mode of redress exists in the Treasury. Failing to secure a favorable decision from the Comptrollers, claimants have been permitted to file their petitions in the Court of Claims at any time within six years from the accrual of their demands, notwithstanding their previous voluntary submission to the decision of the Treasury. If these demands have remained so long unadjudicated in the Treasury that the six-year statute of limitations blocks their way to the court, another remedy remains. The head of the Department may—notwithstanding the adverse decision of the accounting officers—refer the demands to the Court for decision, the statute of limitation not running in such cases for the period during which the demands may have been pending before the Department. To go further and reopen all claims, however old, just because it has been discovered in a suit brought many years afterwards by some person who did not sleep on his rights, that they were improperly settled by the accounting officers, is liberality run mad.

Such a bill as this would never have been dreamed of if we had, as many governments have, a class of eminent magistrates, holding office by a permanent tenure, charged with the duty of hearing and determining claims against the public. From the beginning the Federal Auditors and Comptrollers have occupied an anomalous position. Vested with judicial functions, and yet holding office during the pleasure of the President, they have exercised their brief authority without printed precedents or the arguments of counsel to guide them, and gone out of office upon every change of administration, followed by the curses of claimants and claim agents whose clamor they had withstood, to be succeeded by other temporary officers whose chief employment consists in overturning what they tried to establish. It would be more economical to the nation, more just to claimants, and more respectful to the Treasury officers themselves, to change the whole system.

There can be no question that the stealing of a seat in Congress on Friday for Mr. Rockwell, who comes from the home district of Senator Hill, was a Hill victory. All the Hill organs are justified, therefore, in claiming it as their triumph and in crowing over it lustily. We think they are quite right, also, in hailing it as a "Cleveland defeat." Every triumph of that kind in Democratic politics has come to be looked upon in all quarters as a rebuff to Mr. Cleveland, and it is one of the many tributes to his character that this is the case. He has never been an exponent of the kind of politics which finds its highest development in stealing seats in legislative bodies, or in extracting legal election returns from the public files in order that illegal ones may be used to put men in office who have failed of election by the people. The "Hill victory" in Congress was of precisely the same character as the series of Hill victories by which he and Tammany gained control of the State Senate. Mr. Rockwell had no legal right to the seat which has been awarded him by the narrow majority of 15 votes in a House which has a Democratic majority of 150. His claim to the seat was denied by the Democratic majority of the Elections Committee, on the ground that Noyes had a majority of the votes as returned under the laws of the State, whereas Rockwell's certificate was based upon a recount. The law of New York does not authorize a recount of votes, but expressly provides that after the count has been made the ballots shall be destroyed. He would have been rejected by the House had not the Hill-Tammany combine, which elected Mr. Crisp Speaker, made a determined fight for his retention. They are as jubilant over their victory as they were over the theft of the New York Senate and the success of the snap Convention, and it is likely to do them about as much good as those remarkable achievements did.

Senator Quay, following in the footsteps of the "Hon." Richard Croker, is permitted to set forth in the pages of the *North American Review* his views upon the subject: "The Man or the Platform; Personality or Principle—Which is More Potent in National Politics?" We have not read these "views," and we doubt very much if any intelligent person will care to peruse them, for the simple reason that every such person knows that Quay cares nothing for either Personality or Principle, Man or Platform, but believes in "boodle" as the only "potent" influence in national politics. If he were to write on that subject, were to tell what he knows from experience of the achievements of "boodle" in carrying elections, it would be worth while to pay him for the article and well worth everybody's while to read it when printed. If, for example, he were to write a truthful narrative, sustained by vouchers and other documents, of the uses to which he put the great corruption fund that Wanamaker raised for him in the closing days of the Harrison campaign of 1888, it would be a wise, economic, and public-spirited act for the *North American Review* to pay him for it the largest price ever given for a magazine article, for it would be an object-lesson in political morality the like of which this country had never beheld. On that phase of a national campaign he is an unquestioned authority, but on "Personality or Principle" he is as disgusting a spectacle as Satan in a pulpit.

The Massachusetts Republicans have adopted a resolution declaring "the right of every voter to cast his vote and have it honestly counted a fundamental principle of our Government"; and the Pennsylvania Republicans, after announcing their "belief in a free ballot and a fair count," affirmed that, "unless intelligent and patriotic sentiment accord these rights to the humblest citizen in every section of the country, it becomes the duty of the Federal Government to secure them by Congressional enactment under the authority conferred by the Constitution." This, of course, means endorsement of the Force Bill. But another announcement regarding that measure was made at the Capitol which is of much more importance. Senator Teller of Colorado, in his late speech on the silver question, said :

> "I have read that bill with care and attention more than twenty times. I have read it in the light of calm consideration. And I repeat now that if it were presented to me now, with the alternative of party support or party dismissal, I should not vote for the bill. A more infamous bill, in my judgment, never passed the threshold of the doors of the Senate. Avowedly in the interest of good government, it was instigated, in my judgment, by men whose interest it was to prevent a free expression of the will of the voters at the polls."

Mr. Teller's colleague, Mr. Wolcott, is equally outspoken against the Force Bill, and there are other Republican Senators whose votes can be counted upon against it. Whatever may be the result of the Presidential election, there is good reason to hope that the Force Bill can never get through Congress.

The action of the Indiana Democratic State Convention on Thursday shows how irresistible the Cleveland movement in the party has become. Indiana was supposed to have a "favorite son" in the person of ex-Gov. Gray, and the usual attempts were made to invoke in his behalf the spirit of "State pride," but it was all of no avail. The feeling among the people in favor of Cleveland was so overwhelming that the Convention adopted a resolution endorsing his Administration, insisting that the approaching campaign should be conducted on the issue of tariff reform as defined in his famous message, and declaring him upon this issue "the logical candidate of the Democratic party." The most that poor Gray's friends could extort from the Convention was an expression of "unalterable confidence in and attachment to" him, and an instruction to the delegation to use every honorable effort to secure his nomination in case the National Convention should deem the nomination of Cleveland inadvisable. As nobody longer expects the latter contingency, this is the same thing as bowing Gray one side; and the ex-Governor must be a man of very cheerful temperament to extract much satisfaction from his treatment at the hands of his fellow-citizens.

The ingratitude which Tom Platt is showing to President Harrison at the present time is the basest in the history of modern politics. He is openly jeering at him and is "fixing" a delegation from this State to the National Convention which will, if Platt so desires, throw its vote against Harrison. What his motive is, nobody knows, of course, but there are several plausible theories in explanation of his conduct floating about in political circles. One is, that Platt, like Quay, is "striking" Harrison for terms, serving notice on him that if he desires a renomination, he must pay the price which the party bosses demand for it. Another theory is, that while Harrison gave Platt all the patronage of New York State after his election, leaving poor Warner Miller prostrate and destitute "outside the breastworks," he refused Platt's chief demand, to wit, the Secretaryship of the Treasury, and that Platt has never forgiven him for this refusal, and is now "getting even." We give both theories for what they are worth, having no means of deciding between them. Both may be erroneous, but, whether this be so or not, there is no question as to the heartless ingratitude of Platt. It has no parallel save in Harrison's ingratitude towards Warner Miller.

Col. McClure of the Philadelphia *Times* made an interesting address at the annual meeting of the Civil-Service Reform Association of that city on Thursday evening. Among other things he referred to the extraordinary growth in the use of money in elections during the last thirty years. The report in the *Ledger* says:

> "He gave a history of the campaign of 1860, in which he was Chairman of the State Republican Executive Committee, when a great party had to be crystallized into being and the State carried in October in order to defeat the party in power and to insure the election of Abraham Lincoln in November. How much money, he asked, do you suppose was expended? The entire contribution for the campaign was $12,000, out of which $2,000 was paid for rent and $3,000 for printing, leaving but $7,000 with which to organize the victory that was won. No money was needed for other than honest purposes. Political debauchery was a thing unthought of. We were certainly a great party. To-day take any one of your political masters—he will require more money to elect a Councilman in a little ward. Men are invited to battle now solely for the spoils."

Discouraging as this contrast is, Col. McClure pointed out the hopeful aspect of the situation in the fact that civil-service reform has already passed the stage of ridicule, and that "any Administration, if it does not advance in this direction, dare take no step backward. We are very near to-day," he added, "to the point that no man can be dismissed from office for political reasons, and the time is coming when the leading candidates of both parties must declare in favor of civil-service reform."

The report as to the working of woman suffrage in the Kansas municipal elections this spring, just made by the President of the Equal Suffrage Association, indicates that there has been no falling off in interest on the part of the sex. This is the "off year" for such elections, as in many cities only a part of the officials are chosen, but in such cities the woman vote was as large as in the last corresponding year. In four places the woman vote exceeded the male, and in a number of the smaller towns—or "cities," as they call them out there—the women cast this year a larger vote than ever before. Women seem to be exerting more influence all the time in the matter of making nominations. It is more common for them to be invited to caucuses and primaries. In Newton they were the first to stir in regard to holding caucuses, and twice as many women were present as men. A number of women were elected to the school boards, and women are appointed very frequently as city clerks and city treasurers.

We have received a copy of the circular of H. R. De Milt & Co. of this city, for April, 1892, saying that they have in store and for sale the first American pig tin ever brought to this market. The first paragraph of the circular says that this pig tin "is now produced in this country in commercial quantity." A subsequent paragraph requests "that orders be limited to one or two pigs," on account of the smallness of the present supply. The rather superfluous remark is added that "the price is same as for the foreign." Of course people are not going to buy this tin in a commercial way at higher prices than the foreign. Probably many people who receive this circular will be led to believe that the Temescal tinmine in California has been brought to its present state of productiveness (whatever that may be) by a good stiff duty on pig tin. It should be remarked for the instruction of such that pig tin is now and has been for twenty years on the free list, and that there can be no duty on it before July 1, 1893. Whether there shall be any then will depend upon whether the present law remains in force until that time. If it does, there will be a duty of four cents per pound on pig tin for two years, which will inure to the benefit of the English company which owns the Temescal mine. At the end of the two years (*i. e.*, July 1, 1895), the President of the United States is to determine whether there has been produced within the United States more than "5,000 tons of cassiterite and bar, block, and pig tin" within a single year. If so, the duty is to remain in force. If not, the article goes back to the free list where it is now, and the English company ceases to get its bounty.

The financial situation of the Argentine Republic was the subject of a vigorous and able article in the first number of the *Investor's Review*, the new English quarterly under the editorship of Mr. A. J. Wilson. Written by him, the article in question maintained that the so-called "moratorium"—or suspension of interest for three years—was the worst possible way of dealing with the Argentine difficulty; it was a virtual admission on the part of the creditors, he argued, that Argentina was bankrupt, and could not even pay a reduced interest. Mr. Wilson thought that the Argentines would not need to be told twice that they were able to pay nothing, but would be found very ready in taking that view of the case at the end of their three years of grace. Moreover, he argued on the basis of the cold figures that the country would not be able to "fulfil its engagements under the *moratorio* compact and resume the complete service of the public debt in December, 1893." For the expression of this opinion Mr. Wilson is to be proceeded against legally by the Argentine Government, so it is stated, though it is not made clear exactly how. But if the Government is so eager to prove itself solvent at the cost of some incredulous writer, we should say it ought to try its hand upon the editor of the Buenos Ayres *Standard*. That paper, commenting upon the announcement of the suit against Mr. Wilson, said: "It is manifestly impossible for Argentina to set aside from December, 1893, an annual sum of $19,500,000 gold, since that would be 90 per cent. of the total revenue."

A curious phase of the Anarchistic activity in France has been the outbreak, in what appears to be a prearranged and systematic form, of disturbances in churches. These seem to have been particularly planned for any date when it was known that a sermon was to be preached on social questions. Large numbers of Anarchists or wanton disturbers of the peace would gather in the body of the church, and drown the preacher's voice by loud outcries, smash the chairs and chandeliers, and make the continuance of the service impossible. Beginning in the churches of Paris, these outrages quickly spread to the provinces, and took on peculiarly scandalous forms at Marseilles and Nancy. At Beauvais, a priest who was discoursing on the apparently harmless subject of Sunday rest, was compelled to break off because he had something to say about social order and obedience to the laws. The authorities long showed themselves strangely indifferent to these disorders. In some cases, no doubt, they thought that the populace were simply taking into their own hands that clause of the Penal Code which forbids a minister of any religion to criticise a law or decree of the Government; but another clause of the same code makes it a criminal offence to break up a religious service, or to foment disorder or utter threats in any church building. Latterly, however, this form of anarchy has been taken vigorously in hand by the police. Had it been allowed to go much further, the churches must have been closed.

THE SENATE AND THE ARIZONA FUNDING BILL.

THE debate and action of the Senate on the Arizona Funding Bill deserves rather more attention than has been given to it. In fact, there has hardly ever been a more painful exhibition of downright, unblushing demagogism in that body than was presented on this occasion. It should be known at the outset that the Arizona Funding Bill, gold clause and all, was passed by the last Congress without a dissenting vote in the Senate, and that the present bill was merely to change the period of the interest payments, making them semi-annual instead of annual. It is customary in this kind of legislation to take the Territorial law, preface it with a few words, saying that Congress approves and confirms the same, and then pass it. This was done with the Arizona Funding Law in 1890, the third section containing these words:

"Said bonds shall bear interest at a rate to be fixed by said Loan Commissioners, but in no case to exceed 5 per cent. per annum, *which interest shall be paid in gold coin*, or its equivalent in lawful money of the United States, on the 15th day of January in each year."

This measure was approved and confirmed by Congress, and became a law on the 25th of June, 1890, without any question being raised as to the kind of money that the interest was payable in. Hence, when Senator Stewart the other day expressed the fear that the "gold combination" or the "Gold Trust"—he used both phrases—would make use of this bill to show that the people of Arizona are opposed to silver, he expressed a quite needless fear. If the gold combination wish to avail themselves of this omen, they can find it ready to their hand on page 175, volume 26, of the Statutes of the United States. The present bill was, as has been said, merely to amend the section in which the foregoing words occur so as to make the interest payable semi-annually. Then the scramble began.

Senator Stewart said that he was willing to allow the people of Arizona to manage their own affairs in their own way (just as he manages his when he takes any bills receivable), but, when Senator Kyle of South Dakota offered an amendment changing the words "gold coin" to "lawful money," he (Stewart) went back on his word and voted for it. Senator Peffer was "opposed to changing the tenor and spirit of the laws of the United States at anybody's request, except at the request of the people themselves"—from which it might appear that he was opposed to changing the law which now stands on page 175, vol. 26, United States Statutes, except at the request of the people of Arizona. But what he meant was exactly the contrary of this. He meant that he was in favor of changing that law against the express desire of the people concerned.

Senator Palmer of Illinois expressed in a moderate way his opinion that the Kyle amendment was an attempt to meddle with other people's private affairs. If the people of Arizona wanted to borrow money in a certain way and on certain terms, they had a right to do so, and the presumption was that they knew their own business and could manage it better than anybody else could manage it for them. Senator Daniel (Democrat of the Old Dominion) could not agree to any such levelling doctrine as that. There had evidently been a speech on the silver question growing in his head, and the quiet remark of Palmer had the effect of the axe that clove the skull of Jupiter when Minerva was ready to be born. The speech sprang out without more ceremony. Here is a sample of it:

"Gentlemen sometimes say that gold is of a value which supports itself. It does not support itself. The gold bullion is always equal to the gold dollar, because the law will always turn it, at the expense of the whole people of the United States, into a gold dollar at any one's request."

This shows what a tremendous mistake the exporters of gold make when they ask for gold bars instead of coin. It shows, also, how the Senate erred in passing a law a year or two ago putting a premium on gold bars over gold coin at the Treasury.

Senator Pugh of Alabama backed up Mr. Daniel with some equally conclusive observations, saying among other things that 'we should not ratify a contract which shows on its face that it is contrary to the expressed public policy of the United States. You cannot legalize a contract that is against public policy." Here we might again ask whether anything is to be inferred as to the public policy of the United States on this question, from the law of June 25, 1890, already quoted, for which, presumably, Senator Pugh himself voted. We understand that a contract was made by the authorities of Arizona for the sale of $1,200,000 of these gold-interest bonds to one of the large life-insurance companies of this city before the vote was taken on this Kyle amendment. The contract, having been made under a valid existing law, will undoubtedly be held good by the courts, notwithstanding Mr. Pugh's notion that it is in conflict with public policy.

The simple fact that the laws of this country, as construed and affirmed repeatedly by the highest tribunal, authorize the making of contracts payable in gold coin, or in pig iron, or in anything the parties agree to, was not brought to the attention of the Senate, although none could have been ignorant of it. Legal-tender laws are important only where no particular mode or thing is specified in the contract. Then the law interprets the word dollar, necessarily. Now, was it not a shame that the Senate of the United States should deny to the Territory of Arizona a privilege which every citizen exercises, and which even a foreigner may exercise here under the protection of our laws and our courts—that of making a contract payable in gold? While this low-toned debate was going on, Senator Carey of Wyoming said that the Delegate of Arizona in the House had just told him that the bill would be of no use to his people if the Kyle amendment was adopted. Nevertheless it was adopted by 28 to 24, and the privilege of saving $75,000 per annum for twenty years was denied to Arizona in order that twenty-eight Senators might put on airs and pander to an ignorance which they secretly despise.

NEW ENGLAND'S DUMB VOTE.

THERE is no subject more fascinating or more important in its bearing on free institutions than the voting impulse of the citizen. To measure, if possible, its energies, to see how far it expresses itself at elections, how it shows itself in the returns of the votes, and what classes respond to it or do not respond, is, in a sense, to test the average of patriotism as we can test it in no other way. This fact gives a special meaning to the first census returns on "voting strength," which have just been sent out for New England. They cover a region which is not only one of the oldest and wealthiest, but in which the standards of public education are supposed to be highest, where civic duties, including the franchise, have been most sedulously inculcated, and where, at the same time, the problem of assimilating native and foreigner has been, perhaps, most complex. There, as in no other part of the United States, the purest American stock has had to meet the onset of immigration under peculiar civic and economic conditions which make the "suffrage test," in most of its phases, extremely significant, especially now, after most of the old New England restrictions on the suffrage have been abolished.

Taking simply the face of the census returns for males of voting age, we get some vivid contrasts when we compare them with the highest recorded votes at elections in the New England States. Maine returns 201,241 male residents of voting age. Her highest vote—at the State election of 1888—was 144,087, or a little less than three-quarters of her male population of voting age. The corresponding figures for New Hampshire are 118,135 and 90,819; for Vermont, 101,697 and 65,153; for Massachusetts, 665,009 and 344,448; for Rhode Island, 100,017 and 54,746; and for Connecticut, 224,092 and 153,978. The figures for all New England are for males of voting age 1,410,191, as compared with what we find to be the highest recorded vote at elections of 853,231. That is to say, the most fiercely contested elections in New England have thus far succeeded in bringing out only about eight actual votes from fourteen persons of voting age, qualified and disqualified. To put the case differently, about six potential or actual voters out of each fourteen form in practice no part of the voting constituency of New England, and either have or take no share in shaping the control of nation, State, or minor civil divisions. Were we to take ordinary instead

of the highest election returns, the showing would be much worse.

But let us allow for certain disqualifications, so as to find, if possible, the real number of electors in New England, including those who can be made electors, but refuse the franchise. The actual disqualification for crime, pauperism, and insanity is so small that it may be ignored. An important factor, however, must be subtracted to represent foreign-born males over twenty-one who have not yet been in New England long enough to be naturalized. They can be ascertained approximately by finding the proportion of adult male immigrants coming in during the five years from 1885 to 1890, as derived from the Federal immigration tables. In regard to another factor, the number disqualified by Connecticut's "reading test" for new voters probably does not exceed 2 per cent., so commonly is the law hocus-pocussed by the local boards before whom the new voters are made. As to Massachusetts, where reading the English language and writing the name of the applicant are prescribed as tests of would-be voters, the number of about 50,000 which we derive as an estimate based on the census tables of 1880 for illiteracy is a very liberal allowance for the disqualifying force of the provision. Making all these corrections, we are able to construct the following table, in which, under the term "eligible to vote," are included foreigners who refuse naturalization, the figures of the table, except those for percentage, representing thousands:

	Eligible to vote.	Highest vote.	Not voting.	Per cent. not voting.
Maine	197	144	53	27
New Hampshire	112	91	21	19
Vermont	100	65	35	35
Massachusetts	568	344	224	39
Rhode Island	93	55	38	41
Connecticut	211	154	57	27
New England	1,281	853	428	33

The proportions indicate that, out of the whole number of men in New England who are voters already or who can become voters if they wish, almost exactly one-third do not seek the ballot. They avail themselves of civic protection and public conveniences without accepting the civic responsibilities of the franchise. Politically speaking, one-third are thus "carried" by the other two-thirds. The only legitimate subtraction to be made from the impressive figures is the votes of men whom at each election sickness or other imperative necessity keeps from the polls—not a very large number if the voting obligation is strictly regarded. In the case of New England it may also be stated that the obstinacy with which large numbers of the factory class of British immigrants and of French Canadians have clung to their old nationality doubtless emphasizes the showing without at all impairing its political significance.

Some of the details of the table are worth examining. Connecticut naturalizes more of her adult foreign-born males than any other New England State, namely, 49.39 per cent. Yet her largest vote (in 1888) of 153,978 fell about 57,000 short of her full possible vote, and her registration in 1890 of 163,746 falls about 47,254 short of it. The latter number apparently refuse even to be made voters in Connecticut. The traditional "dumb" vote of Massachusetts appears in her 224,000 and 39 per cent. of non-voters, even after her educational qualification is allowed for liberally. New Hampshire has long been famous for the large proportion which her vote bears to her whole population, rising in one year (1888) to a ratio of almost one to four; yet even she has a "dumb" vote of 19 per cent., while Rhode Island at the recent election, when both parties put forth their utmost efforts, fell 41 per cent. below the number which apparently might have been put on her voting lists. How largely the dumb vote is made up in New England of foreign elements is to be shown by figures partly derived from the census, indicating that in Maine there are 11,208 immigrants who refuse to be naturalized after being five years in the country; in New Hampshire, 7,249; in Vermont, 7,434; in Massachusetts, 71,032, not excluding, however, those disqualified by the educational test; in Rhode Island, 12,824; and in Connecticut, not allowing for the farcical "reading" test, 27,819. In all New England there are about 127,566 adult foreign-born males who refuse naturalization and the assumption of the duties of citizenship. A curious commentary are these numbers, as well as the magnitude of the dumb electorate, on the ability of party machinery to "get out the vote" even when that machinery is worked with its highest vigor.

How far is this "dumb" vote of New England made up of the wealthy and educated class of "pure" natives, who have the greatest interests to be protected by the franchise, yet flout it? The question manifestly cannot be answered accurately by figures. Yet the New England politicians, the Republican politicians especially, tell us ever and again of the increasing difficulty with which they get out the "gilt-edged" vote, and of its growing indifference to the ballot. On that ground, too, coupled with "Mugwump" defection, the same politicians try to palliate "boodle" campaigns and their appeals to the prejudices of the immigrants. It is a point on which our figures cannot throw clear light, but as to which they have very sinister and discomforting suggestion.

THE EUROPEAN EXPLOSIONS.

THE French and Spaniards are busy dealing with what is probably the most difficult police problem that has ever been presented to civilized communities. The explosion of dynamite bombs continues in both countries in spite of all the efforts of the police, and is in France apparently demoralizing the officers of justice. It is said that the judges, even, are making all sorts of excuses to avoid sitting at the trial of Ravachol, and landlords are getting chary of renting apartments to officials connected with the administration of justice. It appears, too, that the difficulties of detection are very great, owing to the ease with which explosives of extraordinary power are now made, the smallness of explosive packages compared with their destructiveness, and the facility with which the criminals get away by using clockwork or slow-matches. The Spanish Cortes has had a narrow escape from much more complete destruction than that with which Guy Fawkes threatened James I. and his Parliament, and, according to the latest revelations, the assassination of the little King was part of the same conspiracy. In England a dynamite conspiracy, for the general destruction of property, has also been discovered, and the chief members have been sent to the penitentiary for long terms; but it is not likely that this particular kind of criminal will give much trouble in that country. General hatred of the social organization is very rare in any of the British Isles. Discontent, both in Ireland and England, has often found expression in murder, or in the destruction of property, but it has always been as an expression of hostility to a particular class on account of a particular grievance—in Ireland, high rents, "land-grabbing," or some sort of landlord oppression; in England, labor troubles with farmers or manufacturers.

The Continental dynamiters are, on the other hand, either common criminals who work mischief for mischief's sake or to provide opportunities for robbery, or else people who are hostile to the whole social organization—Anarchists, as they call themselves—that is, people who are opposed to all government, to property, and to marriage, and want a general dissolution of the social bond, in the belief that if there were plenty of good things lying about without owners, they would get a larger share than they have now. These, of course, form a comparatively small body in any country, but the bombs afford them means of terrorizing the community so effective as to make up for the smallness of their numbers. They are likely to give a great deal of trouble, and to be pursued with increasing ferocity, but it will probably be a long while before they are completely extirpated. They have got hold of a weapon which bears about the same relation to the old assassin's dagger or pistol as a magazine rifle to a bow and arrows, and their complete suppression will task the ingenuity of modern police to the uttermost.

Who is responsible for their existence? or are they simply an embodiment of natural depravity? Well, of course, nobody is completely to blame for them, but it is

quite safe to say that the growth of anarchical doctrines in classes not actually criminal—that is, not driven into crime by laziness or greed—has been greatly stimulated by the preaching of the modern school of philanthropists, who hold "Society" responsible for every individual's poverty and vice and crime. The extent to which this has been done during the last twenty-five years by a certain class of clergymen and philanthropists would astonish the world if their sermons, addresses, articles, and manifestoes could be got together. It is not many years since a Boston philanthropist made a speech to the young criminals on Deer Island, in which he completely absolved them from all responsibility for their offences, and took it on himself and other decent people who had not fallen into the hands of the police. It was "Society," he said, which had got them into trouble, and he was himself, consequently, almost ashamed to look them in the face. Instead of their having to ask pardon of the State, it was the State that should ask pardon of them. This view, with a little mixture of the automaton theory of certain physiologists, which makes man a self-acting machine, has spread all over the Continent, and is acting on the poor like subtle poison on the human body. That it is largely responsible for the present Anarchist attacks on property and order, we have very little doubt. The Anarchists cannot go wrong in their work of destruction, because everything that society considers valuable has been obtained by cheating, and why should they wish to build up another social organization when the present one has turned out so badly?

If the present crisis does anything towards bringing the clerical philanthropists and the humanitarian economists to their senses, and brings home to them the tremendous force with which their attacks on individual responsibility act on the ignorant, the half-taught, the unsuccessful, and the vicious, it will do a world of good, even if it cost us a great many bridges and public buildings. To go much further with the doctrine that all unsuccessful and poor people are entitled to treat their condition as the fault of our civilization, is to put our civilization in peril. This civilization may be, and doubtless is, very faulty, but, like the human race, it is the only one we have got, and it has taken 5,000 years to build it up. Nobody has any other ready to put in its place, and the supply of skins of wild animals for clothing is short and grows shorter.

PROFESSOR FROUDE.

THE appointment of Mr. Froude as the successor of Mr. Freeman in the Chair of History at Oxford has roused indignation in England which is by no means confined to the Liberals and the Irish. The literary adherents of Lord Salisbury are nearly as much perturbed by it as the fiercest of the Gladstonians, for there seems to be little doubt that it has, what an appointment to a professorship in a great university ought not to have, a political significance. Moreover, it has, to Mr. Freeman's friends, the air of a slight to that distinguished historian's memory, for, as everybody knows, he had for fully twenty years pursued Mr. Froude like a sleuth-hound, and made the exposure of his inaccuracies part of his weekly work in the *Saturday Review* and elsewhere.

This professional loathing for Froude is, it is well known, shared by Bishop Stubbs and indeed the whole of the new school of history, although none of them was willing to express it with as much freedom as Mr. Freeman. For what this new school puts high above other qualifications for writing history is not only thorough familiarity with the original authorities, but absolute adherence to them in the text, to the exclusion of picture-writing or rhetorical embellishment. Mr. Froude, on the other hand, they maintained, made the authorities merely what the musicians call a "motive" on which to base a limitless amount of melodious prose, in which the citations were apt to be inaccurate and the gaps to be supplied by the imagination. Mr. Froude, too, has, since he stopped writing history, furnished corroboration to his enemies among the historians by inaccuracy carried to the point of drollery in his books of travel. It is true that no man is ever hunted very long without having his defects grow in number and in gravity in the eyes of his pursuers, and Mr. Froude did not escape this fate. He became years ago, in the mind of Mr. Freeman and Mr. Goldwin Smith, not only wanting in veracity, but constitutionally incapable of telling the truth; and Mr. Freeman went down to the grave entertaining this opinion of him. This was no doubt exaggerated and unjust, but Mr. Freeman was able to make a show of reason for it.

To appoint, under these circumstances, to Mr. Freeman's vacant chair Mr. Froude, whom Freeman would have pronounced the least fit for the place of all living historians, looks like an expression of contempt for Freeman which his friends bitterly resent; and among his friends in England are all the eminent writers of history. What makes the matter worse is that Mr. Gardiner, the really great historian of the Civil War and the Commonwealth, has been passed over, to say nothing of Bryce, a still younger man, who has shown himself by his 'Holy Roman Empire,' as well as by monographs, no unworthy successor, in his own University, of any of those who have filled the chair. The appointment, too, recalls that of Kingsley, who was a deplorable failure, and scandalized the scholars by serving out gorgeous pictures of ancient and mediæval life, in lieu of the rigid exploration and dry scientific reports which are now expected from everybody who undertakes to extract instruction from the past for the benefit of his contemporaries. His professorial career was used by a distinguished wit, now deceased, of another University to give point to a sarcasm directed against Kingsley's successor, whose inaugural lecture the wit attended. After listening some time, he observed to his neighbor, "Well, well, who would have thought we should be lamenting poor dear Kingsley so soon!"—two very successful shots with both barrels.

When people ask why the appointment of Mr. Froude was made in this somewhat offensive fashion, the answer which, whether true or false, comes most readily is that Freeman was a Liberal and Home-Ruler, and so are Gardiner and Bryce, while Froude is a good old-fashioned "give-him-a-dozen" Tory; but these are reasons of which literary men—and *a fortiori* scientific men—are a little ashamed. Their inadequacy is increased by the fact that Mr. Froude is over seventy, which ought to be an absolute disqualification for the place of teacher for any man whose life has not been devoted to teaching. He cannot, in the order of nature, hold the post very long, and it seems a pity that the closing years of his career should be disturbed by the acrid revival of all the old charges against his integrity as an historian brought by Freeman and others, which if collected would make a very stout volume. A worse introduction to the young men who are to sit under him, and presumably are to profit by him, could hardly be imagined. The enemy's artillery, too, is now opening on his English, which for a whole generation has constituted his glory in the eyes of the "general reader." The last London *Speaker* contains a three-column attack on a page taken at random from his 'History of England,' which is most destructive, and makes it surprising that Freeman did not employ a grammarian to hang on his flank while he assailed him in front.

AN ENGLISH GLACIAL MYTH.

OBERLIN, April 15, 1892.

THAT there are myths in modern science as well as in ancient history has recently been brought to light by some interesting glacial investigations in Great Britain. Briefly stated, the facts are as follows: At Moel Tryfaen, on the northwestern flanks of Mount Snowdon, in Wales, and on the western slope of the Pennine chain, a little south of Manchester, there occur extensive glacial deposits at all elevations up to 2,000 feet in height. At an elevation of 1,100 feet upon the Pennine chain, and of 1,400 feet at Moel Tryfaen, there occur thin laminæ of water-washed gravel containing numerous shells consisting largely of subarctic species. These beds early attracted the attention of English scientific men, and down to the present time have been objects of unfailing interest. They have been examined and written upon by no less eminent authorities than Mr. Edwin Forbes, Mr. Trimmer, Mr. Darwin, Sir Charles Lyell, and Profs. Ramsay and Prestwich.

When attention was first directed to these shell-beds, it was prevalently believed that all of what we now recognize as glacial deposits took place beneath the water, and

that icebergs were the principal agents in the transportation of boulders and in the striation of rocky surfaces. With this theory in possession of the field, the occurrence in glacial deposits of shell-beds containing arctic and subarctic species created no surprise, and their submarine origin was unquestioned. But when the views of the Swiss glacialists came to prevail, which attributed to land ice the transportation of boulders, the striation of rocks, and the deposition of boulder clay, these shell-beds came to be objects of increasing curiosity. That they were water deposits could not be questioned; that the shells had originally flourished in salt water was equally evident. It seemed, therefore, a most natural conclusion that, at the time of their deposition, the level of the ocean relatively to that of the land was from 1,400 to 2,000 feet higher than it is now.

It is largely upon these facts that there has arisen the theory of two glacial epochs in England, with an interglacial period, during which the central and northern parts of the British Isles were submerged to a depth of 2,000 feet or upwards. Indeed, so clear has seemed to be the evidence upon this point that this theory has passed unquestioned into nearly all the text-books and treatises which have appeared upon the subject during the last twenty-five years. But in view of recent investigations it now seems clear that this explanation of the shell-beds is altogether erroneous, having arisen from the mistake, so often made in inductive reasoning, of resting too implicitly upon conclusions drawn from an imperfect collection of facts.

While conducting, with the late Prof. Henry Carvill Lewis of Philadelphia, the survey of the glacial boundary in Pennsylvania in 1880, the new conceptions of glacial phenomena forced upon us by the facts there brought to light led us to discuss the importance of having the same work done in Great Britain which we were then beginning to do in the United States. In accordance with plans then laid, Prof. Lewis devoted two subsequent summers to the field work necessary to ascertain the exact limits of the glaciated area in the British Isles. The partial results of his observations were published in papers read before the British Association in 1886 and 1887; but his untimely death, which took place soon after, prevented the publication of his matured conclusions, and left nothing but a great mass of field notes which still remain unpublished. A large number of English geologists, however, became acquainted with the results, and have been prosecuting with great energy the lines of inquiry which he opened. One of the most important of his inferences relates to the origin of the shell-beds under consideration, though it must be said the conclusions to which he came had been dimly foreshadowed by two or three English observers, among whom was Mr. Clement Reid of the Geological Survey. Under the guidance of various geologists who had become familiar with Prof. Lewis's views, I was permitted last summer to visit the typical places for testing his theory. What I then saw, especially when taken in connection with the publication of recent papers upon the subject by Prof. Percy F. Kendall, the Rev. Dr. H. W. Crosskey (the worthy pastoral successor of Dr. Priestley, in Birmingham), and of Mr. Clement Reid, enables me to endorse with great confidence Prof. Lewis's explanation of the origin of these shell-beds—an explanation which really revolutionizes the prevalent views concerning an interglacial period in England.

Prof. Lewis's theory was, that the shells occurring in these interglacial laminæ of gravel were carried up to the height found upon the Welsh mountains and the Pennine chain by the movement of land ice which had come down into the Irish Sea from the southwestern portion of Scotland, from the Lake District in England, and from the northeastern part of Ireland, and which had filled the Irish Sea, and in its movement had pushed up portions of its bed, and left them as deposits over the land surface of England and Wales as far as the southern and southeastern movement of the Irish Sea Glacier had reached. This theory, which would at first seem so incredible as to be almost unworthy of notice, is now supported by a variety of evidence which seems to place it upon an unassailable foundation.

In the first place, the unstratified glacial deposits in the vicinity of these high-level shell-beds are full of fragments of shells, of the same character with those in the laminæ of gravel, mixed in with the boulder clay as the ordinary pebbles are which have undoubtedly been transported by glacial ice; while observations of Mr. Lamplugh upon the east coast of England, and of Mr. Upham on the glacial deposits about Boston Harbor, show that beyond doubt shells have been pushed up from the sea-bottom to a height of a hundred or more feet without suffering serious injury. The glacialist is fortunate, also, in having in ice a material which can turn itself into water at any height, and produce the limited amount of stratification necessary to sort out the gravel and shells included in a general glacial deposit. Hence the theory starts with a true cause, and is by no means incredible.

The confirmatory evidence is also of the most interesting and satisfactory character. Accurate observations have established the fact all over England that the shells found in glacial deposits considerably above sea-level are limited to areas which are shown by the transportation of boulders to have been covered by glacial ice that moved over sea-bottoms. For example, in the northwest of England and Wales, wherever high-level shell-beds have been reported, it has been found perfectly safe to prophesy that in the near vicinity there would occur boulders from the Lake District of England and from the southwest of Scotland, whose route to their destination lay over the Irish Sea; while in the areas beyond the reach of such boulders, shell-beds of this character are looked for in vain. The same is true upon the east coast of England, which was invaded by Norwegian ice. The shell-beds in glacial deposits much above sea-level are limited to the area which was covered by Scandinavian ice that had moved across the North Sea.

Again, close attention to the character of the shells found associated in these glacial deposits shows that they did not grow under similar conditions, for the species are as various as those which represent cold-water forms and warm-water forms, together with rock-haunting and sand or mud-loving varieties. In the same beds also late Tertiary species, whose nearest allies are now found in the Mediterranean Sea, occur side by side with arctic species, and Mr. Clement Reid has recently reported that near Oswestry, in Wales, delicate Lias fossils have certainly been transported without serious injury and raised to a considerable distance by the glacial movement that passed over the region. Moreover, now that the limits of the glaciated area of Great Britain are definitely known, there is abundant evidence that there has been no recent deep submergence of the extensive unglaciated areas existing in the central and southern parts of England. If the shell-beds under question had been deposited during a general submergence, there would have been some signs of the submergence upon the east side of the Pennine chain as well as upon the west side. Sea-beaches and water-worn caverns and shell-deposits such as invariably characterize a sea-bottom would occur over the broad area in the centre of England extending all the way from Leeds to Oxford. The absence of such marks of geologically recent submergence is indubitable evidence that it did not occur.

Briefly stated, the glacial history of the British Isles is as follows: In the early stages of the period, the glaciers which began to form upon the Welsh mountains pushed southward to the Bristol Channel and eastward to the valley of the Severn, where in the northern part they reached as far as Birmingham. Over this area there are no shell-beds. Meanwhile the great Scandinavian glacier crept over the North Sea until it met a limited easterly movement of ice coming down from Scotland and the north of England. The prevalence of the Scandinavian ice is first indicated at Flamborough Head, east of York, by Norwegian boulders which are found more or less over all that portion of England lying east of a line drawn from Flamborough Head to London. Meanwhile, also, the Irish Sea was filling up with the ice which moved off from the southwest of Scotland, the Lake District of England, and the eastern coast of Ireland. Eventually this great confluent glacier reached the Welsh mountains and divided, one portion passing westward over Anglesey and along the channel of the Irish Sea, and the other portion down the Vale of Chester to the upper part of the Severn Valley, near Birmingham. The shell-beds are limited to these areas.

Evidently, therefore, the ice-movement in Great Britain was a unity, accompanied only with those minor episodes and those complicated results of deposition which would naturally be connected with the advance and retreat of so peculiar and complex a substance as glacial ice is known to be. The theory of an interglacial submergence will hereafter disappear from geological text-books, and the cautious note of Sir Archibald Geikie's volume, written five years ago, in which he acknowledges that Prof. Lewis's theory is worthy of consideration, will find its place in the body of the treatise to describe a well-established fact. G. Frederick Wright.

ART TREASURES IN JAPAN.

Tokio, March 1, 1892.

When Justinian's codifiers wrote

"Nullius autem sunt res sacræ,"

it doubtless served as a satisfactory solution of a then not very difficult question. Where art appears only as the handmaid of religion, the title of the deity to the ownership of temple treasures conflicts with no other claim, and fulfils completely the purposes of the votaries who present as well as the priests who guard the pious offerings. The Japanese solution was that of the Romans. To the Buddha were given and to the Buddha belonged the masterpieces of painting and of bronze which have accumulated in the thousands of temples during a thousand of years. But times change; art and religion separate. Posterity accepts

the inheritance of the past, but accords to it a different reverence, and the nation competes with the shrine for the possession of the treasures. It has now become in Japan an interesting question whether the Government is justified in transferring them from the temples to the museums. The question would be a less difficult one if the interests of religion or any other high interests were served by keeping the property as it is. But so many dangers threaten it under present circumstances, so important are the artistic interests involved, and so selfish and undeserving are the aims of the custodian priests, that expediency and justice give but one answer. On the one hand, then, the public good clearly authorizes the assumption of control by the Government. On the other hand, however, remain the technical difficulty of finding a legal right to take control, and the practical one of avoiding the creation of a popular opposition at a time when the Government, for its own sake, must furnish as few causes of offence as possible. My purpose in this letter is to give briefly some account of the measures that have been taken for preserving the temple treasures of Japan, and of the conditions attending the work.

I must mention at the beginning, and often, a name which would by this time have become more familiar to the reading public had it not been for the modesty of its bearer. From the time when Mr. Fenollosa came from Boston, in 1878, to take the professorship of Philosophy at the Imperial University, until he left Japan, in 1890, to accept a curatorship at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, the story of the revival of Japanese art is the history of his efforts, ably assisted by Mr. Okakura (now director of the Art School), Mr. Hamao (in the Department of Education), and a few enthusiastic disciples. In 1878 the rage for things foreign had almost reached its height. On one side stood a set of radical young men, who had been educated abroad, the most extreme of them committed to the adoption of anything and everything foreign, privately declaring that the Japanese were an inferior race, and utterly opposed to native Japanese art. The opposite party was even less to be looked to for sympathy: a group of old-fashioned conservatives, worshippers of Chinese traditions, obsequious adherents of unprogressive formalism, and deeply jealous of the influence of the foreigner. Of a true and intelligent appreciation of the place of Japanese art in world-art, or of the possibilities of inherited methods or of improved technique, there was little trace. The cultivation of such a taste and understanding was the work to be accomplished.

But the foundation of all efforts in this direction was the study of the art-inheritance received from Old Japan, and the collection and preservation of the country's treasures now became the immediate and practical duty of the little band of enthusiasts who had gathered around Mr. Fenollosa. From 1880 until the great search-expedition of 1888, under the direction of Mr. Kuki, some six trips were made into the interior by Mr. Fenollosa, Mr. Okakura, and a few others, either alone or together, for the purpose of cataloguing the paintings, carvings, bronzes, and other objects of value in the myriads of temples. In 1879 the Government had caused a preliminary and partial record of these treasures to be made, but it was quite insufficient for the purpose. Apart from the meagreness of the territory covered, the word of the priests had been taken as to the existence and character of the articles, and numbers had not been reported at all, while the record was so general in terms ("A Buddha," for instance, was regarded as a sufficient designation of a painting) that substitution of worthless pictures was often practi ed, and identification at the annual inspections was impossible. The amendment of such defects and the completion of the catalogues was the object of the subsequent expeditions. The zeal and system with which the work was now prosecuted brought great results. In 1886 the districts around Nara and Kioto were well covered. In 1888, immediately after the return of the Art Commission (Messrs. Fenollosa, Okakura, and Hamao) from Europe, the remainder of the central region, known as the Gokinai (Home Provinces), was practically finished.

By this time official interest in the undertaking, under Count Ito's enlightened patronage, had been thoroughly awakened, and the company included representatives of the imperial household and of various Government departments, as well as numerous experts and reporters. Photographs were carefully taken; every object of art was inspected, classified (in one of six grades), measured, stamped, and inscribed in an official register. Even manuscripts were registered, where they seemed of value. Among the notable results was the discovery of important Chinese paintings from the sixth to the ninth centuries, and the first attempted construction of the history of Japanese art for the same period. But by this time also the various obstructive influences had gathered force. In the first place, age and neglect had told with increasing effect on many of the temples. The decay of the abandoned buildings had proceeded apace, and much of value had been lost. But chiefly the effects were felt of the outside demand for the very treasures sought by the Government. The rapacity of the collectors combined with the poverty of the priests to deprive the nation of some of the finest works of art. Even since the preceding inspection of 1886, numbers of articles had been made away with. In many cases it was a race between the dealers and the Commission to see who should become the possessors of some well-known masterpiece, and a day or two sometimes decided the destination of the prize. Earlier in the same year, and just before the visit of the Commission, the great monastery of Koyasan, containing scores of paintings, had been burned to the ground; and it was a matter of common belief that the valuables had first been abstracted, and the building then burnt to destroy the traces of the plundering. Nor was this an isolated instance of resort to such expedients.

The sources of this demand were many. The agitation in favor of an adapted Japanese art had called general attention to the importance of these treasures, and the revival of national feeling, which began to show itself about 1887, had helped to swell the general interest. The chief factors in creating the demand seem to have been the art-loving members of the aristocracy, who were anxious to secure the masterpieces for their own collections; the rich merchants having similar ambitions; the conservatives who desired to save the classic relics from desecration; and the brokers who catered for the foreign market. The tactics resorted to were many and devious. By previous collusion with the priests, a process of substitution became the commonest means of achieving their ends. Where every movement of the Commission was made publicly, and with official deliberateness, there was abundant opportunity to thwart its plans.

In the meantime the new departure had been showing visible results in the domain of original art-work. In 1880 Prof. Fenollosa began a series of private lectures, having for their object the awakening of the Japanese people to a practical knowledge of the importance of their art to themselves and to the world, and of the conditions of its revival. In 1884 an association called the *Kangakwai* was founded by him for the encouragement of the work of the new school, and its first exhibition, in the spring of 1886, was an unqualified success. In spite of temporary opposition, both from without and from within the Government, this school soon came to represent the dominant influence, and the present School of Fine Arts is conducted upon the methods elaborated by Mr. Fenollosa, and faithfully continued by Mr. Okakura, upon whom his mantle has fallen.

These results have been referred to merely to indicate the success that has attended the work of the little group of enthusiasts, and the larger influence now at their command. They are ready now to utilize with the greatest profit their opportunities for the study of classic models, and to prosecute with their more extensive power the work of preserving the relics of antiquity. Since Mr. Fenollosa's departure, in 1890, several other provinces have been visited, and the cataloguing proceeds without cessation. Some 1,500 photographs in all have been taken. The superstition of the temple-custodians has required of the officials in many cases a pledge that the sanctity of the deity's possessions shall not be violated by the publication of the photographs. But before long a preliminary sketch of the history of Japanese painting, based on a study of the canvases themselves, may be expected from the press, and some 100 of the photographs will accompany it.

But the problem of property is yet unsettled. Just what could be done by the Government if it were disposed to remove certain of the masterpieces to local or national museums, is the question which the friends of art are debating. It is obvious that there are in Japan's case certain special difficulties which have not been so noticeable in the kindred undertakings of European Governments. The treasures of classic art in Japan are not abandoned monuments of architecture or buried sculptures, sacred only to the memory of antiquity. They are objects of living interest to vast numbers of human beings, votive offerings to deities who still receive at least a conventional veneration from the people, even if they no longer command the devotion which prompted such offerings. The Government has to deal not merely with the greed of speculators, but with the beliefs of a nation. Besides this, the political situation is at this moment such that the Government cannot afford, however earnest its disposition to aid the cause of art, to seek by new legislation to cut the Gordian knot. There are pegs enough on which the Opposition may hang its arguments, and it has become expedient to avoid giving it any further opportunities to hold up the present Government as the subverter of popular rights.

In these circumstances the chief reliance of those who have in charge the interests of art must be upon precedent and acknowledged legal rules, so far as they may be found to give any support. It will be apparent that for this purpose three sets of facts in particular will be of importance. One is the source of the temple donations and the traditional notions as to the effect of the gift. Another is the customs defining the relation of the parishioners to the treasures. A third is the precedents indicating the extent of control exercised by the Tokugawa Government over temple property. As

to the first, there is much interesting learning. No one who is familiar with the feudal history of Europe will fail, in studying Japanese history, to observe that similar conditions prevailed. The temples waxed great in the middle ages with the possessions that were showered upon them. Down to the latest times there were definite customs as to *kifuchi*, or endowed lands. The portable treasures, as well as the lands, they owed chiefly to the benefactions of Emperors, daimio, samurai, and even commoners, wishing to obtain happiness in the other world. Now it appears in some regions that endowed lands could be taken back if ever the family of the donor fell into want; and the possibility of a lapse of the gift being thus established, it remains to investigate the whole subject and to learn clearly what other conditions, if any, were recognized as affecting the permanence of the temple-custodianship. We know, for instance, that the Tokugawa Government not infrequently forfeited a work of art for some fault on the part of its custodians, and that more rarely the delivery of some valuable—a gift in name, but not in fact—was required for the adornment of the Shogun's palace.

Turning next to the third topic, the measure of control exercised by the Government, we note that it was, as might be expected, by no means a restricted one. The Tokugawa family, conservative enough in every matter of vested rights, was not in the habit of holding its hand whenever the public interest was in any way concerned. "The Temple-Magistrate," said Iyeyasu, the great Consolidator, in his Eighteen Laws (of 1615), "shall according to old custom superintend all Buddhist and Shinto temples." A rule existed under which an annual inspection of certain important temples and a registration of their possessions was made by the Shogun's commissioners; and though doubtless the opportunity to keep a watchful eye upon the state of the forces of powerful daimios and the appearance of their fortifications influenced the perpetuation of the practice, it becomes in the present connection a precedent of much significance. The inclination of the priests to dispose of the treasures for their own gain was doubtless as strong then as now, for we find in 1738 a proclamation "As to the Pawning of Temple Effects":

"Of late it has frequently happened that the images, votive offerings, utensils, and other effects of temples have been freely pawned or sold to raise money. This is wrong. Hereafter not only those who obtain such loans, but also their sureties, shall on conviction be punished. The creditor, too, is a partaker in the wrong, and shall recover nothing."

All these signs make it worth while to follow up the subject carefully and see how far the present Government may go while keeping within the track of its predecessor. The rule already established by it is, to be sure, less strict than that of the above proclamation. About 1878 a regulation was made, dividing temple property into two classes, common and special. The former may (as a rule) be sold only with the written consent of the priest and all the parishioners. The latter embraces the *hōmotsu*, or valuables—relics, censers, paintings, etc.—and may be sold under the same formalities, but only when it is absolutely necessary in order to preserve the existence of the shrine. We are here introduced to the parishioners, who are to-day, in fact, becoming the most important element in the problem. The *danka*, or parishioners, of the local temple or temples are one of the interesting features of village life in Old Japan. No one would expect to find the English vestry and church wardens in the communities of Buddhist worshippers in feudal days under the Tokugawas; but there they were, or something very like them. To describe just the extent of their interest in the temple property and their share in its custody would be a long story, and in fact an impossible one, in the present state of our knowledge of Japanese institutions. But if the religious belief of the rustics inspires in them a traditional regard for the painted Shaka or Amida, equally with the tooth of the saint or the claw of the *tengu* hobgoblin, they are none the less moved by material needs and mercenary desires, and they would often dispose of the treasures, if they could, for money to pay the town taxes or some of the other burdens of the hard-working farmers. It is this claim of the parishioners or the villagers to dispose of the valuables which is at present of most importance. So far as concerns the right of disposition for personal profit, the Government has settled the question in accordance with propriety and with precedent by forbidding the sale, except under the circumstances above mentioned. But the right of the Government to withdraw the treasures to local or national museums is still an open question; and some solution of it which shall be legal and at the same time fair to all parties and conducive to the best interests of art and of patriotism, is the desideratum of to-day. J. H. W.

Correspondence.

DRED SCOTT AND HIS BACKERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Can you or any of your readers tell me who "put up" the Dred Scott case—that is, backed him in suing, paid the fees, and used him for a dummy to get an important political decision? Of course he had neither power nor money himself, and would have been promptly knocked in the head if it had not suited somebody to let him go forward. Who originated the case? I know the counsel gave their services gratuitously, but that cannot have covered all expense, and does not account for his having permission and stimulation to carry on this long contest. He was a stalking-horse for some set of men. Who? This question has long been one of great curiosity to me, and I have never seen any allusion to it in the enormous literature of the case. Probably it is not determinable; if it is, others of your readers will thank me for bringing it up. I suppose it was of Southern origin, to bring out a foregone decision. F. M.

April 21, 1892.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH LITERATURE AND LANGUAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I notice in the *Nation* of April 21 the challenge of Mr. Brander Matthews to name a university with "two full and independent professorships, one of English language and one of English literature."

But why is the challenge put in this particular form? There was no mention of full professorships in the original article, and in any case Mr. Brander Matthews is not taking refuge behind mere names. The point at issue is, to quote his letter, "that the teaching of English language and of English literature are equally important and wholly unrelated to each other." It was while urging the complete separation of the two that the statement I quoted in my former letter was made, including the clause, "perhaps Columbia College has shown the fullest understanding of the exigencies of the situation."

Now I have not the slightest desire to say anything against Columbia, and I purposely refrained from mentioning Harvard, Yale, and Princeton, because Mr. Brander Matthews had already, somewhat dangerously, made the comparison with those institutions. I merely gave the facts in regard to three universities in which the teaching of English language and literature is completely separated, and in which equal importance is given to each. Whether the two associate professorships at Johns Hopkins are finally to be made full professorships probably rests with the trustees of that institution, but they have certainly thus far recognized the equal importance of the two lines of work. So if Michigan University separates English literature, English philology, and rhetoric, it matters not to the discussion whether this is done by means of three full professorships, or through the agency of three competent men with other titles. The facts at Cornell are also exactly as I stated them, notwithstanding the charge of lack of candor. English literature stands wholly by itself, under the charge of a full professor. English philology is entirely separate from the literature, under a full professor whose title is Rhetoric and English Philology. Certainly it might be claimed that rhetoric belongs to the study of language rather than to literature; but there is no need to make this claim, since that point was not touched by the article in question. This is, however, a complete separation in different departments, under full professors, of English language and literature. But if the question is one of names only, I might ask why "Columbia has shown the fullest understanding of the exigencies of the situation," when she has, according to the article in the *Educational Review*, neither a full professorship nor an assistant professorship of English language apart from literature, and the instructorship mentioned includes only Anglo-Saxon?

Let me say, finally, that, whether Mr. Brander Matthews is pleased with my good opinion of his article or not, we are both sincerely interested, I hope, in the actual status of English literature and language in American colleges and universities. It has been usual for a long period to make provision for English literature. Thanks to the influence of such pioneers as Prof. March of Lafayette, to the example of such men as Prof. Child of Harvard and Prof. Cook of Yale, and above all to the willingness of Americans to profit by the thoroughness of German scholarship, English philology is now on a firm basis in a dozen or more institutions in America. Oliver Farrar Emerson.

Ithaca, N. Y.

Notes.

The concluding volumes of Mr. Edward L. Pierce's Life of Charles Sumner are now in press. The first two appeared in 1877.

The *Times* Publishing Co., Philadelphia, will shortly publish by subscription 'Lincoln and Men of War Times,' a work consisting of Mr. A. K. McClure's recent articles in his journal, and embellished with twenty-seven full-page portrait and other illustrations.

D. Appleton & Co. will have ready on April 30 the Memorial volume on the Centennial of Washington's Inauguration, which is issued in

a limited edition to subscribers. They have also nearly ready 'The Jew at Home,' *i. e.*, in Austria-Hungary, by Joseph Pennell.

A history of the Witchcraft delusion in Salem, Mass., two hundred years ago, with some notice of cases elsewhere, by Winfield S. Nevins, is announced for June next by Lee & Shepard, Boston, and the North Shore Publishing Co., Salem.

We are glad to learn that Mr. Henry C. Lea is passing through the press a new work, called 'A Formulary of the Papal Penitentiary in the Thirteenth Century,' printed from old manuscript possessing a singular interest. The Penitentiary was the body intrusted with the papal power of absolution and dispensation throughout Europe; and its use of this power, as exemplified in the several hundred cases embodied in the Formulary, throws light upon many points in the relations between the Holy See and the rest of Christendom and on the morals and manners of the period. The text of the MS. will be accompanied with an introduction and notes by Mr. Lea. The whole will make an octavo volume of about 200 pages.

Charles Scribner's Sons are about to bring out a work on china-collecting in America, by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle; 'The Colonial Era,' by Prof. George P. Fisher; 'The Old South,' by Thomas Nelson Page; 'A Tramp Across the Continent,' by Charles F. Lummis; 'The Bull Calf, and Other Sketches,' by A. B. Frost; and a volume of poems, 'Dreams and Days,' by George Parsons Lathrop.

Harper & Bros. announce 'The Letters of Samuel Johnson,' edited by G. Birkbeck Hill; 'The Light-Bearers,' papers on Tennyson, Ruskin, and the Brownings, by Mrs. Anne Thackeray Ritchie; and the 'Technique of Rest,' by Anna C. Brackett.

A book on 'The Claims of Decorative Art,' by Walter Crane, with illustrations, and a Life of Henry Boynton Smith, by the late Prof. Lewis F. Stearns, are on the list of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. George A. Aitken, the biographer of Steele and Arbuthnot, has edited Marvell's poems, and this work will presently be published, in two volumes, by Messrs. Lawrence & Bullen, London. The fact that Marvell went to the school at Hull where Mr. Aitken himself was educated must have given enthusiasm to the present undertaking of the latter. Mr. Aitken has further undertaken to edit Burns's poems for the new edition of the Aldine poets. This work will not appear until the autumn. Among other forthcoming books of the new firm just mentioned, who have already accustomed us to a pleasant combination of good literature and good manufacture, are an edition of Anacreon in the Greek, with Stanley's translation, metrical renderings by various hands, and illustrations; the Fairy Tales of Mme. D'Aulnoy, with an introduction by Mrs. Ritchie, and illustrations; and Mr. Joseph Knight's 'Theatrical Notes,' a contribution to the history of the English stage.

Mr. Austin Dobson has been editing Fielding's 'Journal of a Voyage to Lisbon,' and it will be published shortly by the Chiswick Press. A one-volume selection from his poems, made by himself, has been issued at Leipzig in the English Library which the late Wolcott Balestier founded just before he died, as a rival to the Tauchnitz Series.

The Knickerbocker Press of the Messrs. Putnam has just taken possession of its new building at New Rochelle, on the line of the New York and New Haven Railroad, with enlarged facilities for all the processes involved in bookmaking.

Mr. John Vance Cheney publishes under the garb of essays what were originally meant as "talks" for young people, and had for their purpose to encourage the knowledge and love of poetry. The title of the volume, 'The Golden Guess' (Boston: Lee & Shepard), indicates a degree of uncertainty which is not apparent in the text itself. The definition of poetry, it is true, consists of a series of quotations from a large number of masters of eloquence and epigram, and leaves the answer at last in the "inner consciousness"; but that the Hebrew poets were the greatest of all is as plain as the nose on your face, and that Matthew Arnold was the master of those who know, except, of course, in the point of Hellenism vs. Hebraism, is the beginning of understanding. These things being premised, the essays on Tennyson, Browning, Swinburne, Music, and Hawthorne follow a safe and beaten track. Susceptibility to literature and a modicum of good sense and good morals make up the author's critical stock-in-trade, and this is not a bad outfit for the popularizer of good books as the times go; but, on the other hand, the predilections we have indicated and the slavish Arnoldism of the essays, except when dealing with the Hebrews, disable the writer in the higher field. Even the young, to whom he especially appeals in his preface, could find better guides; for though his observations are as a rule just and plain, the mood is vague and sentimental, and suffuses what is sensible with an unwholesome feeling.

The eighth volume of Prof. Henry Morley's 'English Writers' (Cassell) brings that useful repertory of the facts of our literary history down to 1579, so that the present year bids fair to see Spenser and Shakspere fully included in the range of the bibliography. This will increase the value of the work for those purposes of reference for which it is best adapted in schools and colleges, though the method begins to show its incompleteness more obviously in proportion as the subject of study becomes pure literature. The history of literature, however, on the side of biography, phases of the national life and of European culture, and the catalogue of books issued, has never been so comprehensively treated; and the very unattractiveness of these annals makes easier for the student the line of demarcation between the literary and the historical interest. If the philological side of literature could be so adequately treated by itself in a similar way, the much discussed question of how to treat literature would be greatly simplified. Literature as history is not less to be objected to than literature as language, and it is much to be suspected that instruction which avoids the latter error falls into the former one; but the more these different aspects of literature are separately presented, the less confusion there will be. Prof. Morley, as an encyclopædist of fact, does most useful service, and it is a great gain to his work that he has no room for more than one point of view.

The name and fame of Landor is one of the lost causes of literature, and shares the same attraction for the neophyte in criticism that Charles I. has for the tyro in history. The essay upon him is calculable: its argument shows the engrossment of the writer with the manner of his master in the two points that it is dignified and that it fails to convince; and, like all pleaders for lost causes, the author is aware from the first line that the best he can say is useless. Mr. Edward Waterman Evans, jr., who contributes the latest of these unhoping encomiums on greatness deferred, 'Walter Savage Landor: A Critical Study' (Putnams), does his task with commendable taste and in sincerity; he has made out Landor for himself, and knows why he ought to like him, but, through no fault of his own, he cannot divest Landor (Landor could not divest himself) of the qualities of a *simulacrum:* his hero never passes the point of *seeming* to be great. Mr. Evans's essay is notable as a sign of interest in the higher literary criticism, and is academic in quality. A new writer begins by making his devotions at the shrines; after that, he gets down to work.

The protest against English philology under the disguise of literary study begins to bear fruit in text-books, and among the first of the reformed order is "Hamlet," edited by Carroll Lewis Maxcy (Boston: Ginn & Co.). The language element is reduced to a minimum in the notes with success, and the stress of instruction is laid on the minute development of the play as a story—in other words, on dramatic construction. The ability to make an exact plain prose paraphrase in the shape of a tale would seem to be the aim of the instruction. This fact illustrates what we recently said of the experimental character of the new teaching of literature. Can we be sure that this is a better way of studying Shakspere than the old method? and does it not err in the same point, namely, of treating "Hamlet" as something to ask the greatest number of questions about? If dramatic construction is to be studied, is Shakspere the best author to use? If Shakspere is to be studied, was dramatic construction anything more than an incident in his genius? It is a gain, no doubt, to substitute, in literature courses, the study of a literary form for that of a language form; but the main effort of the new method is, we believe, to get at the substance of literature, at what is expressed, and not at the mode of expression, which is to be treated secondarily. These queries and remarks indicate that the present text-book, which is in its own way admirable, merely substitutes one sort of narrowness for another; the most it can accomplish is to help dissolve the old tradition, and in time a more catholic treatment may come.

Spencer's 'Philosophy of Style' is reissued with an introduction and notes by Prof. Fred N. Scott (Boston: Allyn & Bacon) in a form suitable for school use. The barrenness of the essay, relying as it does on a single principle of style, is eked out by the addition of a second paper, by T. H. Wright, which succeeds in showing how limited was Spencer's view but does not add very much except by suggestion. The editor appears to be a propagandist of Spencerianism. There was certainly no reason for the bibliography of Spencer's works in the introduction except the wish to use the opportunity for spreading the faith. A Rhetoric can easily dispense with a laudatory biography of its author, the insertion of which here, in an ordinary text-book, is most uncalled for.

The Book-Lovers' Library, which we have commended as a most interesting collection of out-of-the-way yet desirable information, adds to its already rich list 'Books Condemned to be Burnt,' by James Anson Farrer (A. C. Armstrong & Son). This does not deal exhaustively with the subject, and merely glances at the general history of the burning of books in an introductory chapter, the body of the volume being reserved for the English record. The occasion for such conflagration was, of course, politics or religion, and in the course of the inquiry one comes upon curious illustrations of the growth of opinion, upon books whose very substance of thought has become ashes long ago, upon passions and vagaries of the sort whose remembrance seems to resolve the past into a history of folly; but for the most part the list is that of a very "antique" catalogue. The lover of books must be something of an an-

tiquarian to relish the titles truly and to feel interest in the lives and fortunes of the authors. The last book burned, it appears, was 'The Present Crisis with regard to America Considered' (February 24, 1775), and no copy of it seems to be known.

Mary R. Silsby has collected and arranged a volume of 'Tributes to Shakespeare' (Harpers), in which some pieces not easily accessible are contained, so that for the earlier centuries the volume has a certain value; but it tapers off at the end into a mere scrap-book of latter-day verse, and a large proportion of these later pieces are without any sort of claim to remembrance, and the best of them, with a scant half-dozen exceptions, are only commonplace.

In 'The Bible, the Church, and the Reason' (Scribners), Prof. Briggs prints seven lectures delivered by him at various times and places. They find their pertinence to the controversies with which his name is now connected in being mainly a positive reaffirmation and expansion of the views which have brought him under ecclesiastical process. The volume will go far to extend his reputation as a heretic who arraigns his prosecutors, insists that they are the ones to recant, and, in general,

> —"bangs and bethwacks them—their backs he salutes
> With the whole tree of knowledge torn up by the roots."

Mr. Wilbur Aldrich's 'Farming Corporations' (New York: W. Aldrich & Co.) adds another to the schemes for the easy and complete cure of the evils of the social body. In simplicity of thought and in innocent faith in the effectiveness of his panacea, the author may easily take rank with his fellow-Utopians, of whom the last few years have brought so plentiful a supply; but in economic training he falls far below speculators like Hertzka, or even Bellamy. He proposes an association of farmers in his native town in Maine, who are to form what the economists call a society for coöperative production. The success of this association will be such that a speedy reorganization of the nation on the same lines is sure to follow, and trade, banking, canals (canals, by the way, are to be greatly enlarged and extended), railways, insurance, and everything else soon drop into association hands, and all are happy. Mr. Aldrich's plans are presented with little detail and with no appreciation of the real difficulties of the problem.

The public will have to stand on its guard against the device of American publishers to secure copyright for fiction that appears first serially in England, by issuing amputated portions without advertising the fact. This was what lately happened in the case of Mr. Barrie's 'Little Minister,' and still more recently in the case of Mr. Mallock's 'A Human Document,' which comes to us from Cassell before it is finished in the *Fortnightly*, and hence ends with the sixteenth chapter, about the middle of the February instalment. This is a very reprehensible practice, and is by no means atoned for by the subsequent publication of the work in full.

"An Episode in the Life of James Russell Lowell" is related by Mrs. Anna Davis Hallowell in *Harper's Weekly* for April 23, with the aid of letters revealing the poet's friendship with her parents in the early days of his married life. Some of these are among his best, and notably extend in prose his already remarkable list of anti-slavery portraits in verse. Some anti-Texas stanzas, published purposely without his name and never admitted to his collected works, are also printed. One stanza, beginning,

> "Grey Plymouth Rock hath yet a tongue,"

was a familiar abolition quotation. But the cream of the "Episode," after all, is Lowell himself, the bridegroom of 1845, with his wife, from daguerreotypes. Here is Hosea Biglow in person, with flowing necktie and flamboyant waistcoat, with a twinkle in his eye, and dialect trembling on his tongue. The cut misses the subtlety of expression in the original sun-picture.

Mr. George W. Julian contributes to the Indiana Historical Society's publications a vindication of the rank of the Quaker Charles Osborn as an anti-slavery pioneer. In so doing he ignores the Rev. George Bourne's distinct enunciation of the doctrine of immediate emancipation and opposition to African colonization in 1816 (in his 'The Book and Slavery Irreconcilable,' a document that outweighs the entire sum of Osborn's printed utterances against slavery); gives Osborn the undue credit of having "published the first anti-slavery paper in the United States," whereas his paper was devoted to general reform; and vastly overrates his abolition efficiency, except in furnishing a medium for Benjamin Lundy's budding zeal in the same cause. The fact is, as any one must see who reads Osborn's 'Journal,' that he was much more of a sectarian than an anti-slavery crusader, and two circumstances prove this: his end was embittered, if not hastened, by his disownment by his pro-slavery co-religionaries; and when the banner of immediate emancipation, newly set up in Boston, was carried flaming from one end of the North to the other, he never rallied to it in the twenty years of life still left him. Bourne, on the contrary, rallied to it promptly. Osborn, again, did not, like Lundy, give up everything to the slave, nor can he be compared for one instant with Lundy as a reformatory and apostolic power. Yet Lundy was a gradual emancipationist.

A useful piece of historical research has been performed by Mr. Charles Edgeworth Jones in his little pamphlet, 'Political and Judicial Divisions of the Commonwealth of Georgia' (Atlanta: Jas. P. Harrison & Co.). The writer deals in successive sections with the Earliest Division; Parishes; Counties; Congressional Districts; State Senatorial Districts; and Judicial Circuits. Not content merely to display the result of his labors, Mr. Jones refers throughout to the sources of information. The naming of the 137 counties offers a curious study. Brooks County was named (in 1858) after the assailant of Sumner, and all but ten of the names are personal, commemorating eminent Americans, North and South, with much catholicity; seven are Indian, two (Liberty and Union) symbolic, and one (Rockdale) topographical.

A Summer School of Higher Pedagogy and of Psychology will be held at Clark University, Worcester, Mass., from July 18 to July 30. It is designed for superintendents and instructors, and the courses will be given by Dr. Wm. H. Burnham, Dr. E. C. Sanford, and President G. Stanley Hall. Particulars may be had of Dr. Burnham, Dean of the University.

The second annual session of the School of Applied Ethics will be held at Plymouth, Mass., from July 6 to August 17. The courses will be in the history of religions, economics, and ethics, this last being given by Prof. William Wallace of Oxford. For particulars, application should be made to the Secretary, Mr. S. Burns Weston, No. 118 South Twelfth Street, Philadelphia.

A prominent fi ure was removed from the publishing world by the death in this city on April 19 of Mr. Roswell Smith, President of the Century Company, in the sixty-fourth year of his age. Mr. Smith was a native of Lebanon, Conn., and was born into an atmosphere of books and book-making, and had his first training in a publishing-house in New York. He afterwards, however, pursued his education at Brown University, and entered the legal profession, which he practised with great success in Indiana. He returned to his first love at the instance of the late Dr. J. G. Holland, with whom he embarked in the original *Scribner's Magazine*, afterwards the *Century*, and made that periodical the success which it soon became and has ever since continued—with all that is implied therein for American letters and art. *St. Nicholas* was started at his suggestion; his, also, was the idea of the 'Century Dictionary,' and the faith which carried through so laborious and costly a work. The building up of the De Vinne Press is a part of his monument. Mr. Smith possessed remarkable executive ability, and was fertile in projects and resources. He habitually manifested a rare large-mindedness and liberality, and impressed these qualities on his associates. He carried his religion into his daily work, and abounded in acts of charity and benevolence. His failing health had latterly prevented his taking an active share in the direction of the c mpany.

—The illustrations in the May *Century* accompanying Mr. Van Brunt's description of the "Architecture of the World's Columbian Exposition" exhibit to the eyes a graphic impression of the features of the *mise-en-scène* of our approaching Fair, that is most gratifying to the pride of the country, and conveys every promise of conferring honor on the distinguished group of architects and artists who have had the plan in charge. The text of the paper explains what is necessary to an understanding of the aims and methods involved, and, in connection with the cuts, is the most important popular document concerning the matter yet put forth. The Fair is also the occasion of the eloquent characterization of the personality and times of Columbus by Señor Castelar, which may profitably be put in contrast with Mr. Eugene Lawrence's article on the same subject noticed last month. Castelar will have nothing to do with the romantic doubts and legends of Mr. Lawrence, and certainly the portrait he draws, having in it much less of the mediæval and much more of the Renaissance tone and color, seems to us best supported. He brings in what might be called the psychology of history to interpret the mystery of Columbus, and the figure he draws is one harmonious with the complexion of the age; at the same time he puts the practical faculty of Columbus, his trader instinct, in full light, and reconciles it, historically and in national temperament, with the prophetic and mystic element. In the remainder of the number art is a prominent subject, and among the others the paper on Couture is especially successful in rendering that artist's rough individuality, and enlivening the mere story of a career with anecdotes unobtrusively told. Neither can we pass over the admirable paper upon yachting, which, besides much technical information about boats, brings out the fact that not far from 60,000 persons must follow this sport on our waters; and also not to be neglected is the attractive description of the

country life of Kentucky, with its analysis of the character of the people of that State, their past social history, and the rich opportunity the blue-grass region offers for the country-place which appeals so persistently to the taste of our English race. Both these latter articles are charmingly illustrated. There is a profusion of fiction and poetry in the number, and of these Mr. Aldrich's sonnet is one of unusual felicity in touch and feeling.

—In the *Harper's* it is a pleasure to find Mrs. Sutherland Orr's biography of Robert Browning and his wife supplemented by so capable a writer as Mrs. Ritchie. The biography was most dry and meagre in just those touches of personality which in this paper are made the stuff of the story. One finds no "revelations," of course, but much pleasant illustration of the two poets' lives and manners, and of their friends, such as John Kenyon and Mr. Milsand, and others less known, but necessary to make up a circle. The new material consists of memoranda and of some letters to Prof. Knight, in the main, with reminiscences by Mrs. Ritchie herself; there are the usual portraits and facsimiles which garnish such papers, mostly as a matter of custom. The solid articles of the number are an elaborate one, of the well-known pattern, upon the German Army, with full illustrations; a second, of an equally conventional style, upon "The Dakotas," by Mr. Julian Ralph; a thoughtful but not over-progressive paper on "The Private School for Girls," by Anna C. Brackett; and an instalment of Mr. Frank Millet's Danube voyage. The novelties are the beginning of Miss Wilkins's story, of which much is expected, and a poem by Mr. Howells.

—The second supplement to the 'American Catalogue,' published in 1876 by the joint labors of the late F. Leypoldt and R. R. Bowker, has now been put forth under the editorial direction of Mr. Bowker, who also furnishes the preface. It records books published (and imported in editions) in the years 1884–1890, and its appearance, considering the laborious character of the work and the perfection of the typography, is very punctual, though it has been unavoidably delayed. We are told that 6,000 more books and 7,000 more entries, requiring 138 more pages, are included in the present volume as compared with its immediate predecessor, which, moreover, covered a period of eight as against one of six years. Several new features have been introduced: reference is made by page to the issue of the *Publishers' Weekly* in which the entry is fully set forth; and there is a list of State publications (1884–1890)—a first attempt, and as imperfect as must needs be the case in the present condition of State library administration; but the editor aims to make it the basis of a retrospective bibliography. The list of publications of societies has been so much enlarged as to become almost a novelty. Mr. Bowker hopes at some future date to tackle privately printed books and municipal (city) publications. But his contemplated *magnum opus* is a 'General Catalogue of American Publications of the Nineteenth Century,' to be issued in several octavo volumes in 1902–1905. We must refer our readers for details to the preface, and will merely instance the estimated cost, viz., from $50,000 to $100,000, for which Mr. Bowker proposes a subscription of 500 guarantee copies at $100 each. We believe he can obtain it. This important work achieved, "it would then be comparatively easy to complete the national record, as would not be possible in an older nation." Mr. Bowker concludes his remarks by noting a secondary consequence of the new Copyright Law, in that it establishes an official basis for American bibliography through the records in the Library of Congress. The hearty congratulations which he tenders on the passage of the law, must be returned in thanks to him for his arduous and disinterested services both to that end and to the rearing of this imperishable and invaluable monument.

—As perhaps not one in ten of our readers has ever seen the 'American Catalogue,' it will not be superfluous to say that the original issue enumerated the titles of all books in print in this country on July 1, 1876, and that the local branches of English houses were treated as American, so that the scheme comprised (as it does still) a great many English publications. A complementary volume was made a subject-catalogue, and this, too, has been kept up, though the issues now consist of a moderate-sized single volume, embracing both authors (and titles) and subjects. This apparatus enables one at a glance to discover the total product of a given author in the given period, and to learn all the necessary particulars about the date of a book's appearance, its size, cost, editions and styles, and publisher; on the other hand, to ascertain whether any work has appeared on a given topic. Such a book of reference obviously ought to be found (1) in every public library in the land without exception; (2) in every considerable bookstore; (3) in every leading newspaper office. It would thus be within easy reach of the great body of book-buyers, whose purchases could be made with greater ease, certainty, and economy, and with less trouble to others by inquiry for information, than is now the case. Students and authors would be correspondingly benefited. Moreover, the compilers would receive an adequate compensation for their toil. That they do not is proof that the 'American Catalogue' is not yet appreciated or distributed according to its deserts; yet the present volume contains a list of 1,700 American publishers alone.

—The Chairman of the Managing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens has just received the following note from Dr. Charles Waldstein, with further information about the excavations conducted at the charge of the American Archæological Institute:

"We have found besides the wonderful head and two smaller ones, a torso of a metope in perfect preservation, altogether presenting a revelation of the Polyclitean art of Argos in the 5th century B. C., which will force all to rewrite the history of art for that great period. The hundreds (I might almost say thousands) of smaller objects, bronzes, terracottas, vases, gold and silver, ivory, Egyptian or quasi-Egyptian objects, will keep us at work for a long time. Our men deserve the greatest credit—Brownson, Fox, De Cou, and Newhall. Prof. Poland took charge of the work for five days when I had to be in Athens. About Sparta, suffice it to say now that we have found a most interesting building—the circular building of Epimenides, built about 532 B. C. Dörpfeld and all the Germans consider it a most important find. It furnishes the only fixed point for the study of the topography of Sparta. There is also an interesting inscription. Beyond all expectations, the owners of land acceded to my request to allow tentative diggings, and I dug deep trenches in about forty places. The trench in the theatre was fifty-two metres long by two and a half wide, and in places six metres deep."

—For the first time in its history, on April 21, the American Oriental Society met in Washington, as the guests of the Catholic University and the Smithsonian Institution. Dr. W. Hayes Ward, the President, was in the chair. This was the first meeting of the Society under the new plan of holding only one longer session a year, instead of two short ones. The change has proved to be a good one. Some forty papers were presented. In view of the coming World's Exposition next year, it was eminently proper that Dr. Cyrus Adler (Johns Hopkins) should present a paper "On Christopher Columbus in Oriental Literature," with special reference to a Turkish manuscript. Dr. Adler went over the early Jewish statements in regard to Columbus, and dwelt especially upon a Turkish work called *Tārīkh Hind Gharby*, a notice of which is to be found in the first volume of the Society's publications. It was the first book printed in Turkey. Dr. Adler, while in Constantinople, was able to secure a manuscript of this work of the date 1550. The account of Columbus in it is of little value, but the maps—which, by the way, are all turned upside down—are extremely interesting. Dr. Adler was also able to give some more definite information in regard to a Mr. W. B. Hodgson, an Oriental scholar of America whose name has been almost forgotten. A catalogue of his valuable collection of Oriental manuscripts, printed in Washington in 1830, was accidentally found in the National Library in Paris. After a long search, Dr. Adler located the manuscripts—or a portion of them—in the Telfair Academy of Arts and Sciences at Savannah, Ga. These are now in the United States Museum at Washington. What has become of the others is, as yet, a mystery. It turns out that the collector, Mr. W. B. Hodgson, was chargé d'affaires for his country at Constantinople and in Northern Africa. He was the first representative sent out by the Government for the express purpose of studying Oriental languages and literatures. He reported directly to the President.

—Dr. John P. Peters, Director of the late expedition to Babylonia sent out by the University of Pennsylvania, was able to make a verbal report to the Society of the chief results obtained. Attention was directed by the excavating party to the series of mounds known by the name Niffer, once among the oldest of the cities of Babylon. They there uncovered the old temple of Bel, the chief sanctuary of the place. Tablets were found which go back to the earliest Babylonian dynasties, forty centuries before the beginning of our era. A workshop was found and colored glass—perhaps the oldest discovery of glass outside of Egypt. Dr. Peters searched long for the clay cylinders which were always placed in the corners of the building, and which are so valuable as historical material. He was unsuccessful; but, in making this search, he had occasion to test the accuracy of the orientation of the buildings. He found in most cases that this was in no way accurate or mathematical, but vague and often quite incorrect. The collections made by the expedition are now on view in the Museum of the University of Pennsylvania. In connection with Babylonia, Mr. John Dynely Prince (Johns Hopkins) attempted to settle the meaning of the enigmatical inscription which appeared on the wall of the banqueting chamber of Belshazzar, the last King of Babylon. Following a hint given by Clermont-Ganneau, he translated the words *Mene, mene, tekel upharsin*, "There have been counted a mina, a shekel, and half minas." According to Talmudic usage, an unworthy son of a worthy father is metaphorically called a "half mina, son of a mina." In this way the author of Daniel wished to draw a parallel between Nebuchadnezzar the Father and Bel-

shazzar the Son. The mina was the largest Babylonian weight. The shekel was one-sixtieth of the mina, and would represent Belshazzar as the unworthy successor of the founder of the Babylonian Empire. The two half minas point to the division of the kingdom of Nebuchadnezzar between the Medes and Persians. One of the most interesting papers of the whole session was that of Dr. K. Kohler (New York) on "The Historical and Literary Relations of the Early Christians to the Essenes." Dr. Kohler believes that the Apocalyptic literature shows clearly that Essenism forms the connecting link between the Old Testament and the New. Dr. Kohler also finds that the so-called Apostolic teaching, the 'Didache,' and the Apostolic Constitutions, are essentially Essene in character and of pre-Christian origin. Prof. H. Hyvernat, of the Catholic University, made a valuable contribution to the history of Semitic science in a paper entitled "Historical Sketch of the Work of the Popes and of the Propaganda for the Advancement of Oriental Learning." He showed how the Popes, through their interest in the conversion of "heathen" nations, had done everything to further the study of Oriental languages in southern Europe. They had invited learned representatives of these nations to come to Rome, had established colleges, and had been among the first to assist the efforts that were made to establish printing-presses for the diffusion of Oriental texts in Europe. The Society adjourned to meet next year at the call of the Board of Directors.

—The second volume of Moltke's 'Gesammelte Schriften und Denkwürdigkeiten' (Berlin: Mittler) is entitled Miscellaneous Writings, and consists of papers chiefly of an historical character and originally printed some fifty or sixty years ago. The earliest of these literary productions appeared in book form at Berlin in 1831, and gives a sketch of the mutual relations of Holland and Belgium from their separation under Philip II. to their reunion under William I. This is followed by an exceedingly interesting and instructive delineation of the internal relations and social condition of Poland, in which the strong and weak qualities of the countrymen of Sobieski and Kosciusko are impartially portrayed, and the causes which led to the loss of their independence and to their national extinction are clearly set forth. It was first issued as a pamphlet by Fincke (Berlin) in 1832. The third paper, entitled "Die Westliche Grenzfrage," is an historical discussion of the boundary question between Germany and France, and especially of the policy of conquest arbitrarily pursued by Louis XIV. and resulting in the devastation of the Rhenish Palatinate and the annexation of Alsace and Lorraine. It was contributed in 1841 to Cotta's *Deutsche Vierteljahrsschrift*, and shows how strongly Moltke as an historian then resented the wrongs which he, as a soldier, did so much thirty years later to rectify. Of a different character is the elaborate essay on the things which ought to determine the direction of railroads. The views expressed prove that Moltke was far in advance of his contemporaries in the conceptions he had formed of the industrial, economical, and strategical importance of such lines of communication. It first appeared in the aforementioned Quarterly in 1843. The volume concludes with five shorter papers bearing on the Eastern question, which are reprinted from the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung* of 1841, 1842, and 1844. They are the results of Moltke's personal observations made during his sojourn in Turkey from 1835 to 1839, and treat the subject from geographical, ethnographical, political, and military points of view. Interesting is his remark on the tendency of modern civilization to render wars less frequent, and his expression of the hope that the time may soon come when the milliards of money and the millions of men now (in 1841) devoted to preparations for war, may be turned into peaceful and productive channels. That war, as it is sometimes said, develops heroic virtues, he admits, but he thinks these qualities may be called forth more profitably to mankind by industrial enterprises of great scope than by martial exploits.

RECENT FICTION.

Tess of the D'Urbervilles. By Thomas Hardy. Harper & Bros.

The History of David Grieve. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. Macmillan & Co.

The Lesson of the Master. By Henry James. Macmillan & Co.

A First Family of Tasajara. By Bret Harte. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

In the Vestibule Limited. By Brander Matthews. Harpers.

Muckle Jock, and Other Stories. By Malcolm M'Lennan. Macmillan & Co.

Denzil Quarrier. By George Gissing. Macmillan & Co.

THE title-page of 'Tess of the D'Urbervilles' is decorated with the supplementary phrase, "A pure woman faithfully presented." In the light of this phrase the book must be read, and with the assurance that the author's definition will be found there. A definition is found, full and explicit, doubtless directly inspired, for it bears no resemblance to the common usage of our language, but is, on the contrary, a negation if not reversal of the definition we learned at school, and of the meaning impressed on us by the practice of living.

After possessing ourselves of the circumstances which lead to and surround Tess's first misadventure or misdemeanor, the suspicion arises that Mr. Hardy, who never errs on the side of chivalrous respect for women, has only indulged in a playful gibe of questionable taste at a rigorous social canon. As the story advances, it becomes plain that his phrase is a deliberately chosen head-line for the extraordinary argument that a woman whose conduct is flagrantly impure, in the sense of unchaste, may have an enormous fund of what he calls intrinsic purity, and that moral value is to be reckoned not by achievement, but by tendency —with the corollary, most comforting to the weak, purposeless, and vicious, that the beauty or ugliness of character lies not in performance, but in aims and impulses, its true history not in things done, but in things willed. Tess's story is told with such vigor and passion that one need not be wholly unreflecting and uncritical to accept Mr. Hardy's false premises, and to fail to perceive the effrontery of his plea for pagan naturalism, which in plain English means physical deterioration and moral death. Granting him his assumption of "intrinsic purity" without any reference to conventional respectability, but with a meaning limited to a feminine instinct of self-defence, Mr. Hardy takes pains to show us that Tess is entirely deficient in that instinct. If his premise of purity is sincere, it rests on an imperfect induction, or on the fundamental error of identification of the sexual impulses of men and women. It is not in obedience to any dictate of society that most women are chaste, but in obedience to a general law of that Nature, the God of his idolatry; a power which in the beginning created them male and female, and which was not so barren of ideas as to make the feminine type a repetition or feeble imitation of the masculine.

The real explanation of Tess's first lapse from virtue lies not in the argument or the circumstances, but in another descriptive phrase, "A vessel of emotion untinctured by experience." There is no record of any resistance worth mentioning, of any violent revolt of the imagination; and the idea of a possible mental influence is particularly excluded. The vessel was filled with animal emotion to the exclusion of checks. She was unfortunate, not pure. Even the paltry excuse of inexperience cannot be offered for her subsequent exploits in the exhibition of purity. For the second time she leaves her home, feeling that the children would probably gain less good from her precepts than harm from her example. It is pertinent here to remark that the average reader of Tess's story will probably be in the same case as her brothers and sisters. But, "at last," we are told, "she had learned what to do"; yet no one who can spell out the uncertain meaning of inclinations and tendencies will, with all the charity in the world, be able to doubt that if the second man who approached her had not chanced to wish to marry her, what had happened before would have happened again. When Angel Clare, in the pasture, makes a surreptitious dash at the "desire of his eyes," she yields to his embrace "with unreflecting inevitableness." Again by his phrase is the author's argument eternally pulverized. "Unreflecting inevitableness" in such a position may be a misfortune; it is not purity. In the crises of existence what one is —one's essential being—expresses itself in action. A greater than Mr. Hardy said that conviction is worthless till it convert itself into conduct. He was not deaf to the cry of human nature, but he dared to distinguish between a genuine cry and a sentimental scream.

The remainder of Tess's career, her failure to enlighten Clare until after their marriage, her return to her first lover for reasons which a woman of common decency would have rejected as frivolous, her last mad act of vengeance—all go to show that she was a weak and supremely sensual woman, and that Mr. Hardy's book, with its titular phrase and its argument eliminated, is a powerful and artistic delineation of that sort of a person. A poetic appreciation of inanimate nature she certainly had, rather wild and tinged with superstition; she loved Clare as she had not loved D'Urberville; she cared deeply for her family—but she was quite a victim to "unreflecting inevitableness," and cannot be exonerated from a yearning for lemon-colored gowns with slippers to match, procured at no matter what price.

The people who help along this doleful tragedy manage to express their character in action. D'Urberville is a thorough-going scamp. His temporary religious fervor is a scampish aberration; it has no roots in his former life and no sequence. Angel Clare is a good man, just and not unduly severe. It is natural that he should discard his wife, not unnatural, considering her sensual attraction, that he should come back to her and not notice the lemon-colored finery. The Durbeyfield father and mother embody much humor, of which, if Tess had inherited a spark, she might have escaped many unpleasantnesses, includ-

ing the gallows. In the minutely detailed dairy life, the smell of boots is stronger than that of clover, and the Clare-adoring milkmaids (all presumably "intrinsically pure") remind one of Bunthorne's maidens gone into flesh. The scene of "The Midnight Baptism," which appeared in the *Fortnightly* for May, 1891, and also in the English edition of the novel, is omitted from the edition under review. The reason for such an omission is not clear. It is a very impressive scene, which, but for artistic restraint and proportion, would be farcical. It is irreligious, but not immoral. Still, we cannot regard this edition as deliberately expurgated out of respect to the "young person." 'Tess of the D'Urbervilles' is as profoundly immoral a book as the "young person" can easily lay her hands on.

No two novels could offer a more vivid and direct contrast than 'Tess of the D'Urbervilles' and 'David Grieve.' Mr. Hardy's argument might be cut out by paragraphs and pages, and there would remain between the covers a thrilling and gloomy tragedy. Mrs. Ward's story and argument are inseparable, and the argument is the *raison d'être*. Mr. Hardy is a novelist, and had much better stick to his last. Mrs. Ward is heart and soul in the modern "movement," an apostle of progress, a preacher of an uncertain sort of Christianity, of an excellent morality, and of a presiding, immutable *Ananké*, yclept Heredity. If it were not for the industry, patience, and ability displayed in her disquisitions—qualities which forbid even the appearance of disrespect—we should say she had better stick to her last. There may be uninstructed rustics who suppose that the beautiful lady in the hair-dresser's or milliner's window is exhibited for her own sake, and not primarily to advertise the coiffure or bonnet. So there may be people who will read 'The Story of David Grieve' for David's sake, and believe that it was written first of all to make known how one man attacked the problem of life, and what was the outcome for him. Yet these undiscriminating beings are, we think, rarer even than the ingenuous rustics; are of those who care more for "good reading" than for story and art, and are blissfully ignorant of subtle distinctions between creation and representation. Mrs. Ward's dexterous and steady management of her "movements" reminds us of a circus-rider with six horses abreast—she keeps them so cleverly in hand. She, however, never rides at a gallop or straight for the finish, but, at a decorous walk, pursuing devious ways, arrives eventually at the point she has had in view, with her team in good condition. The dulness of the performance for a person of quick perception, who is not totally ignorant of the trend of modern movements, lies, perhaps, in the fact that he commands a sight of the finish almost from the start, and therefore, by nothing short of grim determination, can keep down his pace to Mrs. Ward's. If he has just been reading 'Tess,' he may more willingly restrain himself, fully to enjoy Mrs. Ward's triumphant illustration of the influence of character on conduct.

David Grieve's conduct is shaped by his primitive instincts, expanded, modified, corrected, and directed by intelligence applied to experience. As he generally has the air of a theory in the concrete, a generalization with a name, the satisfaction derived from this part of his delineation is all the more profound. David had his moments of aberration—so have we all: in his childhood, for instance, when he tried to "get religion," and, failing, went to the inn, got gin instead, and behaved altogether very badly. Though this period of "childhood" is very long (an unusual defect in the period of childhood, for most of us all too fleeting!), and though it must be spelled out rather than read by those not privileged to have enjoyed a course of instruction in the Lancashire dialect, it is the time when David is most himself and least many others. Here are fewer explanations, not only of feelings, but of remote sources of feeling; here we are less constantly bidden to observe an advance into new plains of intelligence, and the reflex action of the mind on experience; here we are less frequently invited to consider whether his moral perceptions are ethical or æsthetic. David's second and great digression from his normal rectitude is in Paris. But this digression has its scientific reason. His maternal heredity must have its fling, just to round his character and to show that the terrible sister Louie has not monopolized the family supply of naughtiness. Mürger, born again and become a captain in the Salvation Army, might have written these Paris chapters; his wit and spontaneous deviltry being effaced by a realizing sense of how mad and bad it all was, and of his solemn duty to hold himself up as a warning for young men.

With the close of that "storm and stress" with which it is not quite possible to feel sympathetic anguish, all chance of aberration vanishes. We settle down to accompany David through a "wrestle of conscience as sensitive as profound, as tenacious as scrupulous"; we brace ourselves to see him through his theological puzzles and humanitarian experiments. He solves his spiritual problems by finding refuge and rest in the idea of God, and that idea stands on a conviction of a force in human beings which is "beyond nature, which, instead of being made by nature, is the condition of our knowing there is a nature at all." This conviction seems to satisfy David, but is not vividly illuminating to others, and suggests that, for a clever, inquiring fellow, he has been very slow. He says that his idea is not open to argument, which seems to number him with the despised dogmatists whom we have always with us.

As David represents all Mrs. Ward's specifics for the sad world's healing, so her large assemblage of persons represent nostrums at worst pernicious, at best innocuous. These persons are carefully observed—far, far too carefully for just appreciation of those who must be up and about their toiling and spinning. Each one is a variety of the species familiar either in life or in fiction, not always in both. The Parisian figures are distinctly done at second hand; so are the phenomenally insolent Lady Driffield and Col. Danby. The terrible sister, Louie, is a subject fitted for the manipulation of the great Ouida only. In few aspects does she seem a possible person, in none (let us rejoice!) a probable one, and yet the one deep note of personal passion in David sounds in his remorse for his neglect of her. He is head and shoulders above a generalization when he begs her not to do herself (her dreadful self) injustice; and his failure to save her at the last is, after all, the one signal failure in the life of the individual, David Grieve.

The reviewer who arrives at Mr. Henry James's volume entitled 'The Lesson of the Master,' may indulge in a hurrah!—he has got out of the wilderness. No more struggling with people who try to do several things at once, or with people who have no clear idea of what they want to do. Every page is, in the art of fiction, a Lesson of the Master. Every story is distinctly a story, and nothing else, an entanglement of which the unforeseen dénouement is quite the thing to have been foreseen if only one had been clever enough. There is, however, some excuse for density in the author's manner, so cultivated, leisurely, absorbing, that the mind is not impatiently prefiguring a solution—is, indeed, in no way occupied with that, except for the regret, as the end draws near, that so fine a performance should not go on indefinitely. To praise perfection is superfluous, and the reviewer who would avoid inane garrulity need say little more than a few words of reflection on what seems to him partly to account for the artistic perfection of Mr. James's latest volume.

It is indispensable that a good story-teller, even as a good judge, should preserve strict impartiality, that he should have the knack of keeping out of the quarrel. To stand apart and watch the fight (or even the small scrimmages) of life, and then to tell, neither approving nor condemning—that is the lofty and lonely function of the modern artist in fiction. To attain this height he must not become a monster incapable of emotion or sympathy, but he must feel *for* all the participants in the conflict and not *with* any. He is a spectacle of pure intellect and artistic sensibility dominating commoner if not inferior qualities. For all who enjoy this interesting and singular spectacle, Mr. James's book will be a source of pure delight. Only in one instance does he appear to discard his impenetrable mask and to speak his own mind. The "Master" seems to express the author's convictions about the tribute which literature exacts from one who has espoused the profession of letters and would be worthy of his calling. The Master's denunciation of himself as a worshipper of false gods, and of his confrères who work for money (not to live on but to riôt on), certainly has an admonishing ring. The story of "The Pupil" illustrates an impersonality proof against all temptation. The pathos of the situation is so subtle and so profound, the inducement to exclaim, "Now behold the sorrow of this! Reflect on the pity of that!" is so strong, that the author's self-restraint appears marvellous. Yet he makes no faintest deviation from his dispassionate calm, and the result is that the reader, by the aid of his own unguided beholding and reflecting, is gradually consumed with pity, and, at the catastrophe, has a moment very near to personal anguish.

There are scenes and characters in 'A First Family of Tasajara' which compare favorably with Bret Harte's early work. We have mourned over the author of 'The Luck of Roaring Camp' as one irretrievably fallen from greatness, and are only too glad to recognize signs of his rising again. The scenes are before one flood made the Harkutts' fortune, converted them into Harcourts and a "First Family," and after another flood had swept their fortune away, if not obliterated their social preëminence. The characters are Peters, Wingate, and Billings, who, in adversity as in prosperity, preserve that imperturbable calm founded on an inextinguishable sense of humor, which Bret Harte alone has known how to create or to represent in a way that carries delighted conviction. The plot (there is a good deal of plot) is ingenious, romantic, and not noticeably artificial, excepting the incident which connects John Milton Harkutt's second love, the rich and sentimental widow, with the mysterious 'Lige Curtis. Clementina Harkutt's elusiveness is a little theatrical, but she is a person to wonder at, and helps to rank the story among its author's good things.

'In the Vestibule Limited' does not rank

among Mr. Matthews's best things. Coincidence is strained, and a Miss Vernon, in life, would be more likely to fly from Miss Marlinspuyk with uncomplimentary ejaculations about meddlesome old cats than meekly to acquiesce in the outcome of her benevolent intervention. For the rest, there is sprightly dialogue and, in description, the author's known neatness of touch—qualities sufficient to make the little book an agreeable companion for half an hour in a vestibule limited.

When the volume of stories entitled 'Muckle Jock' appeared, more than twenty years ago, they doubtless deserved the encomiums lavished on them by the literary press. Then, plain stories of plain people, plainly told, were so unusual that all the world wondered when a volume of such curiosities was published and actually found interesting. Now, one has almost to apologize for writing stories about people who are not plain, almost low, in their habits, no matter how intrinsically common they are shown to be. The success of Mr. Barrie's Scotch stories may account for this new edition of Mr. M'Lennan's stories of peasant life in the North, but it does not follow that 'Muckle Jock' will prove as acceptable to the *fin de siècle* public as 'Auld Licht Idylls.' Mr. M'Lennan has neither the power of idealization nor the quick fun of Mr. Barrie, and, just now, the world is tired enough and prosy enough to give great value to those qualities in literature. The remnant of the host that adored George Eliot for her carking earnestness, will find in Mr. M'Lennan a worthy disciple of their great teacher, with equal sincerity and a comparable power in the delineation of rustics who get up and go to bed with the sun, but whose lives are otherwise sadly at odds with the sun's brilliant career. To read the stories intelligibly, it is necessary to understand pure Scotch, or, at least, to make constant reference to the glossary at the end of the book.

'Denzil Quarrier' is a clever study of a clever Englishman of the middle class. His aggressive self-reliance, which saves him from being a Philistine, is responsible for the error which makes the story. That English novelists now make no bones about the discussion of marriage versus *l'union libre* indicates a widespread modification of public opinion. The misery which they generally heap upon those who have preferred the illegal arrangement, or who have imagined themselves to be driven to it, may also be taken to indicate that they don't mean to hustle the British nation into any sort of anarchy which includes free love. Quarrier's choosing to live with another man's wife is a natural enough expression of his arrogance, but, being an astute and cautious person, his scheme for deceiving his stodgy constituents is too obviously rash. This is an assumption of idiocy, in a man otherwise reported sane, which no novelist can indulge in and hope to live.

PATRICK HENRY.—II.

Patrick Henry. Life, Correspondence, and Speeches. By William Wirt Henry. 3 volumes. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

We have thus far made it plain that we find ourselves in substantial agreement with the author in the larger outlines with which the life and career of Patrick Henry are here delineated by his grandson and biographer. In some of the circumstantial details with which these larger outlines are associated, as also in some of the shades and colors with which comparative praise or blame is sometimes distributed, we are not always able to perceive the entire justice of the author's appreciations. We cannot see that Henry was wiser in opposing the adoption of the Constitution than Washington or Madison in favoring it, and it seems to us that some of the grounds on which he opposed it were drawn rather from panic fears than from real perils, as, for instance, when he predicted that under it the Mississippi River would be surrendered by the Northern States, or as when Grayson predicted that under it not a single Southern State would ever be admitted into the Union. We quite concur with the biographer in remitting to the limbo of contempt a series of letters in which an anonymous pamphleteer of the "Philo-Junius" order, writing under the pseudonym of "Decius," assailed the public and private character of Patrick Henry in 1789, at the close of the heated struggle over the Constitution. But in a single paragraph it seems to us that "Decius" struck the nail on the head, to wit, when he charged that Henry urged against the adoption of the Constitution "a thousand dreadful things which had nearly been the consequence of continuing under the Confederation." Among these "dreadful things" was "the sacrifice of the Mississippi," which in all probability would have been inevitable under the weakness of the Confederacy, but was forefended against even the treason of Wilkinson and Burr by the strength of the Union under the Constitution. Whether our civil war, and the consequences of war under the Constitution as predicted by Henry, should be ascribed to the "State-rights principle," which he advocated, and in which our war originated; or whether they should be ascribed to the Federalism which sustained the war for the Union; or whether some at least of the military consequences should not rather be ascribed to the "war powers" of international law by which the prerogatives of the Government were supplemented after the war had assumed "a territorial character," are all open questions, according to the point of view that is taken and the point of time at which our judgments are pronounced.

In any view we cannot convince ourselves that Henry was right in insisting on the adoption of his amendments—twenty in number, with a bill of rights superadded—as a condition precedent to the adoption of the Constitution by Virginia. Such a mode of procedure would have remanded the whole question of the Constitution and its ratification to the uncertainties of a void and formless future, besides being insulting and embarrassing to the States which had already ratified the instrument unconditionally. It would have been tantamount, in all probability, to an ultimate dissolution of the Union, which was then held together by "a rope of sand," and would have confirmed the suspicion of Madison in 1787—an unjust suspicion, we are sure—that Henry wished at that date "either a partition or total dissolution of the Confederacy." And we cannot perceive that Patrick Henry was discreet in the struggle he made, after the adoption of the Constitution, for its earliest possible revision by a new Federal Convention. Such a proceeding would have thrown our infant polity into the chance medley and hotch-potch of a new political battle, to be fought over a new division of the Federal assets. It seems to us that Madison reasoned well when he held that if a new convention should be called on the heels of the ratification of the Constitution, it was "little to be expected that the same spirit of compromise would prevail in it as produced an amicable result in the first"; and that in such a second convention "it would be easy for those who had latent views of disunion, to carry them on under the mask of contending for alterations popular in some but inadmissible in other parts of the United States."

We can hardly agree with the biographer in holding that, though Patrick Henry took no part in framing or adopting the Constitution, yet the American people are mainly indebted to his foresight and persistency for the important safeguards which were engrafted on that instrument, soon after its adoption, for the protection of our liberties. The claim seems to us exaggerated. We cannot forget that Patrick Henry accepted these amendments very grudgingly, because they did not go far enough, and even held that they would "tend to injure rather than serve the cause of liberty," because they would "lull suspicion" without giving security. Just as little can we see that the pressure of Henry for amendments was the *vis a tergo* which impelled Madison to the accomplishment of the task which he effected on the floor of the House of Representatives in favor of the amendments recommended by that body. Madison and his associates did not take their initiative from Henry in either the motive or the choice of these amendments. As an advocate of the Constitution, Madison was not pledged to its inerrancy. Washington was a zealous advocate of the ratification of the Constitution, though admitting, while the ink with which it was written had hardly dried, that there were some things in it which never had his approval, and "which he was persuaded never would obtain his cordial approbation." In the matter of the amendments proposed by Henry, Madison admitted on the floor of the Virginia Convention that he was ready to consider "how far they were good," but proclaimed at the same time, with outspoken frankness, that "as far as they were palpably and insuperably objectionable, they ought to be opposed." In the face of the amendments concerted by Henry and his associates, Madison declared on the floor of the Convention that the Constitution, in the form impressed on it by its framers, was "infinitely more safe than it would be after introducing into it that long train of alterations which they called amendments." This was not the language of a man who would be likely to look to Henry for the *vis a tergo* which was to direct him in the pursuit of constitutional reforms.

We are therefore not a little surprised in this same matter of the amendments to find Madison charged with having practised "an artful concealment of his views" in a letter written to George Lee Turberville, under date of November 2, 1788, and which, it is intimated, was designed by Madison to conciliate the Virginia Legislature and procure his election as Senator. In this letter Madison admitted that he was not of those who thought the Constitution "a faultless work"; that there were amendments which he wished it "to have received before it issued from the place in which it was formed"; that there were some amendments which he still thought "ought to be made according to the apparent sense of America," etc. Such a letter, considered as one "designed to be used in the Legislature," seems to the biographer "very different from other letters written by Madison in confidence" to Washington and Hamilton immediately after the amendments of Henry had been broached in the Virginia Convention. In these letters Madison had held that some of Henry's amendments were "highly objectionable." But surely there was nothing covert or confidential in such communications, when he had

openly proclaimed on the floor of the Convention that some of them "were palpably and insuperably objectionable." While these words were still ringing in the air, we cannot see that Madison practised any "artful concealments of his views," so far as can be judged from a comparison between his private and his public declarations. The public record he made for himself in open debate did not differ from the communications made to Washington and Hamilton under the sanction of private correspondence; and when, in this same Turberville letter, he declared his opposition to a new convention, the hostility of Henry and his partisans was, by that frank avowal, sufficiently assured against Madison's candidature for the Senate.

It was to be expected that the author of this biography would devote a special chapter to the history and significance of the Kentucky and Virginia "Resolutions of '98," which had such a decisive weight in precipitating the adhesion of Patrick Henry to the Federalist party. Where Madison, who wrote the Virginia series, declares that they mean one thing, and Calhoun, who adopted them as his own, declares that they mean another thing, there is obvious room for a wide oscillation of opinion concerning their real intendment. It is plain that these famous political cries were meant to scatter "ambiguous voices." Jefferson, indeed, made no concealment of their designed ambiguity when he wrote to Madison that it seemed expedient to affirm all the important principles which these "Resolutions" contained, so as to hold to the ground covered by them in the future, and yet to leave the matter in such a train that the Republicans would not be "committed absolutely to push the matter to extremities," while being left "free to push as far as events would make prudent." Such a "game of fast and loose" easily lends itself to double meanings as well as double purposes. But it hardly seems fair to expand the meaning of the Virginia manifesto in a belligerent direction by infiltrating it with the gasconade of John Randolph of Roanoke, simply because that political Thersites declared in 1817 that the Virginia Republicans looked to "violent opposition" in the passage of their solemn protest against the alien and sedition laws, and that they prepared for military resistance by building an armory in Richmond contemporaneously with their declaration. It was quite natural that the author of this biography should corroborate his views of the Virginia manifesto by citing the statement of Randolph, confirmed as it is by the authority of Mr. Henry Adams in his 'Life' of the Roanoke politician. Yet we believe the story is wholly apocryphal, and rests on nothing better than Randolphian melodrama and bravado. Certain it is that Randolph's statement at the time he made it was immediately and flatly contradicted on the floor of Congress by two of his colleagues, Mr. Pleasants and Mr. Jackson, who had been members of the Virginia Legislature when the "Resolutions of '98" were passed. And the impossibility of the story is clear enough if it be true, as we find stated in a Richmond edition of the "Resolutions," that "the Armory and Arsenal Bill," to which Randolph referred, was passed on the 23d of January, 1798, about five months before the alien and sedition laws were enacted. It would seem, therefore, that "the armory legend," as currently used to point a moral and adorn a tale at the expense of the Virginia "Resolutions of '98," is only another illustration of the "myths" which, light as thistledown and tenacious as burdock burrs, attach themselves with readiness to any epoch-marking and sensational incident in the annals of history. So true is it that the Muse of History, especially when she trails her robes along the highways of emotional politics, is sure to carry at her heels a crop of entirely plausible fictions which the *Mythus* has tacked on her train.

We should not omit, in closing these comments, to bear our cheerful tribute to the literary accuracy as well as the historical thoroughness and fidelity which Mr. William Wirt Henry has brought to the preparation of these memorial volumes. Careful reference is given on every page to the authorities which have been consulted, and the range of these authorities is wide. Typographical errors there must be, of course, in a work of more than 1,800 pages, but they are few. Slips of the pen there will be, as when, for instance, in the second volume it is written that "*Edward* Pendleton" (p. 347), instead of Edmund Pendleton, was the President of the Virginia Convention of 1788; or as when we are told by a witness, without correction, that Patrick Henry, in his latter days, was in the habit of carrying about with him "Soame Jennings's" book (p. 490) on the 'Internal Evidences of Christianity,' where reference is intended to the treatise of Soame Jenyns; but such inaccuracies are very exceptional. It remains to say that the typographical execution of the volumes calls only for commendation.

GERMAN ARCHITECTURE OF THE RENAISSANCE.

Denkmäler der deutschen Renaissance, herausgegeben von K. E. O. Fritsch. Berlin. 1882–1891. 4 vols., at 300 marks.

THE late Mr. James Fergusson, in his 'History of Modern Architecture,' says that "the Renaissance architecture of Germany may be dismissed in a very few lines, inasmuch as, during these three centuries, not a single architect was produced of whom even his compatriots are proud, or whose name is remembered in other countries; and not a single building erected the architecture of which is worthy of much study, nor one that calls forth the admiration of even the most patriotic Germans themselves."

Now no writer calling his work a history was ever more haphazard in his statements than Mr. Fergusson; but had he waited a little before publishing this one, even he might have hesitated in its utterance. The year of the appearance of the 'History of Modern Architecture' witnessed also that of Lübke's 'Geschichte der deutschen Renaissance,' Ortwein's great work was already under way, and now, ten years after its beginning, the 'Denkmäler deutscher Renaissance' of Fritsch has come to a successful ending. It is true that before Lübke the Renaissance in Germany had lacked an historian; it may also be true that the great outburst of patriotism (and bumptiousness) consequent on the Franco-German war was, in a measure, the cause of all these works, and that, though patriotism may make a people prouder of its possessions, it cannot make those possessions any better than they were before; yet it is none the less true that the Renaissance produced monuments in Germany that deserve better treatment than the cheap sneer of Mr. Fergusson.

The splendid series of plates before us afford ample means for judging the architecture of Germany during the sixteenth and part of the seventeenth centuries. They are reproductions of photographs taken directly from the buildings themselves, are large enough in size to show clearly even the minutest details, and are perfectly satisfactory in execution. As there are 300 of them, they form, especially if supplemented by the equally splendid work of Dohme, 'Barock und Rococo Architektur,' an admirable representation of the constructive art of Germany between the fifteenth and the nineteenth centuries. The text, published with the last *Lieferung*, is strictly confined to the necessary explanations regarding the plates. It would have been well had it been preceded by an essay, even a short one, on the general aspects of the Renaissance in Germany, and still more is it to be wished that the plates had been numbered, and that there was an index, to avoid the necessity of seeking for a given view through the twelve *Lieferungen*, or the four volumes into which it was intended the work should be divided.

Architecture, everywhere in the north of Europe in these three centuries, was chiefly civil—palaces and town and country houses for the nobles and for the middle classes, to answer the new social wants of the new civilization, and public buildings. The Middle Ages had left churches more than enough for centuries that already made less use of them; the change in the modes of warfare had made unnecessary nine-tenths of the military architecture which other times had demanded. The new art drew its inspiration from Italy, and, as might be expected, Germany was far behind France in its application. Feudalism lingered longer in Germany, largely for want of a splendid and powerful central court to transform the character of the nobility, and the rude Burg still subsisted when the French nobles were already building modern palaces after the manner of the Italians. Moreover, the Renaissance entered into Germany by the way of literature and painting and engraving, rather than by architecture. Its builders in the sixteenth century knew Italy only from books, drawings, etc., and the plans that they evolved, executed by stone masons whose highest effort in the way of sculpture had been in geometric tracery, were naturally but clumsy achievements.

Besides all this, Goethe's reproach to Luther, that he had retarded civilization in Germany for fifty years, was nowhere truer than in respect of architecture. We know not only that Luther was not hostile to the arts, but that, in his way, he loved them; still, his work, and that of his time, was something quite other than their promotion. As long as he lived, then, the new architecture made but little headway. He died in 1545, and shortly after Germany began to be at peace and to reap the benefits of peace in splendid works. The triumphs of modern architecture in the land, the Otto Heinrich's Bau of Heidelberg Castle, the court of the old palace at Stuttgart, and the porch of the Rathhaus at Cologne, all date from the latter half of the sixteenth century. Up to the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War, the country followed with zeal the new direction given to art. If the results are less splendid than they were in Italy or France, it is because the country was less rich, less civilized, and also because (there is no use in denying it) it was less gifted in artistic qualities.

This excellent work of Fritsch is, then, after all, one more proof, if any were needed, that the Germans have never yet been an artistic people; and this in spite of certain great achievements in each period of their history. In the epoch of Romanesque architecture, the region on both sides of the Rhine was adorned by a series of magnificent churches, that remain to this day the most splendid monuments that

the country can boast. The same style in other parts of Germany produced, as a rule, only horrors. Gothic art was introduced late, and its great successes could be counted upon the fingers of one hand. Still, the so-called *Norddeutsche Tiefländer*, in their forced use of brick, gave us a variety of Gothic which, without yielding anything of the very first rank, is original, dignified, and often impressive. So in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, alongside of three or four buildings that would do honor to any land, as many more that would be worthy of a second-rate position in France, and as many hundreds where some one feature—a portal, a gable, or an oriel, showing all the German love for elaborate decoration—is attached to a huge mass otherwise insignificant, there is a goodly number of more modest class that may fairly be counted among the best things the country can show.

Every traveller in Germany has noticed the huge timbered houses of old towns like Brunswick, Hildesheim, or Halberstadt. The ground floor is often built of well-squared stones, while the upper stories, usually projecting more and more beyond the lines of the foundations, are a skeleton of timbers filled in with brick or plaster. The main feature is, however, the gable, which soars majestically upwards with two, three, or even four stories of windows in its broad field. The sixteenth century found this type of house already existing, and did not dream of changing a thing so well adapted to the wants of the country. It merely modified the details. From Gothic, without altering a single fundamental disposition, the house became modern or Renaissance. The forms of everything ornamental were modelled after the classic and antique that the books were importing from Italy. Often about windows encased in mouldings of the purest late Gothic type were put Roman pilasters and an architrave. The houses of this mixed sort are among the most charming things that architecture in Germany can boast. Later, as knowledge of Italian art increased, the details became more correct, but the charm was no longer there. They were just like any other German *Nachahmungen*, spiritless and detestable. The one really exquisite work of the sixteenth century, the portico of the Rathhaus in Cologne, is a delightful combination of columns of the composite order with arches still pointed, with Gothic vaulting and roof. The houses that we admire in the old towns of the north are not to be compared to this portico, excepting as both apply the forms of a new art without slavish subserviency, and only just so far as they suit the purposes of the builder.

The gable was everywhere in Germany, and continued to be so during the whole period, the distinguishing feature of Renaissance architecture. A house with its long side towards the street, and with the rich dormer windows that play so beautiful a part in French construction of the period, is a great rarity. Instead of this, the gables are of a width and height that make them imposing, though, where ornament is abundant, it only too often detracts from rather than adds to the effect. Pinnacles, the too-pervasive scroll work—that even Lübke admits to be a weak side of German Renaissance art—and other clumsy and unmeaning devices, go far to spoil what would otherwise be noble. We have said that the sixteenth century merely took the gable as it found it, and turned it to its own uses; in Gothic art it was equally prominent and sometimes, especially in the regions towards the Baltic, filled in with pointed arch panels, it was really beautiful. Even then, however, it was not always a success; and in the Renaissance art, where the types became much more varied, there was by so much the greater chance of going wrong.

The eighteenth century did violence to all German traditions of building. The country had hitherto borrowed every style of architecture, Romanesque, Gothic, Renaissance, from some one or other of its neighbors, but had ended always by making them its own. German Gothic might be, and generally was, very bad, but there was at least no mistaking it for the Gothic of any other people; so with German Renaissance architecture—but the last century changed all that. Every German prince exhausted servility in trying to imitate Versailles and the two Trianons, and at the beginning of this century, when every little State had its Monplaisir, Monbijou, Monrepos, its Sans Souci or Ludwigslust, architecture had reached the lowest point of insignificance. Up to the war of 1870, the newer, the more pretentious streets of German towns were of an insipidity and ugliness that could hardly be matched in Europe. Not only had the gable been abandoned, but along with it every other feature that might in the least degree give character to a façade. The new Empire has, not unnaturally, gone to the other extreme. In the revived German Renaissance, the architects have too often tried to put every ornament that ever was invented upon one and the same house. Nothing is more common than to see a building possessing gables, dormers, porticoes, balconies, pinnacles, oriels, loggias, pilasters, and columns, and, if there be left room for anything else, it is somehow there. Of course there is no knowing what will remain after all this effervescence shall have subsided. We can only hope for the best. The volumes of Fritsch show abundantly that, in the epoch from which these architects draw their inspiration, there was more bad work than good. A comparison of what is done now with what was done then is, on the whole, far from discouraging.

Lübke, in the opening chapter of his 'Geschichte der deutschen Renaissance,' says:

> "While the Romance lands, Italy and France, as well as Spain, are in no position to appropriate the great results of the ecclesiastical Reformation of Germany, it is on the contrary the fortune of Germany to receive energetic influences from the artistic Renaissance of Italy, and to unfold therefrom a new art, in which the southern sentiment of beauty is united to Teutonic depth and strength."

We may pardon this because it was written not long after the Franco-German war, when the gravest Germans indulged in a good deal of buncombe; but we cannot let it go without protest. Teutonic depth and strength may have united with a feeling for beauty to create the architecture of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, but that feeling for beauty was not in the least Italian or southern—it was as Teutonic as the depth and strength. The imagination of these men of the north has not the turn for grace, the sentiment of balance, clearness, proportion, and symmetry of the southern imagination. There is, by way of compensation, a feeling for picturesqueness, for the play of light and shade, an expression of dignity, that, at times, is touched with melancholy and becomes poetic. These are qualities that often make us forget the uncouthness of details, the absence of the plastic and more purely architectural gifts, in the suggestion of the magic that has woven legends and ballads, rude, even coarse on occasion, and then again warm with enthusiasm for beauty, for strength and nobility. Our admirations by no means always accord with the accredited ones. With regard to many of these—too many, in fact—we can but quote the criticism of Viollet-le-Duc on Nuremberg, found in his 'Lettres écrites d'Allemagne.' Nuremberg, he remarks by the way, is "une collection plutôt qu'une ville," and among its monuments "on a peine à trouver une de ces œuvres qui laissent un souvenir durable; on est souvent étonné, jamais ému; c'est toujours le dernier objet qui frappe le plus, et qui fait oublier les autres."

Life of Benjamin Harris Brewster, with Discourses and Addresses. By Eugene Coleman Savidge. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

The author of this work has, so far as in him lay, faithfully complied with the maxim, *De mortuis nil nisi bonum*. Were we to accept his estimate we should find ourselves ranking Mr. Brewster with "Lincoln, Seward, Cameron, and Grant." He was "a man of letters among men of the world; dazzling scholars by his worldly position, politicians by his culture." The themes that he touched "are bestrewn with literary gems and rounded with philosophical reflection." This is not put forth as the opinion of a biographer: "it is a national tribute. The coronet unanimously accorded his work by those whose individual judgments make laws, bestow honors, or guide national opinions, must establish beyond cavil excellence in a sphere incapable of official degrees." As an orator he was "superb"; as a lawyer he was "of the noblest order"; in literature as well as law "his resources were marvellous"; his memory "was a marvel"; his conversational powers, moreover, were incomparable, his sympathy, magnanimity, and other good qualities were pre-eminent, and withal he was a very religious man. There may be found in his life "errors of judgment, mistaken impulses of a warm heart, apparent inconsistencies which are in truth but increased light and more matured reflection, and, perhaps, inconsistencies real and inexplicable. But search here is conceived to be no duty of the biographer."

With due respect to the memory of Mr. Brewster, we feel impelled to characterize the laudations of his biographer as rather extravagant. Among his contemporaries, and in his own surroundings, Mr. Brewster was a somewhat striking and picturesque figure; but he did nothing and said nothing that will cause his memory to live when the generation that knew him is gone. Nevertheless, he had some claims to distinction. He was of a good stock, being descended from Elder Brewster of the Plymouth Colony, and he showed a fine determination and courage in overcoming the obstacles that poverty and a face repulsively disfigured by burns laid in his path. Singularly enough, he invariably dressed in an old-fashioned and foppish style that made him extremely conspicuous. His head was surmounted by a white beaver hat, his feet were covered with patent-leather shoes and white gaiters, while his coat was of velvet, his trousers of some white or yellow material, his stock of a flaming color, and his shirt bosom adorned with ruffles. Similar ruffles of the finest lace took the place of cuffs, half covering his jewelled hands, and he carried his peculiar tastes into the appointments with which he surrounded himself. These affectations, however, did not lessen the charm of his conversation, which was due to his really remarkable memory and to his varied reading. He had an affectionate disposition, a kind heart, and withal a

certain stubborn honesty that gave him such distinction as he attained, while it prevented his attaining the distinction of public office to which he aspired.

In the Dangerfield slave case in 1858, Mr. Brewster attained notoriety by the unnecessary vehemence with which he advocated the return of the fugitive negro to slavery, but he lived to admit that the abolitionists were in the right. As Attorney-General of the United States under President Arthur, he had much to do with the Star-route trials, but we cannot concur with Mr. Savidge in the belief that these proceedings will compare in importance with the trial of Warren Hastings. It should be said, however, that the lame and impotent conclusion of the matter was not due to any treachery on Mr. Brewster's part. He was sincere in his attempt to secure convictions, as is proved by the hostility of the persons implicated. But to the participants in that contest history will award no laurels. Mr. Brewster undoubtedly had a certain thirst for culture and an interest in elevated themes; but his tributes to learning and religion are rather of the chromo order. The fineness of his feeling in such matters will be judged by the fact that he was an intimate friend of Simon Cameron. He was perhaps somewhat better than his friends; but that is not to attribute to him anything more than a relative excellence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, C. K. Christopher Columbus. [Makers of America.] Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Angel's Visits to my Farm in Florida. U. S. Book Co. $1.
Atkinson, Rev. J. C. Walks, Talks, Travels and Exploits of Two Schoolboys. New ed. Macmillan. $1.25.
Barhydt, J. D. Crayon Portraiture. The Baker & Taylor Co. $1.
Barr, Mrs. A. E. Love for an Hour is Love Forever. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Barr, Robert. In a Steamer Chair, and Other Shipboard Stories. Cassell. 50 cents.
Beardmore, W. L. The Drainage of Habitable Buildings. Macmillan. $1.50.
Bernhardt, Wilhelm. Goethe's Meisterwerke. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.60.
Bigelow, Poultney. The German Emperor. Charles L. Webster & Co. 75 cents.
Bradshaw, W. R. The Goddess of Atvatabar. J. F. Douthitt. $2.
Bunce, Mrs. O. B. What to Do. Appletons.
By a Himalayan Lake. Cassell. 50 cents.
Carlyle, Thomas. Wotton Reinfred. The Waverley Co. 50 cents.
Chapman, C. H. An Elementary Course in the Theory of Equations. John Wiley & Sons. $1.50.
Coleridge, Christabel R. Amethyst: the Story of a Beauty. Appletons.
Dod, S. B. A Highland Chronicle. Dodd, Mead & Co. 50 cents.
Gore, Prof. J. H. A German Science Reader. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Farrer, J. A. Paganism and Christianity. Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.
James, C. C. A Harmony of the Gospels. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Lüders, C. H. The Dead Nymph, and Other Poems. Scribners. $1.25.
Maitland, James. The American Slang Dictionary. Chicago: The Author.
O'Rell, Max. English Pharisees and French Crocodiles. Cassell. $1.50.
Peacock, Mabel. Bunyan's Holy War, etc. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Sully, James. The Human Mind: A Text-Book of Psychology. 2 vols. Appletons.
Travis, Jeremiah. Commentaries on the Law of Sales, and Collateral Subjects. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
White, T. W. Our English Homer; or, Shakspere Historically Considered. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $2.25.
Whitman, Walt. Selected Poems. Charles L. Webster & Co. 75 cents.
Whymper, Edward. Travels Amongst the Great Andes of the Equator. Scribners.
Wilde, Oscar. A House of Pomegranates. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.
Wood, Henry. God's Image in Man. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Worthington, Prof. A. M. Dynamics of Rotation. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Wright, W. A. The Works of Shakspere. Vol. VI. Macmillan. $3.
Whiteley, R. L. Chemical Calculations. Longmans, Green & Co. 60 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 5, 1892.

The Week.

In August of last year Mr. Theodore Roosevelt, in behalf of the Civil-Service Commission, made to the President a report of the results of an investigation of the performances of Federal office-holders in some Republican primaries in Baltimore. The conclusion of that report was a recommendation for the removal of twenty-five Federal employees, the larger number of whom belonged to the Baltimore Post-office service, for violation of the Civil-Service Law. This report was sent to the President and to Secretary Foster and Postmaster-General Wanamaker. None of these members of the Administration took any action whatever upon it. A few weeks ago a Committee of Congress was instructed to ascertain what had become of the report, and what course had been pursued in regard to its recommendations. The Committee examined Mr. Wanamaker, and succeeded in getting nothing from him but evasive answers, quibbling statements about the meaning of the section of the law whose violation was charged, and more or less direct insinuations that the investigation which the Civil-Service Commission conducted was not a fair one, since the Baltimore Postmaster and other Federal officials accused were not given an opportunity properly to defend themselves. Secretary Foster was called, and he pursued much the same course. He said that he had never examined the Commission's report, though he had had it before him for nearly a year, and though his attention had been called to it afresh within a week. He quibbled as Mr. Wanamaker had done about the meaning of the law, and, when confronted with the fact that some Federal office-holders in Kentucky had been indicted, through the efforts of the Department of Justice of the Harrison Administration, for precisely similar violation, he said he had a private report which led him to believe that these officials had been wrongfully indicted.

Mr. Roosevelt took the witness-stand on Monday, and made short work of the dodging and quibbling of these two Cabinet officers. He declared, in the first place, that he stood by his Baltimore report in its entirety, and that it was impossible that his conclusions should be upset, for they were based upon the confessions of the accused persons made at the very time that the events took place. As for the meaning of the law, he said very tersely that if the terms of the statute do not cover the offence, "there will have to be a new construction of the English language." He cited the Kentucky proceeding against precisely similar offenders, saying: "In view of this action by the Department of Justice, it scarcely seems worth while to discuss whether an assessment for a primary can or cannot be called an assessment for a political purpose." He showed with painful clearness, considering the pious pretensions of the Postmaster-General, that the latter had made statements which had every aspect of deliberate untruths, and had been guilty of conduct which in a worldly man would be denominated tricky, shuffling, and inconsistent. He quoted Mr. Wanamaker's testimony to the effect that it was not the duty of the Civil-Service Commission to make a report to the head of a department, and then produced letters from Mr. Wanamaker to the Commission asking it to make such reports and advise him about removals. The letters were written in regard to the conduct of employees of Democratic officials, and betrayed an anxiety on Mr. Wanamaker's part to get these officials out of office.

Mr. Cabot Lodge's speech to the Middlesex Club on Wednesday week was an attack upon the present silver law and is much to be commended. Mr. Lodge's bill to suspend the purchase of silver bullion until an international agreement for free coinage shall have been effected was taken by Senator Teller as a challenge to mortal combat. We presume it was so intended. The bill itself is open to some objection on the score of details. It puts the coinage power in the hands of the President and Senate exclusively, by authorizing them to make a treaty with "one or more" foreign governments for the free coinage of silver at any ratio they think proper, the same to become immediately binding on the United States. The important section of the bill is the second, which provides—

> "That until a treaty has been made and ratified as provided in the preceding section, so much of the act approved July 14, 1890, as relates to the purchase of silver bullion and the issue of Treasury notes thereon shall be suspended until Congress shall otherwise direct."

This bill was referred to Mr. Bland's Committee on the 1st day of April. It will probably be kept there until the close of the present session, but it cannot be suppressed. The first sign of a return to common sense on the money question will be the passage of some bill like this to suspend the purchase of bullion.

The President, in his communication to the Senate on the subject of an international monetary conference, says that he hopes to be able to secure an enlarged use of silver even if free coinage should not be agreed upon. This suggestion recalls the proposals made by England and Germany at the Conference of 1881. The Bank of England offered to receive silver to the extent of one-fourth of its gold, as its charter authorizes, provided that other nations would adopt free coinage at an agreed ratio and actually carry it into effect. Germany offered to stop her own sales of silver for a fixed period and to suppress her five-mark gold coins and her five-mark circulating notes on the same condition. But silver has fallen more than 20 per cent. since that time. The bullion value of the silver dollar in 1881 was 88 cents. It is now rather less than 68 cents. This decline has taken place in spite of purchases by the United States Government of more than $400,000,000 worth—a fact that must have made a profound impression on the authorities of the Bank of England and of the Imperial Bank of Germany. It is by no means certain that as good terms could be obtained for an enlarged use of silver now as were offered then. On the contrary, there are many signs that the wise and responsible financiers of Europe think it best to let silver find its level, just as wheat, cotton, and pork find theirs. Moreover, they are all afraid of the great silver hoard of the United States, knowing that it can never hurt them as long as they hold none, while it may hurt them very much if they have a large stock on hand and if the whirligig of time should bring us a Congress possessing a fair degree of common sense. The United States has been trying to "corner silver" for fourteen years, and has had no better success than the French syndicate which tried to corner copper; but, being a Government, and exercising the power of taxation, it is not bankrupt—not yet.

Secretary Foster's answer to Senator Morgan's resolution on the silver operations of the Government under the act of July 14, 1890, contains some important facts. Perhaps the most important is that which gives an exact statement of the loss sustained by the Government on its silver purchases. The question and answer are as follows:

> "(10.) State the amount that the silver dollars and bullion on hand would have cost at the present prices of silver bullion? A. The amount of silver purchased under the act of July 14, 1890, to April 1, 1892, was 89,044,075 fine ounces, costing $89,611,000, valued at to-day's price of silver at $77,833,425."

The loss, therefore, would appear to be $11,777,575, if the Government could realize the present price by selling the silver. But, of course, it cannot do anything of the kind. A valuable commentary this, on the statement made by Secretary Foster himself last fall, in his letter to the American Bankers' Association at New Orleans. He then said that the advantage of the present silver law was that it put

a dollar's worth of silver "behind" every Treasury note issued. This phrase, "silver behind," had quite a run in the Republican conventions and newspapers. We pointed out that the "silver behind" would be of no use to maintain gold payments with, unless it could be sold; and also that it remained to be seen whether the price would hold firm so as to sustain Mr. Foster's flowery anticipations. The truth is now out. The "silver behind" is nearly twelve millions short already. It appears also that $11,542,921 of these new Treasury notes have come back for redemption. This sum is the net expenditure of the Government for silver under that act, all the rest having remained in circulation. The point for discreet financiers to keep watch of is the quantity of notes *in* the Treasury.

The bill to put binding-twine on the free list passed the House on Monday, under a suspension of the rules, by a vote of 183 to 47—that is, about four to one. This vote, we think, rather comes short of expressing the popular will than exceeds it. Everybody remembers that the binding-twine people went to Washington when the McKinley Bill was pending, and put in a petition asking for an increase of duty, saying that unless they got it, they should be obliged to close their works. They did not get it. On the contrary, the duty was reduced by the Senate from 1½ cent to 7-10 cent per pound. Then, when Congress adjourned, these same people formed a Trust and published a glowing advertisement setting forth the wonderful profits they had been making — all this for the purpose of getting the public to take shares in their combine, which the public did. We have always contended, and we still hold, that every article that has been made the subject of a Trust or combine ought to be put on the free list at once, without benefit of clergy.

Monday was an awful day for the friends of American industry. After the wicked Democrats had punched another hole in the tariff by the passage of the bill to put binding-twine on the free list, three Republicans from the West voting for it, the entire House, Republicans and all, proceeded to punch a hole in the shipping laws which have so long been the pride and incubus of this nation. Two foreign-built steamers, the *City of Paris* and the *City of New York*, were admitted to American registry. This was done "without opposition." Where was Boutelle? What paralyzed Dingley's tongue? Have they not told us over and over again that such a thing was unpatriotic, if not actually treasonable? Have they not made eloquent use of the "entering-wedge" argument when similar propositions were made in other years? Yet they were silent on Monday, though the auger could be heard boring a hole which is sure ultimately to scuttle the American merchant marine. The silence of the Pennsylvania Congressmen is easily understood: the bill requires the owners of the two steamships to contract to have others of a like tonnage built in American shipyards, and that means a good job for the Chester and Philadelphia ship-builders. But the Maine representatives have so often stood up valiantly for the wooden navy of our fathers, that we cannot understand their basely giving up the ship.

President Harrison could hardly have made a better appointment to the French mission than Mr. Jefferson Coolidge. There is no Republican or high-tariff man fitter for the place. He was a Democrat down to 1888, and how a man with his sense of humor, which is strong, could have become a Republican just then, or indeed at any time since 1884, passes our comprehension. But then he is connected with a great variety of protected interests, and the tariff is a strong persuader. We are quite sure, however, that he does not go so far as to believe in the existence of American tin plate. He speaks French almost like a Frenchman, has lived long in France and knows the country and the people well, and is not only a "Harvard man," with all the term connotes, but a man of wide and long business experience—indeed, a man of affairs "si jamais il en fut," as the *Tribune* would say. If the American hog is still in trouble over there, Mr. Coolidge is just the man to extricate him and set him on his legs. Mr. Reid saved the animal's honor by getting him relieved from the stigma of disease, but not before the French protectionists had made arrangements not to let him into France, whether he be sound or unsound.

Tom Platt held his State Republican Convention on Thursday, and we have no doubt that he got more good solid "chuckling" out of it than out of any of its predecessors. It is true that Warner Miller was not able to be present, that he was not equal to a fresh feat of "harmonizing" in person, but he did send a letter. Yet Platt had ample compensation for Mr. Miller's absence. He had Senator Hiscock and Mr. Depew and an entirely new recruit in the ex-Minister to France. The presence of these three eminent former political enemies, all harmonious and enthusiastic in his cause, must have given Platt huge delight, especially when he contemplated the use to which he was putting them. What he did was to use President Harrison's patronage to pack a convention, and then use the Convention to snub President Harrison. There is no doubt whatever about this. Platt put a fulsome endorsement of Harrison's Administration into his platform, and refused to allow any mention, even, of Harrison as a candidate for renomination. He was so confident about this that he openly invited an advocate of formal instruction for Harrison to propose a resolution of instruction in the Convention, just to see how quickly it would be voted down.

The financial plank in the Republican State platform this year is better than the corresponding one of last year. We put the two in parallel columns for the purpose of noting the difference:

1892.	1891.
We cordially endorse the vigorous declaration of President Harrison made in the city of Albany in favor of an honest dollar. We commend Republican members of Congress for having secured the defeat of a free-silver bill, the effect of which would have been to derange values, impair contract obligations, reduce the pay of labor, and debase the currency. The people must continue to look to the Republican party to maintain the good faith of the nation in all matters of finance, pledged, as it is, to keep any dollar bearing the stamp of the United States at par with gold, and to repel the assaults of the reckless advocates of free and unlimited coinage of silver.	The Act of July 14, 1890, provides for the purchase of the silver product of American mines and issuing of the new Treasury notes, protected by a reserve of 100 cents' worth of silver for every dollar issued. *We commend this policy* of maintaining gold and silver at a parity, the Treasury notes paid for silver to be kept at par with gold. The voice of New York is emphatic against any degradation of the currency, and demands, with President Harrison, that every dollar issued by the Government, whether paper or coin, shall be as good as every other dollar.

The marked difference between the two platforms is the omission this year of any commendation of the act of July 14, 1890. There is little room for doubt that the endorsement last year of the present Silver Act cost the party in this State thousands of votes. In this particular the Democratic platform was much more satisfactory and more consonant with the views of business men. The Democrats roundly denounced the act which calls for the purchase of seven tons of silver bullion per day, and what they said about keeping all the dollars at par with each other was quite as sound as the Republican deliverance. The Republicans have now found that they made a mistake last year. The world moves.

There is another clause in the Albany platform which calls for attention. It is this:

> "The Republican party has a right to ask the approval and support of all good citizens for the policy it has pursued in revenue legislation; for the fruits, now apparent, of the McKinley tariff, under which agriculture has been encouraged, manufactories extended, trade promoted, and labor benefited; and for the system of reciprocity which has added greatly to our commerce with other nations on terms of mutual benefit, to the extent of increasing more than 50 per cent., and in some cases doubling, our exports of the products of the factory and the farm."

We see no affirmation here that the country is enjoying prosperity in consequence of the McKinley tariff, or that it is prosperous at all. We are told that agricul-

ture has been encouraged, manufactures extended, trade promoted, and labor benefited. A visitor from a distant country might infer from this that a prosperous era had set in—such as was confidently predicted when the McKinley measure was pending. But no such broad claim is made in the platform, and if it had been, it would have been scouted by the business community. We have had splendid crops and good prices for cereals and provisions, but we have not had the condition of things known and recognized as general prosperity. The infallible sign and measure of general prosperity is the iron trade, which is in a state of extreme depression and shows no sign of improvement. We do not affirm that this anomalous condition of good crops and fair prices conjoined with unsatisfactory trade is due entirely to the McKinley tariff, although we think that that measure has been a powerful contributing cause. We note the fact that it has not brought general prosperity, and that the Republicans of this State have not had the temerity to claim that it has.

Ohio has recently had an illustration of the power of public opinion, when once aroused, hardly second to the exhibition in this city caused by the passage of the Central Park Speedway Bill. The politicians of both parties in Ohio, and especially the Republicans, have always been opposed to the Australian system which was established by the Legislature two years ago, and have wanted to get rid of it as far as possible. In March last they rushed through the Legislature, almost with the speed of lightning, a bill restricting the application of the law in local elections to municipalities having more than 3,500 population, the measure being a law before half the people knew that such a bill was pending, or at least realized its effect. Happily, the spring elections in small municipalities under the restored old system precipitated so many scandals that the people were immediately aroused to the value of the booth and official ballot which they had lost. An agitation was at once begun for a repeal of the new law, so that the Australian system might apply to all municipalities and all elections, and the Legislature was soon forced to make the desired change, which was accomplished by a vote of seventy to fourteen in the House and with no opposition whatever in the Senate.

The discussion of this matter brought out evidence that the secret ballot is needed to secure pure elections in the country quite as much as in the city. The Cincinnati *Times-Star*, a Republican newspaper, declares that bribery and intimidation are not confined to cities of over 3,500 inhabitants, but are to be found in rural communities. Proceeding from generals to particulars, it pronounces it doubtful if there were ever seen in the State political practices more disgraceful than the vote-buying witnessed on the streets of Batavia, Clermont County, at the special Senatorial election in February, 1890, which it describes as follows:

> "The law requiring all bystanders to remain at least seventy-five feet from the polls was rigidly enforced, but it did not prevent the vote-buyer from easily getting in his work and from seeing that the votes purchased were put in the ballot-box. The polling-place was in full view of an old stable, which served as the headquarters of the boodlers. The floating voter was steered to the stable, the preliminaries arranged, and he was directed to hold his ticket between the thumb and finger of his right hand as he went to the polls, and, moreover, was followed by a spy who saw that he deposited the same ticket, and then motioned him to return to the boodle-office, where he received his reward. This plan was carried out systematically. Nothing more corrupt and indecent ever scandalized the politics of Cincinnati or any other city in the State."

The *Times-Star* says that there are other towns of less than 3,500 people in Ohio, and not a few "truly rural" communities, whose politicians could give the city bosses "pointers" on fraud and corruption, in the absence of the Australian safeguards. Everybody familiar with elections in the country districts of New York, and of close New England States like New Hampshire, knows that the situation in this respect is the same there as in Ohio.

When the history of the educational and civilizing effect of the telegraph comes to be written, one chapter ought to show how it has lessened the horrors of war in South America. In other times the revolutions in that part of the world had to be fought through by means of musket and sword, but nowadays the submarine cable has become a more powerful though less bloody implement of war. Everybody remembers the terrible execution Balmaceda wrought among the Congressionalists by means of the deadly cablegram, and latterly, in Brazil and Argentina, civic quarrels have always been settled in favor of the faction that "had the wire." We all recall those solemn official despatches which Fonseca sent out to the world during his Dictatorship, lauding his own virtue and patriotism, asserting that there was universal acquiescence in his acts, and scouting the idea of any revolution. Suddenly came the news that he had been kicked from power and the telegraph office. At the present time a revolution is in progress in Venezuela, and the cable is bearing the brunt of the fight. The gravest symptom of the President's distress is the official despatches he sends almost daily to the Venezuelan legations in various parts of the world, denying that there is any trouble, asserting that the opposition to his rule comes from a mere handful of brigands, and reporting a glorious victory over an army of rebels outnumbering the Government troops two to one. This looks as if he were getting pretty hard pressed.

Banking methods in South America received fresh illustration in the course of the debate in the Uruguayan Senate on the Government bills to wind up the affairs of the wrecked National Bank. These measures practically amount to taking over the bank's business by the Government, and were violently opposed, on the ground that they were intended to cover up criminal negligence on the part of directors. It appears that the bank had made illegal or unsecured loans to the amount of $9,174,730, of which nearly $3,000,000 stood on what was called a "special account," back of which were persons as yet unknown. Mr. Edward Casey figures on the books as a debtor to the tune of $4,525,922, and no explanation of how he got the money has so far been made. Then there is an item of a million and three-quarters on the "Northern Railway account," which stands for another huge scandal. One Senator charged a good part of the blame for wrecking the bank upon "a person very highly situated, the most highly situated in the country. I will not say who." This not very obscure allusion to the President, formerly Minister of Finance, was greeted with laughter. Yet there appears to be little doubt that the Government bills will pass and the scandal be hushed up. Six out of the nineteen Senators have been directors of the bank, and are not expected to vote to uncover their own negligence or rascality. Moreover, Government bills in South America have a way of passing.

Ever since the law of 1884 gave labor unions a legal standing in France, the professional "brothers and friends of the prolétariat" have been endeavoring to secure additional legislation in order to give the unions greater power over the masters. Twice already had the Chamber passed the desired bill, only to see it defeated in the Senate. Again this year the law Bovier-Lapierre, as it is called, received the approval of the Chamber by a vote of 293 to 231. Its first article provides for a punishment of imprisonment of from six days to one month, and a fine of from 100 to 2,000 francs, to be inflicted upon any "master, contractor or foreman" who, by threats of loss of employment, or offers of employment, or by dismissal of laborers on the ground of their being members of a union, shall "prevent or hinder the establishment or free operation of trades unions." Endeavor was made to have the law reciprocal, and lay the same penalties on "all workingmen or employees who, by the same means, shall force one or more laborers or employees to join or not to join a union, or to leave a union to which they belong." But this section was voted down, 291 to 131. The labor deputies were triumphant over this, and one of their leaders said: "We know what we want. We want a law against employers who oppress workingmen. As for employees threatening masters, there is no such a thing and never has been." But it is probable that the Senate will for the third time give the bill its quietus.

THE NEW LEGISLATIVE DISTRICTS.

ONE would suppose from reading the comments of the Republican press upon the new reapportionment of the Senate and Assembly districts of this State, agreed upon by the Legislature last week, that the division of districts under which we have been choosing legislatures for the past twelve years was a model of fairness and non-partisan arrangement. As a matter of fact, that division was as partisan and unfair as Republican zeal could well make it when it was put in force in 1879, and it has been growing steadily more unfair every year since, chiefly through the increase of population in the cities of New York and Brooklyn. Evidence of this has been given in many State elections, for, no matter how large the Democratic majority on the State ticket might be, the Republicans were almost invariably able to secure a majority in the Legislature, and to secure, when the time arrived to choose him, the election of a United States Senator.

This condition of affairs would have come to an end in 1886 had Gov. Hill not prevented the fulfilment of the Constitutional requirement for the taking of a State census in the previous year. It is not surprising that the Democrats, after suffering from Republican unfairness for so many years, should, when their time arrived to reapportion the State, give their opponents as large a dose of their own medicine as circumstances would permit. They have, therefore, divided the State in the interest of the Democratic party, with as much zeal as the Republicans divided it in 1879 in the interest of the Republican party. That is the sum and substance of their proceeding. We are not defending them any more than we should defend the Republicans under similar conditions. Neither are we able to see why any one should be surprised at the outcome. The ideal apportionment, one that should be absolutely fair to all parties, has not yet been made by any legislative body, and we were certainly not looking for it from the extraordinary assemblage which has been in session at Albany this winter.

The most striking fact about the new apportionment is the greatly increased power which it gives to the cities of New York and Brooklyn in both the Senate and Assembly. In the former body the two cities will have 13 of the entire 32 members, and in the latter 48 of the entire 128 members. That is to say, they will lack only four of a majority in the Senate, and only seventeen of a majority in the Assembly. Under the old division, the two cities had ten members of the Senate and thirty-six members of the Assembly. In the increase, New York has gained one Senator and six Assemblymen, and Brooklyn two Senators and six Assemblymen. As the total number of legislators remains unchanged, the country districts have lost what the cities have gained, and it follows that the power of the cities over legislation has been greatly increased.

At first glance this might be regarded as a calamity, especially when we consider that the power of New York and Brooklyn at Albany means the power of Bosses Croker and McLaughlin. If the delegations from these two cities should be able to control the organization of the two houses, that would mean that in future, as during the session just ended, Croker and McLaughlin would in reality be the law-makers for the State of New York, deciding absolutely as to what bills should pass and as to what other bills should not be permitted to pass. A curious illustration of their "power" was furnished in the case of a lawyer of this city who went to Albany a few weeks ago to oppose a pending measure. The Tammany Chairman of the Committee in charge of the measure told him that he need not trouble himself, for as there was nothing in the bill for the bosses, "orders" had been issued against its passage; but, said he to the lawyer, "If you wish to earn your fee from the people who sent you up here, we'll get up a 'fake' hearing for you and let you talk awhile."

Legislation by this extraordinary method is not popular government in the proper sense of the term, but it is legislation of the kind which the increasing growth of our great cities is giving many other States than New York. The larger representation which New York city and Brooklyn are to have at Albany is simply an outcome of their increase in population; and whatever harmful influence may be the result, it must be accepted as the inevitable outcome of our conditions. If the city representation is, as a whole, ignorant and vicious, the fault lies with the people of the cities who do not exert themselves to secure the choice of better men. Bad as it is, it would be difficult to prove that it is really worse than much of the so-called country representation. The Plunkitts, Sullivans, Dinkelspiels, Farquhars, and Mullaneys of New York are pretty evenly matched by the Erwins, Coggeshalls, Vedders, Husteds, and Sheehans from the more rural portions of the State. The city members are often blocked by the opposition of country members in their efforts to retreat from some unfavorable position through fear of disastrous consequences to themselves at the polls in the next election. We can always hold the city members to some accounting for their acts, but the country members can raid upon the cities without fear of consequences, and hence appeals to them are useless.

Under any apportionment, legislation controlled by bad men is bad legislation, and the only remedy for it is the sending of good men to the Legislature. The standard of legislative character and fitness has been descending lower and lower in all parts of the country for the past quarter of a century, partly through the growing power of the cities, and partly through the indifference and neglect of the intelligent and moral portions of the electorate to take an active part in political affairs. Until there is a change in this respect, it will be useless to hope for much improvement in the character of our legislators, whether they come from the city or the country.

DIVORCE AS A STATE INDUSTRY.

THE practical vs. the sentimental view of the divorce question, from the standpoint of Western life, has received recent and curious illustration. The sentimental view was illustrated by a debate on divorce at the Equal-Suffrage Convention in Detroit a fortnight ago. The Detroit *Journal* thus summarizes the debate:

"A great diversity of views appeared as to the cause of the divorce evil. Mrs. Jenkins thought it was drunkenness. Dr. Mary Willard thought that one of the grand causes was that men and women marry too early. Mrs. C. Q. Murphy of Toledo thought that financial troubles was the chief cause. Mrs. McAdow attributed the evil to the fact that wife and husband are not legal equal partners. Mrs. Lucy Thurman of Jackson thought that the cause is the wasteful habits of husbands, leaving wives to support their children at the washtub. The Rev. Lee S. McCollester said he had no pet theory about the divorce evil, but looked upon education as the remedy. The Rev. Jeanette L. Olmstead of Toledo thought that woman's dependence upon man is the cause. Giles B. Stebbins regarded the importation of a large criminal and pauper class as the cause of the increase of divorce."

The practical view of divorce is set forth in a six-column letter to the Chicago *Herald* from Sioux Falls, S. D., adorned with pictures of leading divorce judges and lawyers, and of famous *divorcées*. The difference in the newspaper treatment of the two views may be called typical of the difference between a question which concerns the amount of money brought into a State, the advertising of its resources and opportunities, and the embellishment of its society, and a question which concerns only sentimental debate on a time-worn reform of morals. The one, from the standpoint of "journalism," is "live news"; the other is "a chestnut."

The practical view of divorce, as a creditable and profitable State industry, is certainly a novel one, but the Sioux Falls correspondent makes out a good case from his point of view. It is one to be commended to those who take part in future discussions of "the evil," as giving them something definite to attack—preventing them from wasting effort in beating the air while groping around for a cause whose removal will change human nature. The correspondent begins by noting the signs of prosperity of the "divorce crop" in his own town of Sioux Falls, where the local bar, he says, is confident that "the product will fully equal, if not surpass, that of any previous season." But he fears the competition of Yankton, the rival centre of the South Dakota divorce industry. It seems that in Yankton "fresh encouragement and impetus" has been given to the industry by the erection of a new hotel, designed especially to gain the patronage of divorce "colonists" while "doing time"—that is, while waiting for the expiration of the ninety days of resi-

dence which qualifies a "colonist" to obtain a South Dakota divorce. This hotel was opened with "a dedicatory supper and ball," given by the proprietor to the divorce colony. The proprietor himself opened the ball, having for his partner a "dashing" New York woman who has nearly "served her time." The proprietor has also prepared a "beautifully printed" circular, setting forth the advantages of Yankton and of his hotel, which "has been sent by the hundreds to society in New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, and replies have been received in numbers quite encouraging to the divorce trade of Yankton."

But Sioux Falls is not idle. The proprietor of its principal hotel has refurnished his house and sent out circulars, offering, among other inducements, to "guarantee parties against the intrusion of newspaper men, and in many other ways to contribute to their seclusion and avoidance of notoriety. This last," the correspondent adds, "has become almost necessary to the prosperity of South Dakota's divorce industry." Sioux Falls has still another and incomparable advantage over Yankton in being the residence of "the most learned in divorce law" of all South Dakota judges. Besides that, this judge "is only thirty-three—just that ardent and susceptible age when woman's distress appeals to man most strongly. In all the cases that Judge Aikens has heard where the fair sex has appeared in complaint, his course has been marked by the tenderest sympathy and the most delicate solicitude for their interests."

The way in which the divorce industry benefits South Dakota is discussed by the correspondent at length. He cites the case of one famous *divorcée* who spent $10,000 during her residence in Sioux Falls —"to say nothing of attorneys' fees and other legal expenses"—and who gave $1,000 to St. Augustine's cathedral and $100 to the local branch of the Young Men's Christian Association. Her "new husband"—she was married almost immediately after obtaining her divorce—also "spent money like water," both of them patronizing "home merchants." The correspondent also quotes a prominent lawyer of Sioux Falls as saying:

> "The notoriety South Dakota has got is doing us no harm. It advertises us abroad, brings thousands of dollars here, not only to pay expenses of divorce suits, but for investment as well. Some of the people who come here for divorce have been so attracted by our resources as to make valuable investments."

The correspondent acknowledges that "the farming element and the religious element outside the large towns"—where there are no cathedrals or Young Men's Christian Associations to receive checks from "colonists"—are uneasy under the disgraceful notoriety of the State. These "elements," it seems, propose to lengthen the period of residence necessary for a divorce from ninety days to six months. The correspondent adds: "If the next Legislature shall be controlled by the Farmers' Alliance, this change in the law will be inevitable." But meanwhile the sentiment in the towns benefited by the industry is quite the reverse. Says the correspondent:

> "In Sioux Falls and Yankton anybody who would seriously mention such a proposition would encounter the risk of being drummed out of town. A correspondent of a St. Paul paper recently wrote a scorching criticism of the South Dakota divorce law, and strenuously urged its amendment; at which the citizens of Sioux Falls hunted out the offender and invited him to leave town."

The sort of ethics which is preached on this subject is well illustrated by an extract from a lecture on "South Dakota Divorce Laws" delivered recently before the Unity Club of Sioux Falls by Judge Parke Davis, "an eminent lawyer." In his lecture the Judge said:

> "No scandal can justly attach, either to the laws or the courts of the State of South Dakota, with reference to the subject of divorces. The standing and demeanor of those who obtain divorces here, almost without exception, have been such as to demonstrate that they are people of culture and social position, and that the grievances for which they seek relief are real. The purpose of their coming is a lawful one —as much so as if they sought the pure air and salubrious climate of the State for the benefit of their health, or its fertile soil for agricultural purposes."

Comparing, then, the sentimental and practical views of the divorce question, it is obvious how much stronger is "the pull" of the latter. In new States, where the struggle of life is hardest, and the resulting temptation to "boom" the State in every possible way is almost irresistible —the attempt, almost successful, of the Louisiana Lottery to get a foothold in North Dakota comes forcibly to mind—moral considerations must be held cheap. The one way in which a matter like this of divorce, which concerns the whole United States, can be satisfactorily regulated, is obviously through a uniform divorce law.

THE ANARCHISTS IN PARIS.

THERE seems to be a general disposition to throw the blame of the failure of justice, in the trial of the Anarchists in Paris, on the jury; but it is hardly to be wondered at that the courage of our Chicago convictions was not exhibited. Jurymen in any country may well lack nerve enough to defy a danger from which the police are compelled to admit that they cannot protect them. It was, of course, absurd, as well as cowardly on its face, to give a man like Ravachol the benefit of "extenuating circumstances," so as to save him from the guillotine; but every juryman, in giving a verdict, being human, necessarily thinks of the effect of it on himself, his family, and his business. The valor which ignores such considerations is exceedingly rare in any class, and especially in the peaceable, cautious commercial class from which jurymen are generally taken.

But there is no use in blinking the fact that the verdict is a triumph for the Anarchists, that it will greatly encourage them, and seriously increase the difficulty of extirpating them. For most of the class from which the Anarchists are drawn, a sentence of perpetual imprisonment has no terrors, for they know well that nothing in France is perpetual. Towards any class of political malcontents in that country, however ferocious or criminal, civil justice is not implacable. Juries recoil from the infliction of capital punishment, and, in the numerous ups and downs of French politics, the day for "a general amnesty" is sure to come. Of all the villains of the Commune of 1871 who were sentenced to deportation to Cayenne for life, we do not believe one now remains in durance vile. They have all been forgiven, and so Ravachol doubtless thinks it will be with him and his confederates. The chances are, therefore, that the dynamite outrages will continue, and even that the Anarchists proper will be recruited from that large class of Parisians who, as has been so happily said, are a curious mixture of the tiger and the monkey, and rejoice in any sort of mischief which makes the well-to-do class quake and baffles the police, even if they have no special object in view.

The truth is, indeed, that "Anarchist" is simply a new name for the old "Reds," of whom a crop or generation has appeared in Paris every twenty years since the Restoration, and has to be killed off by the army before there can be peace and quiet. They rose against the Republic of 1848 in 1849, and were extirpated during the terrible three days of June in that year, after sanguinary fighting in which more than 10,000 of them were killed, and in which they inflicted a loss nearly as great on the troops under Gen. Cavaignac. In those days of cobblestones and narrow streets, they erected barricades, which had to be stormed in succession. Twenty years later the new crop took advantage of the German invasion to seize on the city of Paris, murder as many of the judges and clergy and public functionaries as they could get hold of, rob the Treasury, and burn the public buildings, and fill the lives of the whole community with a terror that surpassed even that of 1793-'94. When the army finally got possession of the city, there was but a handful of the breed left. They were slaughtered without mercy, wherever caught. Their loss, during and after the siege, was put, by moderate computation, at 20,000. They were set in rows against the most convenient walls when the fighting was over, and despatched with a celerity which the murdering villains themselves must, even under such circumstances, have secretly admired.

Twenty years have elapsed since then, and Paris is face to face with the new crop. Barricades in the streets are no longer possible, and the capture of Paris is out of the question. But dynamite has come to their aid, and they are making the same use of it which their fathers and grandfathers made of "descending into the streets," when they struck terror into the bourgeoisie of 1849 and

1871. They will probably continue it till they compel the authorities to fall back on martial law, or, as the French call it, "the state of siege," and then the punishment of the dynamiters will really begin. With a man like Gen. Gallifet, whose name is still a word of terror to all the old Communards of 1871, in command of the troops, a dynamiter caught with his explosives on or about him would not have to undergo a tedious inquiry into his history, and would have but little opportunity to address the crowd or to face a trembling jury. Five minutes and three or four files of little red-legged men with rifles would dispose of his case, and his surviving friends would begin to fly from Paris as from a plague-stricken city.

To have to purge a great capital of its dangerous classes in this way in every generation is, of course, a great national shame, but it is one of the penalties of the way in which Frenchmen reformed their government one hundred years ago. From this point of view it is one of the most instructive lessons in politics that history supplies. In public as in private life, it is still true that when the fathers eat sour grapes, the children's teeth are set on edge. The present Republic seems the most stable government France has had in a century, but it is nevertheless possessed by the old devils who converted the first Revolution into an immense tragedy.

THE LATE PROFESSOR FREEMAN.

LONDON, April 19, 1892.

THERE are in the United States so many who have read and prized the historical writings of Mr. E. A. Freeman, whose death at Alicante five weeks ago came as a sudden and painful shock to the learned world of Europe, that some account of him and his work will probably have an interest for a large section of your readers. He was not only a very industrious and prolific author, and indeed, since the deaths of Dean Milman and Mr. Grote, the first of British historians, but in other respects also a remarkable man, with a peculiar character, which, while it was often misunderstood by those who had but a slight acquaintance with him, gave for those who knew him thoroughly an additional zest to his writings.

The keynote of his character was the extraordinary warmth of his interest in the things and persons he cared for, with a scarcely less conspicuous indifference to matters lying without the range of his sympathies. While he was still an undergraduate at Oxford, and influenced, like nearly all the ablest among his contemporaries, by the Tractarian opinions and sentiments which were then in the full force and freshness of their youth, he was drawn to the study of history, and led to throw himself into it, by an incident worth mentioning, because it shows the good which may occasionally be done by those university prizes which are so often ridiculed. The subject prescribed for the Chancellor's prize for an English essay happened, when he took his degree, to be the results of the Norman Conquest of England. He competed, but without success; the prize going to Mr. Chichester Fortescue, afterwards Lord Carlingford, a clever and cultivated man, who, however, never made his mark in letters. Freeman's essay was probably a much less finished composition than that of his rival. But he was accustomed to say that this competition had been the turning-point of his life, for when he began to prepare for writing, he went straight to the original authorities, and especially to the Saxon Chronicle; and from a study of them he conceived not only the wish to make history the business of his life, but a sense of the inestimable importance of historical sources contemporary with the events described.

Marrying early, he lost his fellowship, and went to live on the borders of Wales. As he had an independent income, he did not need to enter a profession, and enjoyed abundant leisure to occupy himself as he pleased. He loved a country life, but hated the field sports which most English country gentlemen love, and had neither taste nor talent for farming. His Tractarian proclivities had, however, given him an interest in church architecture, so he began to spend his time in studying mediæval buildings, and soon acquired a wonderfully full and exact knowledge of the most remarkable churches and castles all over England, with considerable skill in sketching them. By the end of his life he had accumulated a collection of thousands of drawings made by himself of notable buildings in France, Germany, Italy, and Dalmatia, as well as in the British Isles. Architecture was always to him the prime external record and interpreter of history. But it was the only art in which he took the slightest interest. He cared nothing for pictures or statuary; never, perhaps, visited a picture gallery in the course of his numerous journeys; and did not seem to perceive the value which paintings have as revealing the thoughts and social condition of the time which produced them. The only other branch of inquiry cognate to history which he valued was comparative philology. With no great turn for the refinements of classical scholarship, and, indeed, with some contempt for the practice of Latin and Greek verse-making which used to absorb so much of the time and labor of undergraduates and their tutors at Oxford and Cambridge, he was extremely fond of tracing words through different languages so as to establish the relations of the people who spoke them, and, indeed, used to argue that all teaching of languages ought to begin with Grimm's law, and to base his advocacy of the retention of Greek as a *sine qua non* for an Arts degree on the importance of that law. But with this love for philology as an instrument in the historian's hands, he took little pleasure in languages simply as languages—that is to say, he did not care to master the grammar and idioms of a tongue, nor did he possess any aptitude for doing so. French was the only foreign language he could speak with any approach to ease, though he could read German, Italian, and modern Greek. Nor did literature simply as literature attract him. In his later years, at any rate, he seldom or never read a book in any foreign tongue except for the sake of the historical or political information it contained.

History was to him not only primarily but almost exclusively a record of political events—of events in the sphere of war and of government. He expressed this view with concise vigor in the well-known dictum, "History is past politics, and politics is present history"; and though some of his friends frequently remonstrated with him against this view as far too narrow, excluding from the sphere of history many of its highest and deepest sources of interest, he would never give way. That others should care as much (or more) for the religious or philosophical opinions of an age, or for its ethical and social phenomena, as for forms of government or the battles of kings, seemed to him strange. He did not argue against the friends who differed from him, for he was always ready to believe that there must be something true and valuable in the views of a man whom he respected; but he could not be induced to devote his own labors to the elucidation of these matters, saying that they were not in his line.

The same predominant liking for the political element in history made him indifferent to many kinds of literature. Among the writers whom he most disliked were Plato, Carlyle, and Ruskin, in none of whom could he see any merit. Neither, although very fond of the Greek and Roman classics, did he seem to enjoy any of the Greek poets except Homer and, to some extent, Pindar. He was impatient with Virgil, because, as he thought, Virgil could not or would not say a thing simply. Among English poets, his preference was for the old heroic ballads, such as the songs of Brunanburh and Maldon, and, among recent writers, for Macaulay's Lays. Macaulay was also his favorite prose author, and he was wont to say that from Macaulay he had learned never to be afraid of using the same word to describe the same thing, and that no one was a better model to follow in the choice of pure English.

Such limitations of taste are not very uncommon among eminent men. What was really uncommon in him was the perfect frankness with which he avowed them, and the entire absence of any pretence at caring for things which he did not really care for. He was in this, as in all other matters, a singularly simple and truthful man, never seeking to appear other than as he was, and finding it hard to understand why other people should not be equally simple and direct. This directness made him express himself with an absence of reserve which sometimes gave offence; and the restriction of his interest to a few topics—wide ones, to be sure—seemed to increase the intensity of his devotion to those few. Never did a worker more heartily enjoy his work. He did not work at high pressure, nor let himself be hurried even over things which had to be done by a given time. But he was never idle, and was so methodical that he could carry on three different literary enterprises at the same time, and calculate exactly the rate at which each would advance. Although never strong physically, and in poor health during his later years, his industry did not flag, nor did he appear to need any relaxation beyond that of a country stroll or now and then the reading of a novel.

The two chief practical interests he had in life both connected themselves with his conception of history. One was the discharge of his duties as a magistrate in the local government of his county. The other was the politics of the time—foreign not less, perhaps even more, than domestic. He was all his life a strong Liberal, throwing himself warmly into every question which bore on the Constitution, either in State or in Church, for (as has been said) topics of the social or economic kind lay rather out of his sphere. When Mr. Gladstone launched his home-rule scheme in 1886, he espoused it warmly, and praised it especially for the very point which drew most censure even from Liberals—the removal of the Irish members from Parliament. He was intensely English and Teutonic, and wished the Celts to be left to settle their own affairs in their own island, as they had done centuries ago. Even the idea of separating Ireland altogether from

the English Crown would not have alarmed him; while, on the other hand, the plan of turning the United Kingdom into a federation, giving to England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales each a Parliament of its own, revolted all his historical instincts. In the case of his strongest political passion—hostility to the Turk—historical sentiment was united to his detestation of cruelty. Ever since the days of the Crimean war, he had been opposed to the traditional English policy of supporting the Sultan, and when Disraeli seemed on the point of carrying Britain into a war with Russia in defence of the Turks, no voice was louder or bolder than his in denouncing the policy then popular with the upper classes in England. On this occasion he gave substantial proof of his earnestness by breaking off his connection with the *Saturday Review* because it had espoused the Turkish cause. This cost him £600 a year—a sum which he could ill spare—and deprived him of opportunities he had greatly valued of expressing himself in what was then an important organ upon all sorts of current questions. But his sense of duty would not permit him to help a journal which lent itself to the support of a misguided policy and an unscrupulous Prime Minister.

At the election of 1868 he was a candidate for representative in Parliament of one of the divisions of Somerset, the county he lived in, and showed in his platform speeches a remarkable gift of eloquence, and occasionally, also, of humor, coupled with a want of those petty arts which usually contribute more than eloquence does to political success. He was a warm advocate of Disestablishment in Ireland, because he thought the Roman Catholic Church was of right the national church there; but no less decidedly opposed to it in England, where so radical a change would have shocked his historical feelings, and rooted out much that was entwined with the ideas and events of the Middle Ages. The strong view of historical sentiment that ran through all his opinions was one cause of his fondness for the United States, in which he delighted to trace the perpetuation not only of so many old English institutions, but of so much of the English political spirit. He enjoyed intensely the months he spent there in 1881, and was always hoping to return again.

He was endeared to his friends, of whom he had a very large circle, chiefly by three things. One was his singular truthfulness. Another was his hearty hatred of every form of oppression and cruelty, and his readiness at any moment to go forth and do battle against it. The third was his capacity for affection. Once he had admitted any one among those whom he reckoned as friends, his kindness was unfailing, and he was prepared not only to take the part of his friend and put the most favorable view on his conduct, but even to receive with good temper trenchant criticisms from him. Seldom has a hard-working literary man kept up so large a correspondence—a correspondence not of business, but of pure friendship; for he wrote because he felt the constant need of interchanging his thoughts with those whom he cared for. Such a keen sense of what friendship implies and demands is rare in our modern life, and wins a corresponding attachment from those who are its objects.

I have still some remarks to make on his work as an historian and teacher of history, but must reserve them for another letter.

O. D.

TALLEYRAND'S MEMOIRS CONCLUDED.

PARIS, April 14, 1892.

"HABENT sua fata libelli." These famous Memoirs of Talleyrand, which have been expected with a morbid curiosity for half a century, have appeared, and truth obliges me to state that they have been received coldly by our modern public—our public "fin de siècle," accustomed to the spicy dishes of our present literature. There are many reasons for it: our reading public has been saturated with politics, and the Memoirs of Talleyrand are chiefly, almost entirely, political. Talleyrand deals with a Europe which exists no more, with a political equilibrium which is come to an end. Talleyrand goes very rapidly over the only events which now would excite our curiosity; we care more (I speak of the majority of readers) for the part which he played in the affair of the Duc d'Enghein than for the part which he played in the constitution of the Belgian kingdom. People expected revelations about Napoleon and his family, about many important personages of the Empire and of the Restoration; they find diplomatic despatches and political essays, extremely clever, very profound at times, but we no longer plume ourselves on our appreciation of such documents. Our political sagacity has been so often baffled that we are reduced to a state of indifference in political matters.

It is a curious phenomenon to observe: a novel by Pierre Loti, a book by Zola, a clever vaudeville, a music-hall song, have become our subjects of conversation and of interest; the time is soon approaching when we shall read nothing but short newspaper articles. We have a class of writers who excel in picking the plums out of every pudding, and who give us only the plums. The serious *Revue des Deux Mondes* had not long ago an article of four pages only; it was a sign of the times. We live fast and we read fast.

This fifth and last volume of the Memoirs of Talleyrand has 600 pages. Few, I am afraid, will go through it carefully; it will remain on the shelves of good libraries as a document for some future historian, for the time will come, perhaps, when we shall appear more interesting to others than we are at present to ourselves. The Duc de Broglie has written an introduction to this fifth volume; he says in it that he will fulfil his pledge to give to our National Library the manuscript volumes which he has edited, without any change or retrenchment. It is true that this manuscript is not an autograph of Prince Talleyrand, but it is a copy certified by the executors of the Prince. The discussion which took place on the subject of the first volumes of the Memoirs leaves no doubt as to their authenticity. The most competent judges have pronounced on the subject, and I may say that anybody having the slightest knowledge of the world and of literary matters could not hesitate to affirm the Memoirs to be the work of Talleyrand himself, and that they have nothing in common with those apocryphal compositions which unfortunately abound in our literature, and which are historical novels rather than real historical documents. That the original text has been changed seems improbable to whoever knows anything about style; but I confess that I would not swear that many suppressions have not been made—the Memoirs glide at times too rapidly over very important events. But suppression is only a negative sin: we may have lost something of Talleyrand; what we have kept is really his.

"I know well," says the Duc de Broglie, "that people had generally formed of the Memoirs an idea very different from what a complete knowledge of them has now revealed. In consequence of the precautions, perhaps excessive, taken by his executors in order to prevent a premature publication, they had imagined that the secret could have been kept so long only because it bore on facts of a delicate and mysterious nature; and that, once the veil uplifted, there would appear curious revelations, satirical portraits, wicked anecdotes, perhaps even confidences on the facilities which the relaxation of manners allowed to the worldly clergy of the old régime."

These expectations have been baffled, and Talleyrand has treated only serious subjects in a serious manner. The fifth volume begins with the second part of the "Revolution of 1830," in the years 1832, 1833. On his return to Paris after the death of Casimir Périer, he found the Cabinet much weakened. "Intrigues of all sorts crossed each other around the ministerial portfolio; the ambition of a few was less troublesome than the presumption of all. Such is the consequence of revolutions, which put everything out of joint." (Might not these lines apply to our situation now and to our weak and changing Cabinets?) Talleyrand, not caring much for such a spectacle, left for the Baths. He was pressed to return to London, but he remained quietly at Bourbon-l'Archambault.

"I resented the arrogance of the Belgians, who did not deserve that our Government should compromise itself for them, and I asked that they should be forced to give up what was reasonable. My advice was not much followed on this point, and they hurried, on the contrary—wrongly, in my opinion—to conclude the marriage of the Princess Louise of Orleans with King Leopold, which took place at Compiègne on the 9th of August. It was very evident that the precipitation with which this marriage was concluded could only embarrass our affairs, by increasing the demands of the French and Belgian revolutionists. The King of Holland fortunately came to our help by the bad faith which he brought to the negotiations of the London Conference."

I have given this passage, as it shows very well the temper of Talleyrand: he was willing to create a Belgium, but he wished it to be a modest Belgium, to have it subordinate to the great Powers, and especially to France. He was a liberal, he disliked the revolutionists; he meant to employ any and all means to give to French diplomacy a preponderating part in Europe; and he was conscious that he could, better than anybody else, assure and maintain it in this preponderance. He wished to establish a solid constitutional government in France, though he had a secret contempt for parliamentary discussions and for the new political personnel of the Revolution of 1830.

Just after the fall of the citadel of Antwerp, which a French army had besieged, Talleyrand lost a personal friend in the person of the Princesse de Vaudémont (who belonged to the house of Lorraine), his confidential correspondent. She died on January 1, 1833.

"I lost in her a friend of fifty years. I had known her at the house of her mother-in-law, the Comtesse de Brionne, where I had spent the most agreeable years of my youth; our relations had never suffered any change, and I could not console myself for the loss of such a faithful friend. She rendered me a service, even after her death, her heirs having sent back to me the letters which I had addressed to her; and from these letters I have taken many details which have helped me to write my Memoirs, and which would probably have gone out of my memory."

After the Belgian question the Eastern question became the chief preoccupation of Talleyrand in London. The rivalry of the Sultan Mahmud and of the Pasha of Egypt, Mehemet

Ali, was the origin of it. Mehemet Ali, a soldier of Albania, had become Vice-King of Egypt, and had succeeded in creating an army and a navy; he had extended his power over Nubia and a part of Arabia. His embassy in London was the last episode in the political career of Prince Talleyrand; he resigned in 1834. Some of the letters which he wrote at that time are very fine; there is one to Louis Philippe which is very remarkable: "I have, thanks to you, Sire, obtained for the Revolution of July the *droit de cité* [freedom of the city] in Europe. My task is accomplished, and I insist now on retiring, as I need rest." The Cabinet of Lord Melbourne had just retired. The Duke of Wellington had been charged with the formation of an administration in the absence of Sir Robert Peel.

"Whatever," continues Talleyrand, "may be my respect for the character, the strength, and the prudence of the Duke of Wellington, I could not withdraw my resignation merely because he returns to power, without becoming instantly a party man in both countries, and consequently less able to serve the King. I have never been the man of a party; I have never wished to be, and this has been my strength. When, four years ago, I started for England, I was, in the eyes of France—of France which is so severe in its national susceptibilities—what I always wished to be, the man of France. To-day, I should be, for her, the man of the Duke of Wellington. The King forgets too often, in his indulgent kindness, my great age; he forgets that it is not allowed an octogenarian to be wanting in prudence, for what makes the faults of old age so sad is, that they are irreparable."

Talleyrand spent the years of his retreat either on his fine estate at Valençay or in Paris in his hôtel on the Rue Saint-Florentin (now owned and occupied by Alphonse de Rothschild). He lived only four years more, and died in Paris on May 17, 1838. On the morning of his last day he signed a retraction of the errors of his life which had been censured by the Church, and this was sent to Pope Gregory XVI.

In an appendix to this fifth and last volume of the Memoirs, there is a sort of historical essay written by Talleyrand on the Duc de Choiseul and his administration. It was among the papers which were entitled "Memoirs," but was written several years before the Memoirs were begun. The Duc de Broglie, however, thought it important enough to publish it; it was perhaps because he is himself very much interested in the period in which the Duc de Choiseul lived. The essay begins in this airy manner: "The Duc de Choiseul had much natural wit, little education, a great deal of assurance; a good name with a slight foreign veneer which classed him equally among the grand seigneurs of France and of Germany. The branch of Choiseuls to which he belonged was in the service of the Dukes of Lorraine." The portraits of Madame du Barry and of Madame de Pompadour are very striking; they are not written with indulgence. Talleyrand remarks, for instance, that, different as these two ladies were in almost every respect, they resembled each other completely in one point—in the feminine art of lying. His final judgment on Choiseul is not more indulgent: "Here ends this brilliant career, more remarkable for social successes than signalized in history by characteristic marks of real merit. . . . M. de Choiseul will remain in history only as a man who governed France for eleven years by the despotism of fashion; his name recalls no battles won, no glorious treaties."

Correspondence.

THE OTHER SIDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an address before the Massachusetts Society for Promoting Good Citizenship, Mr. Theodore Roosevelt makes some remarks which, as they go to the root and basis of our politics, are worth discussion.

"Undoubtedly it would be well for our Congressmen to pay more heed to the writings of those who have studied our political questions from an outside standpoint; but beyond doubt these outsiders have more to learn from the practical politicians in Congress than the latter have to learn from them, and it would be the greatest misfortune possible to have some of the favorite theories of these outside reformers actually reduced to practice."

The main propcsition relied upon to support this statement seems to be unfortunately selected:

"During the last three years the methods of Congressional procedure at Washington have been immensely changed for the better. Long strides have been taken in the direction of making Congress a really effective and responsible legislative body, both by rendering mere factious obstruction comparatively easy to suppress (and mere factious obstruction can never be pardonable) and also by lodging in a given committee, which adequately represents the majority of the House, power to single out of the immense mass of legislation proposed those measures which deserve especial attention, and to put them on their passage."

What this really means is that the Speaker, as the blind instrument of a party majority, has assumed the power, by counting quorums, and recognizing some speakers and refusing to recognize others at his pleasure, of forcing through legislation in the interest of the majority; and, further, that a committee, also representing the party majority, and of which the Speaker is a member, shall determine in secret conclave what measures shall be taken up by the House and forced through under gag rules without effective debate. Could there be a more potent instrument for subjecting all legislation to the influence of the lobby, which already rules Congress with an iron hand? It must have been a desperate condition of things upon which that was an improvement.

Mr. Roosevelt refers with triumph to the Copyright Act. Not understanding it myself, I believe that experts regard it as a lame and half-hearted instalment of a simple act of justice, which is much less remarkable for its passage than for the disgraceful neglect which has so long stained our statute books.

"For instance, as my friend, the Honorable Andrew D. White, remarked to me the other day, one of the prime, cardinal merits of our Constitution, one of the reasons why it works so well, is the fact that we do not have what in England is called responsible government."

The abolition of slavery was not effected by Congress, but by sheer force of the popular will, in tacit submission to four years of military despotism. Setting that apart, if Mr. Roosevelt will point to one single act of Congress which has ever contributed to the direct and permanent welfare of the great mass of the people, to a degree in any way bearing comparison with the results obtained under an executive ministry in England by the Parliamentary Reform Act of 1832, the repeal of the Corn Laws, the gradual reform of the tariff, the Civil-Service Rules of 1853, the transfer of contested-election questions to the courts, the measures for the suppression of bribery, the disestablishment of the Irish Church, the measures for the Government of India, I will give up the contest, at least as far as he is concerned.

I will not yield to any man living in love for our country or its institutions. My enthusiasm for this magnificent people, which carried through the civil war, and, without a shadow of revengeful feeling, launched the Union on a fresh career of power and prosperity, amounts almost to idolatry. My aversion to the social, and in most respects the political, conditions of Europe is such that I never desire to set foot on her shores again. And yet I say that government by Congress and the State Legislatures, under present conditions and without official leaders, is a ramshackle machinery which suppresses instead of expressing the will of the people, and hands over the welfare of the nation to unscrupulous adventurers and gigantic combinations of local and private interests in a way which is slowly but stea ily conducting us to another civil war.

Nobody that I know of proposes a Ministry responsible to Congress as the English Ministry is to Parliament. Happily our Executive is not created by Congress but by the people, and our fixed terms provide for an appeal to the people quite as often as is done in practice under the English system. And when Mr. Roosevelt sneers at "the very estimable gentlemen who flatter themselves that they have looked intelligently at public questions," he forgets, though he cannot cancel, the fact that in 1881 eight Senators of both parties unanimously and urgently recommended a plan which covers in every particular all that I, for one, have ever asked for or desired.

Mr. Roosevelt's address will carry all the weight which belongs to his high personal character and his position as Civil-Service Commissioner; but if he expects to prevail by force of argument, it seems to me that he will need to strengthen his logic a little. G. B.

Boston, April 29, 1892.

THE STUDY OF ENGLISH LITERATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to inform Mr. Matthews that the Agricultural College of Iowa acknowledges "that the teaching of the English language and the teaching of English literature are equally important, and wholly unrelated one to the other, and recognizes this truth by the establishment of two [full and] independent professorships, one of the English language and one of English literature." I am obliged to cut out the word "full," because our resources are so limited that the Professor of English Literature is obliged also to give instruction in History; but that shows that the professor is overworked, not that the work is slighted; and it is not an important fact to one who is investigating the principles which control the instruction in literature and in language. At any rate, "these two equal professorships exist side by side" in this college. The two departments are in charge of different professors; and English literature is studied as a literature, not as a source of illustrations of grammar or philology. A. C. Barrows.

Ames, Iowa, April 27, 1892.

"DOG GONE IT."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent under this head, in your issue of April 21, starts a curious question. In my boyhood, I was familiar wth the

use to which he refers, among the Virginia youngsters of that day, although I should have said that the participle "dog-goned" was common, while he thinks it was unknown. The origin or etymology of the use is certainly obscure. I am not satisfied with his theory that it means, or originally meant, dogging, in the sense of being chased or worried by a dog. Vulgar uses of words tend downwards, not upwards (*e. g.*, "gossip," "good-bye," "maudlin"): and that the figure of being worried by a dog should come to express the high though bad sentiment involved in swearing, would be a case of etymological tendency upwards, so far as concerns the matter of the dignity (worthiness) of language. I should rather think it to be a case of *soft swearing*, like "durn" or "darn," instead of the common Anglo-Saxon imprecation. I should think so, but for the fact that I find Barrie, in 'The Little Minister,' using it as vulgar Scotch. Thus, Rob Dow says, "*Dagon* religion, it spoils a' things"; and in the delightful chapter where the minister unexpectedly gave out his text from Ezra, "Ezra, *dagont*, it looked as if Ezra had jumped clean out of the Bible." The identity of the Scotch with the Virginia use is plain. It is not likely that it was ever an importation into Scotland from Virginia, for the Scotch, when they swear at all, do so without dodging or affectation. Did the Virginians get it from the Scotch, and how? There seems to be here a question of word-kinship worth determining. Mr. Lowell, alas! could have answered it. Who else can?

C. B.

Boston, April 26, 1892.

Notes.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce a new edition in three volumes of Lord Chesterfield's Letters, edited by Dr. Broadhurst, and retaining also Lord Mahon's notes, and with six portraits; and 'From the Arctic Ocean to the Yellow Sea,' a Siberian journey by Julius M. Price.

James Russell Lowell's Lowell Institute lectures on the English Dramatists will be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. in the fall.

The fifth volume of the English translation of Talleyrand's Memoirs will shortly be brought out by G. P. Putnam's Sons, together with 'The Story of the Byzantine Empire,' by C. W. C. Oman.

Misses Searle & Girton, Chicago, will publish a volume of blank verse by Blanche Fearing, entitled 'In the City by the Lake.'

The sixth volume of the New Cambridge Shakespeare (Macmillan) includes "Troilus and Cressida," "Coriolanus," "Titus Andronicus," and "Romeo and Juliet." The notes show to an attentive eye the thoroughness with which whatever was appropriate to this edition of the text has been incorporated. In point of authority, as well as of convenience and cheapness, it is the best library edition, and the near completion of the set makes it the more available.

The reissue of Peacock's novels (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan) is continued with 'Crotchet Castle,' the work which is on all accounts the most successful of the whole set, because it represents its author at the moment when he had sufficiently aged to be tolerant of what he laughed at, was prosperous enough to be genial, and had not yet stocked his mind with crotchets of his own, as he came to do. Dr. Garnett's introduction, like all he has furnished, is a model of point and brevity and good nature in criticism. He singles out the character of Dr. Folliott as the only "type" which Peacock contributed to the English world of books, and he especially praises the ballad of "The Pool of the Diving Friar" as unrivalled in the language in its kind. We observe, apropos of "crotchets," that he says, upon his own account, that "the ideal of improvement has been lowered" since the forces of the time of George IV. spent themselves.

Swan Sonnenschein & Co. publish in their Social Science Series (which is imported by Charles Scribner's Sons) a volume by F. Engels entitled 'The Condition of the Working Class in England in 1844.' As this work was written in 1845, it may have a certain interest as showing that the representations as to the status of this class made by the Socialists are very much the same now as then. But the evidential value of these representations is of the slightest, and time spent over this book would be wasted by any one who sincerely desired to inform himself concerning its nominal subject.

The second part of Palgrave's 'Dictionary of Political Economy' (Beeke-Chamberlayne), is now delivered by the publishers, Macmillan & Co. The character of this publication was sufficiently described by us on the appearance of the first part, and we merely note that the list of contributors contains the names of several American professors—Ashley, Dunbar, Dewey, Richmond Smith, and Taussig.

Mr. Traill Taylor's 'Optics of Photography and Photographic Lenses' (Macmillan & Co.) is not in any proper sense a scientific treatise, though a certain amount of scientific explanation and even demonstration is introduced. The subject of photographic lenses is discussed at length, and the different forms of lens are very clearly shown by sections. There is perhaps not enough in the way of statement as to the precise advantages and disadvantages of the lenses of different makers. Still, the book is good and useful.

The autobiographic character of Mr. Joel Chandler Harris's 'On the Plantation' (D. Appleton & Co.) invests it with a peculiar interest. The sub-title calls it "a story of a Georgia boy's adventures during the war," and it is really a valuable, if modest, contribution to the history of the civil war within the Confederate lines, particularly on the eve of the catastrophe. While Mr. Harris in his preface professes to have lost the power to distinguish between what is true and what is imaginative in his episodical narrative, the reader readily finds the clue, and it is instructive to notice how "Uncle Remus's" humor is robbed of its contagiousness when the tale is about a funny incident in his own experience, which he is too conscientious to embellish. Two or three new animal fables are introduced with effect; but the history of the plantation, the printing-office, the black runaways and white deserters of whom the impending break-up made the community tolerant, the coon and fox-hunting, forms the serious purpose of the book, and holds the reader's interest from beginning to end. Like 'Daddy Jake,' this is a good anti-slavery tract in disguise, and does credit to Mr. Harris's humanity. There are amusing illustrations by E. W. Kemble. It is a pity the publishers could not have spent a little more money in procuring a better portrait of "Uncle Remus" himself than the poor process cut which serves as a frontispiece.

We welcome the 'Coöperative Index to Periodicals,' for 1891, edited as heretofore by Mr. W. I. Fletcher of the Amherst Library and a corps of volunteers from the American Library Association. The alphabetical list of topics generally has the writer's name accompanying his article; and these writers are in turn alphabetized, and their several articles ranged beside them, in the second part of the volume. Good indexing could no further go.

Pacini of Pescia, an early Florentine printer, issued at least four editions of the 'Trionfi' of Petrarch, which attained great popularity and have become excessively rare, so that all of them except the third are now represented by a single known copy, and none can be found outside of the cities of Rome, Florence, Perugia, and Trieste. The first of these, of 1499, is unique, and is preserved in the Victor Emanuel Library at Rome. This highly interesting specimen of early printing has lately been reproduced in facsimile (Rome: Genua & Strizzi) by the photo-zincographic process, and now the humblest library in the world may in this particular place itself on a par with the depository of the original publication, for all purposes of study and use. Such world-wide distribution of single perishable books and manuscripts ought to enter into the scheme of every great library. The Bodleian provides for photographic reduplications in certain lines, to order, at a reasonable rate. The 'Trionfi' of 1499–1891 (12mo, pp. 70) costs 20 lire, or $4. At $1, with due advertisement, it might have found much more than four times the sale, one would suppose. The illustrations, typography, orthography, peculiar readings, marginal annotations, and biographical sketch, of the edition are curious in a high degree.

Of all the French critics of our generation, no one has so strong a liking for Boileau as M. Brunetière; and it was therefore with an obvious sense of fitness that he was announced as the writer to whom the study of Boileau had been confided by M. Jusserand in his excellent series "Les Grand Écrivains Français." The volume on Boileau has now appeared, and it is not by M. Brunetière, but by M. Gustave Lanson, to whom we owe an admirable biographical criticism of Nivelle de la Chaussée. It is no dispraise of M. Lanson to say that his criticism has not the weight of M. Brunetière's, or that he does not project Boileau's figure quite as boldly as we may hope M. Brunetière would have done. But none the less his book is most acceptable, and it will help to restore Boileau to his rightful place as one of the very best of French critics. M. Lanson has no difficulty in showing that Boileau was very far from being the narrow-minded bigot that the Romanticists generally represented him to be.

Grillparzer's 'Ansichten über Litteratur, Bühne und Leben' (Stuttgart: Goeschen) is the record of conversations with the distinguished Austrian poet, held at intervals between 1839 and 1871 by Adolph Foglar, himself a son of the Muses and an ardent admirer of the author of 'Die Ahnfrau.' Grillparzer has the reputation of a thorough pessimist and misanthrope, and although this brochure shows him in a more amiable light, it must be confessed that most of his utterances, however true, are tinged with cynicism. He had an intense dislike of the Czechs, and would not admit that they could excel in anything. "The whole nation fiddles and fifes, but has never yet produced a single great musician." Herr Foglar intimates that he has still much material in manuscript, which he hesitates to print lest it should excite odium, and we can readily believe him. His book is interesting reading, and will serve to supplement the biographies of the poet already published, and prove a valu-

able source of information to those yet to be written.

A work of similar character and issued by the same publishing house is 'Vischer: Erinnerungen, Äusserungen und Worte,' by Ilse Frapan. In 1883 Miss Frapan of Hamburg, following a custom only too common with young ladies of literary aspirations, sent some verses to the well-known professor of æsthetics, Friedrich Theodor Vischer, with the request that he would deign to pass judgment upon them. This rather ungrateful task he performed with conscientiousness tempered by good humor, which led to further correspondence, and finally to personal acquaintance at Stuttgart, where the young poetess attended the Professor's lectures and became one of his most enthusiastic disciples. Her volume is divided into three sections, which treat respectively of Vischer as orator and teacher, his domestic and social life, with an account of the celebration of his eightieth birthday in 1887, and his death in the same year. The book is excellent as a revelation of Vischer's character, although the publication of some of his sharp and often harsh utterances about living authors may be more entertaining to the general public than to the persons criticised.

In response to the request of the New York Commandery of the Loyal Legion, Gen. Wager Swayne has printed his interesting address upon the "Ordinance of 1787 and the War of 1861," recently delivered before it. He traces the history of the Ordinance, with many apt quotations from contemporaneous letters and documents, from its origin in the petition of the two hundred and eighty-five Revolutionary officers, mostly New England men, in June, 1783, for a grant of land in the Northwest Territory, to its adoption by the moribund Continental Congress on July 13, 1787. The pregnant words, "neither slavery nor involuntary servitude," in Article VI. and repeated in the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, he shows to have been first used by Thomas Jefferson in the draft of a similar ordinance submitted to Congress in April, 1784. This clause was rejected, however, at that time, and was inserted only at the last moment in the latter document, in all probability through the influence of Dr. Manasseh Cutler, the agent of the Ohio Company. Following a brief account of the settlement of Marietta is a sketch of the anti-slavery movement as connected with the States which the orator aptly terms the "children of the Ordinance." Portraits are given of Dr. Cutler and of Gen. Rufus Putnam, the leader of the pioneers, and pictures of the Massachusetts home of the latter and of Federal Hall in Wall Street, together with a map of the "Old Northwest."

The April number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* is noticeable for its papers relating to Washington. His account-books are put to good use by Dr. J. M. Toner, who constructs from them a real character of Washington the man—in dress, books, pictures, amusements, gaming and betting, charity and public spirit, care of his slaves, etc.

Capt. F. E. Younghusband's striking account of his two recent journeys in the Pamir is published in the April Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. The most interesting part is the description of the vast glaciers on the Mustagh Range, overhung by "ice peaks broken into every fantastic shape, with great fringes of drooping icicles hanging from their sides." On one of them the snow was of a beautiful pale transparent blue. Signs of former cultivation were to be found in almost all the mountain valleys, but the Khirgiz have been driven away by the raids of the Kanjutis of Hunza, a mountain tribe whose chiefs claim descent from Alexander the Great. At one point there were the remains of smelting-furnaces, with evidences of the existence of iron, copper, and gold in the surrounding hills. The great height of this region, which Capt. Younghusband calls the "upper storey" of the world, in reference to the flat-roofed houses of Turkistan, may be learned from the fact that "the bottoms of these Pamir valleys are level with the higher summits of the Alps."

In *Natura ed Arte* for April 15 (Milan: F. Vallardi), we find a statement of the growth of the collection of editions of the 'Divine Comedy' in the National Central Library at Florence. Since 1888 a special effort has been made to perfect this collection, and its Italian series now numbers 307. A negligible hundred or so still remain to be acquired, besides four or five extremely rare editions. The translations number 124, apart from 11 in Italian dialects. Of these France shows 39, Germany 38, and England 20.

We spoke, while they were in course of publication in *Garden and Forest*, of Mr. J. B. Harrison's remarkable series of letters from the Massachusetts shore, revealing the extent to which the people of that State had forfeited access to the sea and parted with their public commons. The whole correspondence is now reprinted in connection with the first annual report of the new Massachusetts Trustees of Public Reservations, of whom Mr. Charles Eliot, No. 50 State Street, Boston, is the secretary. The pamphlet ought to have the widest possible distribution in every State in the Union, for it points the way to an efficient combination of legislative action with public spirit for the purposes in view. The Corporation has been authorized to hold as trustees and to maintain for the public benefit "beautiful and historical places and tracts of land" within the State, to the extent of a million dollars; and these reservations will be exempt from taxation. Already one gift has been made and a fund for maintenance partly raised. The donor was a woman, and women have been significant contributors to the expenses of the Trustees thus far. Gifts of landscape *in memoriam* are also contemplated. An appendix contains the text of Massachusetts statutes pertinent to the subject.

An effort is making to establish an American Jewish Historical Society, and an early meeting for organization in Washington is contemplated. Dr. Cyrus Adler of Johns Hopkins University may be addressed in regard to it.

The American Library Association will hold its fourteenth annual conference at the Laurel House, Lakewood, N. J., on May 16-19, at Baltimore May 20, and Washington May 21. An excursion into Virginia will follow the Washington session.

The Catalogue of English Prose Fiction which we noticed the other day as coming to us from St. Louis, should have been credited to the Mercantile Library of that city.

We must also rectify our notice of the Summer School of Pedagogy and Psychology to be held at Clark University, so far as to characterize Dr. Wm. H. Burnham as Dean of the School and not of the University.

—The May *Atlantic* is distinguished by the publication of the Emerson-Thoreau correspondence, of which, however, there is more to come. The present lot consists of sixteen letters, seven being from Emerson, written during the *Dial* period, and concerned for the most part with personal or editorial affairs. At first Thoreau, who was an inmate of the Emerson household, writes to Emerson in New York, and later the correspondents exchange places. The most interesting matter is the glimpse of Thoreau's impression of New York in 1843, and next to that the home-feeling of the two men. The tone is curiously far off, and belongs to a very small community. The second portion of the correspondence will contain the letters written during Emerson's English visit in 1847, when Thoreau went back to his friend's house. In the paper upon "Private Life in Ancient Rome," Mrs. Preston makes a welcome return to the scenes of classical interest which she presents with so much vividness, and in so entertaining a fashion as to make her work an example to those whose business it is to give instruction in this field, as well as a treasure to all students. In the remainder of the number David Dodge's account of the scenes about a North Carolina homestead at the close of the war is the most attractive article, full of reality, humor, and good feeling; the extracts from Severn's Roman diary, especially those dealing with the occupation of the city by the Italians, have the best qualities of contemporary history of that sort; and the discussion of the requirements for admission to Harvard College, by Prof. Greenough, puts a rather complicated matter in a plain way so as to show the underlying logic of it. The political writer of the magazine attacks the gerrymander with vigor, and urges the quota system as a practicable and sufficient remedy. The number ends with a quantity of reviews.

—Mr. Jacob A. Riis's paper, in *Scribner's*, upon "The Children of the Poor," is a model of what such writing should be—explicit, straightforward, full of plain facts and personal impressions, and entirely free from sentimentality, violence, or preaching of any sort. The story, as a picture of child life merely, without any reference to philanthropy or reform, is admirably told, and holds the attention of the reader either by its realism in the grosser and darker parts, or by its natural comedy and picturesque scenes in the brighter portions. The most striking quality shown by the writer is his invincible hopefulness about the future of these children under our institutions; he sustains the mood apparently without effort; and when his close acquaintance with the conditions of the problem and the nature of these children of all races is remembered, the cheerfulness he displays is the best encouragement to maintain and multiply the various means of aid which seem so beneficent in their results. Mr. Thomas Curtis Clarke opens a discussion of the rapid-transit problem with a comparative description of the systems of the great European and American cities, with maps, and shows the lines of their common experience; he postpones his solution of the question to the next number. The "Linden," in the Great Streets Series, is described by Paul Lindau in a way to show its national and historical spirit and expression. Prof. Shaler contributes a paper of a characteristic sort upon the action of the sea on the shore; Mr. Apthorpe concludes his elaborate account of the Paris theatres with a criticism of the critics, and particularly of M. Sarcey; and the "Historic Moment" of the month is the "First News Message by Telegraph."

—Mr. Howells signalizes the beginning of his editorship of the *Cosmopolitan* by a number strong in variety and notable in the list of contributors. Mr. Lowell's poem, "The Nobler Lover," is much marred by the unfortunate way in which it is obscured in the

printing, and by the incongruous design which overloads the page and spares only the crowded corner to the verse, to such a degree as to make one question whether Mr. Walter Crane did not think that the poem was meant to illustrate his figures. This is a fault both of artistic taste and of dignity, for the verses, apart from their being Lowell's last, are worth reams of such decorative work. In the body of the magazine Miss Jewett and Frank Stockton are the veteran story-tellers, and Henry James, T. W. Higginson, and E. E. Hale the veteran essayists. Mr. James pays the tribute of friendship to Wolcott Balestier, and the other two write in their accustomed way of their accustomed topics. Mr. Higginson's remarks on libraries, especially as regards intrusting the public with larger privileges in using them, are most practical, and should be looked at by those librarians and trustees whose instinct is still to lock up instead of to scatter. Dr. Garner explains his theory of "simian speech," and relates his experience in detecting and using it. Mr. Roosevelt argues with unabated force and pungency the plea of civil-service reform. Mr. Brander Matthews is the critic of the magazine. Prof. Boyesen contributes the most entertaining paper—a slight travel-sketch among the Lapps. Mr. Howells confines himself to farce. The variety of short papers and the absence of serials are the striking traits of the number.

—"Japanese Characteristics" is the subject of a charming paper by Prof. C. G. Knott, in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for April. It is derived from the experiences of an eight years' residence in Japan, and corrects some of the false impressions of the people given by chance travellers. The ordinary globe-trotter rarely sees anything but the out-door life of the middle or lower classes. "He may never meet a real lady of Japan at all," or a gentleman in private life. In reference to the charge frequently made that the present generation are essentially imitators, he says that in all their imitations there is a subtle Japanese flavor, even though it be a spurious label for Bass's ale, which differentiates it from the thing imitated. Nor have they a trivial, butterfly nature, as many suppose. Though they enter heartily and with a childlike zest into any amusement, yet it is only a momentary throwing aside of care, for the nation itself is "terribly in earnest." A failure to get at principles, and the lack of an all-round intellectual vigor, mark the cultured classes. "Only in one direction, that of pure and applied science, have they made any real progress." As regards their moral condition, Prof. Knott believes that the average is no lower than that of Europe or America. There is no morality of the high spiritual type which Christianity produces, but there is rarely to be found that low, brutal type which, unfortunately, also characterizes our Western civilization. The condition of the women, in the upper classes at least, is passing "from a condition of virtual bondage to one of comparative liberty," and whether in the change they will retain the qualities which are their special charm, is a question difficult to answer. In some circumstances old customs are curiously enforced. "For example, when dressed in native costume, the husband will precede the wife; but when decked out in Western robes, the wife will be graciously permitted to enter a room in front of her husband." It is significant, too, that "no woman can be present as a spectator in either House of Parliament when the Diet is in session." But perhaps the sign of the greatest progress in the direction of the emancipation of the women is the fact that Japanese ladies are beginning to take upon themselves the duties of entertainers, in place of the professional singing and dancing-girls who were till recently the necessary accompaniment of every convivial gathering. With all the changes of the past thirty years, however, and the adoption of many European customs, one thing is still certain: "Into the inner heart of this sunny people, the foreign eye has never penetrated. . . . The deep springs of Japanese family life are hid from his view."

—The *Revue Encyclopédique* is published fortnightly by the Librairie Larousse as a sort of running supplement to the great 'Dictionnaire Universel': it is a veritable treasure-house of useful and interesting things, and is as "modern" as yesterday. In the number for April 1 we note what appears to be the discovery of Mérimée's "Inconnue." A note is quoted from a writer who signs himself "A. H.," who asserts that he put into the post in Paris, in the month of October, 1831, the first of the letters of the "Inconnue" to Mérimée. Her name was Jennie Dacquin; she was the daughter of a notary of Boulogne-sur-Mer, where she was born. She died in Paris in 1887 or 1888. It appears that she had read the 'Chronique de Charles IX.' with great enthusiasm, and was eager to get Mérimée's autograph. To this end she addressed him in a letter written in English, and signed "Lady Algernon Seymour." Mérimée replied to Lady Algernon, and so began the correspondence which lasted till his death in 1870. Curious readers who are also hardened sceptics may desire some definite information about "A. H." None is given; but he seems to possess the confidence of the editors of Larousse, who say of his note, "Le voile semble levé aujourd'hui."

—Prof. A. Soetbeer's 'Litteraturnachweis über Geld- und Münzwesen' (Berlin: Puttkammer) adds another to the exhaustive compilations which this indefatigable worker has contributed to the literature of bimetallism. While its nominal object is to give a bibliography of the discussions on bimetallism in the years 1871-'91, it covers in effect the whole period from the discovery of America to the present time. Four chapters, embracing respectively the periods 1492-1620, 1621-1810, 1811-1850, and 1851-'70, give brief accounts of the coinage legislation of important countries, summary statements of the production of gold and silver, and bibliographies of important publications on monetary questions. These first chapters are brief, and not the less valuable to the student on that account. The fifth chapter, which deals with the twenty years 1871-1891, occupies two-thirds of the volume, and is detailed and exhaustive. The history of the bimetallist agitation is narrated with care, the various official commissions and conferences are noted, every legislative act is stated and the more important are described in detail, while the bibliography covers a hundred-odd pages. At the close, Prof. Soetbeer considers the present silver situation, the conditions of price and production, and emphasizes the commanding importance of the legislation of the United States. Altogether, the volume is invaluable for reference purposes, and will be welcomed by all students of the monetary situation.

BIBLIOMANIA.

A Monograph on Privately Illustrated Books. A Plea for Bibliomania. By Daniel M. Tredwell, Lincoln Road, Flatbush, Long Island. Privately printed. 1892.

Four Private Libraries of New York. A Contribution to the History of Bibliophilism in America. First series. Preface by Octave Uzanne. By Henri Pène du Bois. New York: Duprat & Co. 1892.

Round and About the Book-stalls. A Guide for the Book-hunter. By J. Herbert Slater. London: L. Upcott Gill. 1891.

Mr. Tredwell's stately octavo from the De Vinne Press, which appears to be on sale despite its imprint, is noteworthy for being the most extensive work upon its subject. A small volume, originating in a lecture before the Brooklyn Rembrandt Club, was issued in 1881; the present has the same title, but treble the matter. After explaining "extending," "inlaying," and other mysteries of the craft, the author describes the work of more than a hundred collectors, scattered throughout the United States. New York has the most, but Boston, with due regard to population, ranks first in this phase of bibliomania. More than $13,000,000 are invested in privately illustrated books in and about New York. If the figures fail to show the extent of the practice, glance at a few items. The Menzies 'Dibdin' numbered 53 volumes. Dr. Stauffer's 'History of Philadelphia' contains 8,000 inlaid illustrations and 1,000 pen-and-ink sketches. Mr. Augustin Daly has an Ireland's 'Recollections of the New York Stage' (published in two quartos) in 33 folio volumes, with 10,500 plates; Dr. Emmet's 'Biographies of the Signers of the Declaration of Independence' fills 39 folios. One New York enthusiast has illustrated more than 300 volumes, and inlaid 50,000 plates.

In the lack of a proper philosophy and ethic of collecting, it is difficult to grade the different varieties. Mr. Tredwell is not the champion of bibliomania, as he fancies, but of the collection and utilization of engravings, autographs, and the like literary bric-à-brac—a subordinate branch of bibliomania, and one which we are not inclined, at least when not in sight of some masterpiece of the art, to estimate very highly. We grant that valuable material is in this way got together and given a chance to find a permanent home in some public library, that the practice is productive of a not ignoble pleasure, that it leads to familiarity with the work of artists, engravers, and writers, and even, under certain conditions, to knowledge of literature and art. Nor is it just to dwell exclusively upon extravagances like Bagford's depredations, or the Gibbs Bible with its 30,000 plates, or upon the misdirected zeal of that collector—surely a relative of Mr. Dick of Dover—who could not be satisfied with less than 731 portraits of Charles I., or that other, who culled 600 plates to illustrate four or five verses of the first chapter of Genesis. There are those, like our author, who scorn such raven-like work, who neither extend the text nor smother it with plates, but are governed by good taste and common sense. The product of such is a delight to mind and eye. The common Grangerite—perversion of an honorable name!—to whom quantity is all in all, is, nevertheless, beyond the pale of our sympathy. His is a vampire art, maiming where it does not murder, and incapable of rising beyond cannibalism. Between him and the bibliophile there is war. What book-lover, from Dr. Ferriar to Mr. Blades, has had for him aught but satire and abuse? "They are book-ghouls, and brood, like the obscene demons of Arabian superstition, over the fragments of the mighty dead," writes Mr. Andrew Lang, to whom tolerance has been imputed for unrighteousness. By those who have charge over books, the print-collector is deeply sus-

pected; endured or embraced for the profit that may be in him as buyer or donor, in private he is regarded as an adept with the wetted string, a primitive communist, living under

> "the good old rule,
> the simple plan,
> That they should take who have the power,
> And they should keep who can."

Is an extra-illustrator ever wholly without guile? Even Mr. Tredwell confesses to having once collected title-pages from first editions of famous novels.

We have found so much of interest in these pages that we regret our inability to praise without reserve, but in truth the book as a whole is formless, having the faults without the virtues of a catalogue, while of the style we can, for cogent reasons, say nothing. It is disfigured, too, by numbers of those errors which the reviewer can commonly ascribe to either printer or author, as best suits his turn, but between Mr. Tredwell and Mr. DeVinne one may well hesitate. Who is responsible for "Roxburg" (p. 28), "Roxburgh" (p. 303), "Hammerton" (p. 16), "Madame Reidesel" (p. 81), "Manilius, Petronius, and Arbiter" (p. 19), "Oedipus, Tyrannus the alchemist, and Tom Jones" (p. 314)? What shall we say of "Count Benjamin Thompson Rumford" (p. 59), "François William Guizot" (p. 156), "The Bradford Croakers' (Club copy)" (p. 379)? De Bry's 'Voyages' Mr. Tredwell thinks excessively rare in a perfect state. We should think so! They are almost absolutely unique, to use his own emphatic phraseology. "Unique" is nearly as great a favorite with Mr. Tredwell as "gotten," and he knows it in all gradations from "almost" to entirely. In twice speaking of Mr. Henry Morley as the biographer of Voltaire, he seems "as ignorant" (if we may plagiarize his own account of a similar correction) "that there are two Mr. Morleys as that this is the wrong one." The indexes can be praised only on the principle of the half-loaf. The absence of a reference does not prove a similar lack in the text, nor will an entry lead always to the most important passage. In the index of illustrated books the searcher should look under author and title—first word, most important word, least important word—nor despair if he fail to recognize the object of his search; it may be neatly concealed after the manner of "Campaign and St. Leger's Expedition, Stone," for Stone's "Campaign of Lieut.-Gen. Burgoyne, etc."

The second book on our list is charming, in type, page, paper, its silk cover of mandarin red, its illustrations, and its contents. It is the sublimation of bibliography, a bibliopegic ecstasy, book-madness raised to the *n*th power; but it is founded on an idea, and written with the earnestness characteristic of French bibliographers, to whom the necessity of apologizing for their art has not suggested itself. Indeed, the locality of the libraries is almost the only American feature of the book, for either they chiefly consist of French literature, or the French portion is most strongly presented. The libraries are those of Mr. C. Jolly-Bavoillot, "the library of the Romanticists"; of Mr. Samuel P. Avery, also described in part by Mr. Tredwell; of Mr. George Beach de Forest, Elzevir-man and vignettist; and a fourth which is anonymous.

Although we are indulged in frequent quotations, and even in a hitherto unpublished "Conte Arabe" of Alfred de Vigny, and some verses by Dobson, Browning, and others, extracted from Mr. Avery's 'Knickerbocker' (these Mr. Tredwell also gives), the aim of the book is an artistic development of a new cult of book-binding. Grolier, De Thou, Brinley, we are told, knew not the art of book-binding. They approved certain patterns of ornamentation, but they cared not upon which book each should be displayed. Not so the "art of the decade," a phrase that runs a trifle too freely from the author's pen: binding is the last thing to be done to a book, it is the final rite, the apotheosis. Before it is adventured, the book must not only have been read, it must have been absorbed, perfected. Then, from the mind stored with full knowledge, tranquil, reflective, as from the quiet depths of the milk-pan silently the cream rises, is projected the idea of the Perfect Binding. Thus only is a Library formed. We confess that Mr. Pène du Bois sometimes annoys us. His rhapsodies, his stained-glass attitudes, arouse the Philistine within us. If book lore has had its Froissart, here, one might say, is its Lyly, but that at times there is in him more of Sir Piercie Shafton than of Euphues. "A truce to unique copies, and the binding of the decade," we cry; "tell us of a library where all the masters are, but all in morning dress; 'where not one of the Graces tight-laces!'" However, to enthusiasm much may be forgiven, and we part from the author with gratitude for his closing words on extra-illustrating: "Of one hundred books extended by the insertion of prints which were not made for them, ninety-nine are ruined. . . . Yet prints may be inserted in books." The illustrations are unusually successful in their rendering of bindings. There is no index.

Mr. Slater's little book, which might be still smaller without loss, since there is much repetition in its 119 pages, takes us to a different field. It is a book-broker's manual, a guide to the Wall Street of old books. It distinguishes the various classes of second-hand books, and traces their rise and fall in the market for a century back; from these observations a prognosis of values for ten years in advance is attempted. The great depreciation of philological works and editions of the classics is thought to offer a chance for large profits in the near future, but this we doubt. The author attributes the change too entirely to decline in scholarship; it is in great part due to a change in the character of scholarship. Philology has become a science, and is subject to the general rule for scientific books, that only the very new or the very old have value. The novice must beware of art books; they are the mining stocks of the book exchange. First editions of Scott, Byron, Shelley, Tennyson, and Browning Mr. Slater thinks excellent purchases at present quotations. He means those works which now have the minor value of a pound or two. There is little profit to be expected for some time to come in an 'Adonais' at $70. The modern poets, like Swinburne and William Morris, offer a good chance. Of course Mr. Slater writes for the English market, but his principles apply here, where literature is not too young to have first editions of respectable values. Librarians will find it worth their while to read this book carefully. Certain publishers will not be pleased at the advice to buy subscription books, second-hand, a month or so after publication. In closing, we ought to say that Mr. Slater is the editor of *Book Prices Current*, a periodical published by Mr. Stock, and simply invaluable in a library; his theory of book prices is therefore based on a wide experience.

MRS. PIOZZI IN ITALY.

Glimpses of Italian Society in the Eighteenth Century, from the Journey of Mrs. Piozzi. With an Introduction by the Countess Evelyn Martinengo-Cesaresco. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE world moves on apace; modern inventions and progress tend to efface distinctions of race and country, so that we turn with interest to a faithful description of travel in Italy a hundred years ago, and are surprised to find that, all things considered, there are many observations which might be dated yesterday. The Countess Martinengo, in her preface to Mrs. Piozzi's book, gives us briefly the facts of her second marriage and the account of the general disapproval it elicited among her English friends. Mr. Piozzi was regarded as an inferior person by Mrs. Thrales's acquaintance, because he was a music-master as well as an Italian; his nationality and the profession being equally disreputable in the eyes of the middle-class, well-to-do people who formed her circle. It was therefore to escape "from the poisoned arrows of private malignity," as Mrs. Piozzi puts it, that the journey to Italy was undertaken. Mr. Piozzi urged that they should remain there until his wife's debts were paid. This, owing to his economical management, was soon accomplished. Mrs. Piozzi wrote this record of her journey so that her friends should know and understand how well her husband was received among his own people, and how they were welcomed by persons of every rank. On her return to England, she related, with evident satisfaction, how Italians were surprised at her being a lady when they heard her first husband was a brewer. The Countess Martinengo quotes a parallel of our own day in the case of an English wine-merchant who would not willingly accept a Neapolitan of noble rank as a son-in-law because he was a master of music, to show that the prejudice against Mr. Piozzi's profession still exists among certain classes.

The Italians, punctilious enough as to rank and class among themselves, seem in the eighteenth century to have waived these distinctions in favor of foreign visitors, so that Mrs. Piozzi had the advantage of observing and studying at her leisure the manners and morals of all classes. The Piozzis travelled from place to place conveniently in their own carriage, staying with their friends or at inns, visiting monuments, theatres, hearing the best music, and mixing in society everywhere. Thus they passed through Turin, Genoa, Milan, Mantua, Verona, Padua, Venice, Ferrara, Bologna, Florence, Rome, and Naples. Mrs. Piozzi was a keen observer. She appreciated the beauties of natural scenery very keenly, and describes them with a grace and appropriateness of epithet which strike one as singularly cultivated. The art treasures of the cities she passed through do not seem to have attracted her—she rarely mentions pictures or frescoes; and in this nineteenth century, in which we are surfeited with every uncultured traveller's impressions on art, it is refreshing to read a book which does not touch on these matters. Mrs. Piozzi naturally turned her attention to Italian women, and was much impressed with the ignorance of household affairs displayed by Italian ladies in whose houses she visited. Neither weekly bills nor accounts of any kind came under their supervision. All these affairs were under the husband's jurisdiction, as also the servants, who, in households where eight were kept, would number six men to two women. The custom of keeping open house and having guests to dinner daily, husband and wife never by any chance remaining *en tête-à-tête* at meals, struck her as remarkable, as also the departure at night of the large retinue of

servants, each one to his home. She describes it as "the comicallest sight in the world to see them all go gravely home, and you may die in the night for want of help, though surrounded by showy attendants all day." This custom would account for the want of provision for servants' sleeping-rooms in ancient palaces. The familiarity of the servants with their masters, their habit of joining in the conversation when they chose, would naturally astonish this English lady, and she is equally shocked at their genuflexions and the humility of their hand-kissings, etc., on certain other occasions.

Mrs. Piozzi seems to have been anxious to ascertain, for the enlightenment of her readers, the exact position of the *cavalier servente*. She inquired, therefore, of a beautiful young Milanese lady, who told her that it was a custom which proved useful to people as poor as herself, as her *cavalier servente* paid the bills; he was otherwise a bore, but could not be dispensed with without her husband incurring the suspicion of being jealous of her. The Countess Martinengo, however, in her introduction, explains how in those days no woman, however old, or however long she had been married, could go anywhere by herself, excepting to church; therefore, as it was impossible for the husband to be always at the wife's orders as an escort, a cavalier was appointed, often an humble relative, who was always ready to tender his services to accompany the lady to the family box at the theatre, or to wait on her in the street. The continual presence of this person really interfered with any possible lover; and although in some cases the continual intimacy resulted in mutual love, this was exceptional rather than the rule.

Mrs. Piozzi was surprised at the way the children were kept in the background, rarely seen at all in great houses save for a short time after dinner, and also at the immense reverence and attention displayed by sons and daughters to their parents when the latter were infirm and disabled. Of Italian gentlemen Mrs. Piozzi writes:

"The politeness of a man of fashion here is true politeness, free from all affectation, and honestly expressive of what he really feels—a true value for the person spoken to, without the smallest desire of shining himself, equally removed from foppery on one side or indifference on the other. The manners of the men here are certainly pleasing to a very eminent degree, and in their conversation there is a mixture—not unfrequent—of classical allusions which strike one with a sort of literary pleasure I cannot easily describe."

Also, the great attentions and courtesy to women delighted her: she narrates that in any serious dispute between husband and wife public opinion always espoused the cause of the latter.

All foreigners remark the insensibility to cold with which Italians are endowed. This quality has not decreased since Mrs. Piozzi's day, and then as now they avoid sitting near a fire even if it be only a blaze of lighted faggots, throwing out little heat. The *scaldino*, a brass box perforated with holes, was much used in those days and is still. Mrs. Piozzi considers this means of warmth detrimental to a fresh complexion. She mentions the foot-muffs used in theatres and churches by the great ladies, and the little pipkins with lighted charcoal the poor women hang on their arms as they rush about on their errands in the street in cold weather.

The impressions Rome made on our traveller seem to have been less pleasant than those received from the more northern cities:

"This is the first town in Italy I have arrived at yet where the ladies fairly drive up and down a long street by way of showing their dress, equipages, etc., without even a pretence of taking fresh air. At Turin the view from the place destined to this amusement would tempt one out merely for its own sake, and at Milan they drive along a planted walk at least a stone's throw beyond the gates. Bologna calls its serious inhabitants to a little rising ground whence the prospect is luxuriantly verdant and smiling. The Lucca bastions are beyond all in a peculiar style of miniature beauty; and even Florentines, though lazy enough, creep out to Porta San Gallo. But here at Rome, *la Santa*, the street is all our Corso—a fine one, doubtless, and called the Strada del Popolo with infinite propriety, for except in that strada there is little populousness enough, God knows. Twelve men to a woman even there, and as many ecclesiastics to a layman."

Like travellers of our own day, Mrs. Piozzi was struck with the combination of grandeur and squalor on every side in the Eternal City—magnificent palaces with rags hanging out to dry at the windows; regal staircases and vestibules made use of by common passengers for every nauseous purpose; stinking mud heaps to be waded through before being able to approach a monument; the crowd of beggars and their persistence in making capital out of the deformities they display. She complains that the taste for good music was less prevalent than in the north of Italy, and is surprised that, considering the bad smells which one has to encounter on every side, the Roman ladies of quality should have been so squeamish of perfumes. We quote Mrs. Piozzi's account of an incident which prevented her mixing in Roman society:

"I went but once among them, when Memmo, the Venetian ambassador, did me the honor to introduce me somewhere; but the conversation was soon over—not so my shame, when I perceived all the company shrink from me very oddly, and stop their noses with rue, which a servant brought to their assistance on open salvers. I was by this time more like to faint away than they, from confusion and distress; my kind protector informed me of the cause, said I had some grains of maréchale powder in my hair perhaps, and led me out of the assembly, to which no entreaties could prevail on me ever to return, or make further attempts to associate with a delicacy so very susceptible of offence."

Mrs. Piozzi wrote wittily, describing scenes vividly, relating anecdotes with humor and point, never allowing her English prejudices to interfere with her judgment or to spoil her enjoyment of the scenes so new to her. Her knowledge of Italian must have been very thorough, she detected so readily the slightest differences in the dialect of each of the cities she visited. Her book remains a most valuable record of Italian society in the eighteenth century. It is delightfully written, and leaves an impression of extreme accuracy. It still remains for our nineteenth century to produce a book which will read as well a hundred years hence. To the Countess Martinengo all thanks are due for having so ably reëdited this journey and presented it to us in so pleasing a form.

BASTIEN-LEPAGE.

Jules Bastien-Lepage and His Art. A Memoir. By André Theuriet. Jules Bastien-Lepage as Artist, by George Clausen, A.R.W.S. Modern Realism in Painting, by Walter Sickert, N.E.A.C. And A Study of Marie Bashkirtseff, by Mathilde Blind. Illustrated with reproductions of Bastien-Lepage's and Marie Bashkirtseff's works. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. 190.

THIS is a singularly composite volume. That M. Theuriet's Memoir should be followed by Mr. Clausen's appreciation of Bastien's art from the point of view of a more or less avowed disciple of that painter, is natural enough. That the *advocatus diaboli*, in the person of Mr. Sickert, should be allowed to speak is comprehensible. But why a "study" of that particularly unpleasant young person, Marie Bashkirtseff, should be inflicted upon us passes all understanding.

All that there is to tell of the life of Bastien-Lepage M. Theuriet tells gracefully, in a style warmed by personal friendship, and with many quotations from Bastien's own private letters. The artist was born of a peasant family in moderate circumstances at Damvilliers, Meuse, on November 1, 1848. He early showed a talent for drawing, which was encouraged by his father, who used every evening to set him tasks in representing simple objects. His family wished him to enter the public service, and gave him, at some sacrifice, a good school education, but he early determined to be a painter. After his graduation from the College of Verdun, he obtained a position in the post-office, and set out for Paris about the end of 1867, with the intention of dividing his time between his service and the study of art. A short experience, however, convinced him that this was impossible, and at the end of six months he gave up his position, and thenceforth, with the aid of a pension of 600 francs granted him by his department, and of such sums as his family could send him, struggled on. He served in the war of 1870 and was wounded. He failed twice of the Prix de Rome, but had the suffrage of his fellow-students if not of the Institute, and was made a hero of by many of the younger artists. His pictures at the Salon soon attracted much attention, and his "Les Foins" (Hay), in the Salon of 1878, made him a veritable *chef d'école*. Many an artist who was then studying in Paris will remember the enthusiasm of the ateliers for this work—an enthusiasm which the masters hardly shared. This picture was followed by the "Potato Gatherers" in 1879, by the "Jeanne d'Arc" in 1880, and by a series of less universally known pictures. He had received a second-class medal and the Legion of Honor, was famous and successful; but his health, which had long been bad, gave way entirely, and he died at the age of thirty-six, on the 10th of December, 1884.

After the life comes the discussion. What is the place in the history of art which Bastien will finally occupy, and what is the meaning and value of that "modern realism" of which he is almost the patron saint? These are the questions which Mr. Clausen and Mr. Sickert discuss; Mr. Clausen with a hearty, though not unlimited, admiration for Bastien's work, and Mr. Sickert with strong disapproval of the school and the tendency, rather than of particular pictures. On these questions we will try to express our own views as clearly as may be.

In the first place, Bastien was not a man of great intellectual or emotional power. His character seems to have been essentially commonplace. The grasp and force of the great minds in painting—the deep impressiveness or the poetic charm of the world's masterpieces—are not his. Neither had he much feeling for what one may call the purely artistic part of art. Rhythmic arrangement of line and splendor or subtlety of color appealed but little to him. He was master of a sound and useful technique, but for technical charm—for pure beauty of handling—he apparently cared nothing. But his very limitations in these directions were probably part of his influence on the younger men who were studying painting

in Paris. He was himself a sort of glorified art-student and a typical hero for the worship of art-students. The young men of the ateliers —the students of art—have nothing to do with power or sentiment or poetry, with glory of color or grace of line; their time and efforts are spent in a desperate struggle with fact. As a rule, they care little for art as such; they are striving to acquire the bare power of representation. Here was a man who represented facts with a power and precision that was a revelation to them, and they worshipped him. Here was a man who had done what they were striving to do, and they applauded.

Almost every picture that Bastien painted, and almost every letter that he wrote, shows us the typical art student. It is ever the determination to represent the actual thing as it is—to conquer nature in detail—to take the canvas into the fields and paint the very flowers and leaves and grass as they really are —to catch the actual texture of a face in the actual light of open day. Much must be sacrificed. If we are to abandon convention, we must give up all that can be suggested only by conventional means. If we are to paint always direct from nature, we must make no attempt to record those fleeting and beautiful effects which can be painted only from memory. We must confine ourselves to figures in repose, for action is too evanescent, and we must paint in the steady light of a cloudy day, when effect changes little. Such sacrifices Bastien made, probably without feeling them. Within the limits he set for himself, or which his nature set for him, the result was, however, superb. Take "Les Foins," for an example, or the figure of Joan in the "Jeanne d'Arc" (of the rest of the picture we will speak later), examine it carefully, and confess that such exact rendition of fact was never seen before. The modelling of firm and solid flesh without an apparent shadow, the gray bloom of daylight on warm skin, the mottling of cheek, the moisture of eye, the texture of sun-faded hair and rough gown, are given with a perfection that is little short of marvellous. The enthusiasm of Bastien's young admirers was as well justified as was the doubt of his masters. This has been an age rather of investigation than creation, and among the investigators of the aspects of nature, Bastien-Lepage has an honorable place.

He died young. If he had lived, would he have outgrown the student phase and have become a creator? Mr. Clausen thinks so, and says:

"I feel convinced that realism was not the end with Bastien-Lepage. I believe that his contribution to art, great as it was, and covering as it does an amount of work which might well represent a whole life's work instead of the work of a few short years, was but the promise of his full power; and that, had he lived, his work would have shown a wider range of nature than that of any other artist, except perhaps Rembrandt."

We cannot think that there is any evidence that Bastien was travelling in this direction. The "Jeanne d'Arc" was an effort to combine the conventionalisms of the older forms of art with the painter's own realistic treatment of nature, and it was not a success. The realists complained of the presence of the visions; the idealists complained of the undue importance of insignificant details. The picture has great merit: the conception of Joan is truly fine and dramatic, and the bodily presence of the "voices" is a necessary concession to the limitations of painting. But the picture is neither decorative nor realistic nor ideal: it is a compromise, and not a successful compromise. From the time of its appearance and failure, the ideal element disappears almost absolutely from Bastien's work. "Le Mendiant" and "Père Jacques" are even less pictures—are more frankly big studies—than any of his earlier work. They are the sort of thing that is admirable discipline for a young man just out of school, but as the work of a *chef d'école* in the height of his power they are almost inexcusable. One may set one's self the problem of painting an old beggar, the size of life, in the open air, with absolute fidelity as the aim and with no charm even of handling to relieve the ugliness of the subject; but when it is done, it can be no more than a revelation of one's ability, and the public has no interest in it. And, what is more unfortunate, these later studies of Bastien's are not even as good, as studies, as "Les Foins."

There is, however, one branch of art for which Bastien's nature—his limitations almost as much as his powers—peculiarly fitted him, and that branch is portraiture. His lack of bias or strong personal feeling, his comparative carelessness of color or composition or even beauty, his disinterested delight in the accurate rendering of absolute fact, all mark him for a painter of portraits. They are the qualities of a Holbein, and have occasionally raised Bastien nearly to Holbein's level. He could never paint anything but a portrait even when he thought he was painting a picture, and his best work was put into avowed portraiture. Many of his portraits are wonderful and delightful, but the best of them all is the portrait of his mother, which those who saw it at the Paris Exposition of 1889 might be pardoned for proclaiming the greatest portrait of our day. Certainly it is one of the greatest, and on it and a few others we believe his reputation will most surely rest. His glory will be that of having been one of the really great portrait-painters of the world, and it is glory enough for any man.

Du Niger au Golfe de Guinée par le pays de Kong et le Mossi. Par le capitaine Binger. [1887–1889.] Paris: Librairie Hachette & Cie. 1892. 2 vols. 8vo.

THERE has been so great interest of late in the development of eastern and equatorial Africa that we are in danger of losing sight of the fact that there are other parts of the continent still little known, but full of promise to the explorer. These are the chain of Sudanese States to the south of the Sahara, and the region lying between the great bend of the Niger and the negro kingdoms of the Guinea Coast. Explorers of different nationalities are now endeavoring from various directions to reach the former, with what success remains to be seen. The latter has been recently traversed from north to south by a French officer going, in the double character of a commercial traveller and a political agent, to introduce French manufactures and to negotiate treaties. With this peaceful end in view, he travelled without an armed escort, having only men and animals sufficient to carry the goods intended for sale and for presents. He left Bammako, a French post on the upper Niger, in June, 1887, and in March, 1889, reached Grand Bassam on the French Gold Coast. The commercial results of his mission are of course not yet apparent, but through the treaties which he induced the chiefs of the regions passed through to sign, he is able to say that "one can go to-day from Cape Blanc to the Gulf of Guinea, and from Cape Verd to Say [on the lower Niger] without leaving territory under French rule."

Capt. Binger's account of his journey, though rather dry and lacking in entertaining incidents, is evidently a painstaking and faithful description of a not very interesting country or people. It is difficult, indeed, to form a distinct conception of any place visited with the single exception of Kong. This is the principal city of a kingdom bearing the same name, inhabited by about 15,000 Mohammedans of a singularly intelligent and tolerant type. They are divided into three classes, the educated, the illiterate, and the drinkers of *dolo*, or millet-beer. Their chief occupation is weaving and dyeing a cotton cloth in great demand throughout the western Sudan, and trading in salt and the cola-nut. Although having a marked disinclination for war, they are rapidly extending their rule over the neighboring tribes in a somewhat novel manner. One or two Kong families settle in a pagan village, establish a school to which they invite the village children, and gradually gain the confidence of the chief, who finally puts himself and his people under the protection of their king. In this way two things are gained: their surplus population is provided for and their trade-routes are made secure. Among the things most frequently asked for of Capt. Binger, who was, if we are not mistaken, the first European to visit the city, were "sacred books, Korans, Gospels, Pentateuchs, and law treatises." They recognize three principal religions, which they call the "Ways of Moses, Jesus, and Mahomet." In conversation "many of them declared that these three religions were identical because they led to one and the same God." So also, in obedience to the command of the Koran—"When a slave shall demand from thee his liberty *in writing*, thou shalt give it to him with some of the goods which God has bestowed upon thee"—some of them have freed those of their slaves who had received religious instruction and could read. The ordinary currency, not only of Kong but of nearly the whole region traversed, was the cowry, of which 500 equal a franc, though both gold and a few European silver coins are used. The gold is both in nuggets and in dust, but the latter is apparently the only form in which it is used as money. The smallest amount current weighs as much as a grain and a half of unhusked rice, and is valued at a little over two cents.

From this place it was Capt. Binger's intention to go through the Mossi country to Say, the limit of the French influence on the lower Niger according to the recent treaty with Great Britain. He succeeded in reaching the town of the ruling chief, who received him hospitably, but would not permit him to proceed farther. Accordingly he returned by a different route to Kong, from whence he made his way with little difficulty to the coast.

Although he tells very little of the way in which he carried out the political ends of his mission, he gives much information in regard to the agricultural and commercial resources of the country explored by him. The part adjacent to the French Sudan has been reduced recently almost to an uninhabited wilderness, partly through the wars of two rival chiefs, and partly through slave-raids. There are large, thickly populated districts, however, to the south and east of these States, which, on the opening of communication, will doubtless prove valuable markets for foreign goods. He does not appear to have made any special investigation of the extent or richness of the gold-bearing region, but the quantity of gold dust and small nuggets to be found in every village, taken in connection with the fact that it is surface gold merely from the banks of the streams,

would seem to indicate the existence of valuable deposits. The natives, throughout his whole journey, seem to have been peaceably inclined to the white traveller, though in some instances they refused to permit him to enter their villages. Nor does he appear to have suffered much from their dishonesty, though he travelled without an escort. At one place he found "five or six sheds filled with merchandise, barrels of powder, boxes of gin, bags of salt. No one is there to guard them; in this region they do not trouble themselves about thieves. . . . The people, though fond of drink, never touch the gin, nor anything which does not belong to them." In this same district all the people of a village are held responsible for the crime of any one of them against an inhabitant of another village. This was most frequently adultery, which with the wife of a chief cost a man all his possessions; with an ordinary woman, from two to six ounces of gold. If he has nothing with which to pay, he is held as a slave, and his children and fellow-villagers inherit the debt. This custom often made it difficult to get transportation from one village to another, the men fearing to be held as slaves in payment of an old debt.

Capt. Binger gives two of the stories current among the Mandingoes, which are interesting from their striking resemblance in form and humor to those of "Uncle Remus." In both the rabbit victimizes, in the first the hyena, in the second all the animals, whose burial-fund he has appropriated. In order to test him, the elephant pretends to die and the rabbit is summoned to bury him. Taking his pickaxe, he goes to the place where all the animals are assembled, first telling his three children to come to him at intervals of fifteen minutes. Shortly after beginning his work one of the young rabbits runs up with a message that he is wanted at home. The old rabbit refuses to go, because he is busy digging the elephant's grave. Soon another rabbit appears with the same message, and this time the lion orders the rabbit to go home and see what is wanted. He obeys, but returns in a short time and sets silently to work. After repeated questions, he says, with feigned reluctance, that three strangers have arrived, one in search of elephants, another of lions and panthers, the third of hyenas. On hearing this they all take to flight and leave the rabbit to enjoy the burial-fund at his ease.

The book is well illustrated; the pictures of the mosques, whose peculiar architecture Capt. Binger does not fully describe, being especially interesting. There is an admirable map, on which, it may be noted, the mountains of Kong, which figure so largely on even the most recent maps, do not appear. According to this latest explorer, they exist only in the imagination of the geographers.

The Formal Garden in England. By Reginald Blomfield and F. Inigo Thomas. Macmillan & Co. 1892.

THIS is an awakening book. Its plea is for design in the surroundings of houses. It insists that the house and the ground around the house should be arranged in relation to each other. It maintains the irrefutable proposition that really satisfying beauty in the immediate surroundings of men's lives upon this earth must spring, not from any imitated likeness to wild nature, nor yet from any impracticable conformity to the ideals of landscape-painters, but simply from the harmonious adaptation of land and buildings to the uses and enjoyments of real life.

It seems strange that an obvious truth, now universally accepted as respects buildings, should still need to be preached in its application to the ground surrounding buildings. Ground near a house must generally be devoted to purposes of use and enjoyment quite like the purposes which the house itself is designed to serve. If the house has its hall, its drawing-room, its billiard-room, and its laundry, the ground near the house must have its approach-road, its garden, its tennis-court, and its drying-yard. These are all artificial things, demanding formal lines and the subjugation of nature as emphatically as a building. They ought to be planned so as to make with the building one design and composition.

In the book before us these ideas are deduced and illustrated from a study of the old gardens of England. The writer and the draughtsman, who are the joint authors of the book, have evidently travelled widely in search of good examples of the ancient style of house-grounds, and they have been rewarded for their pains by the discovery of many charming places, possessing fore-courts, house-courts, base-courts, terraces, bowling-greens, and walled gardens composed of "knots," parterres, pleaching, arbors, "palisades," and hedges. In these gardens grow gillyflowers, columbines, sweet-williams, hollyhocks, and marigolds, lady-slippers, London pride, bachelor's-buttons, love-in-a-mist, and apple-of-love; peacocks parade their ivied walls, and daisies stud their velvet lawns. The seclusion, the repose, the mingling light and shade, the blending colors, the sweet odors, and, above all, the perfect fitness of these old gardens, conspire to make them lovable and delectable beyond compare. They are well described and happily illustrated in this book, so that the reader can but sympathize with the righteous wrath which the authors vent upon the men who destroyed hundreds of such places in the last years of the last century.

What was the origin of the mood or fashion which occasioned this lamentable destruction, and gave birth to the pseudo-naturalistic style of treating ground about houses that is even yet in vogue? Our authors do not attempt a philosophical answer to this question, but they give us an instructive sketch of the history of garden design from the days of the mediæval 'Romance of the Rose,' through the fresh and simple style of the English Renascence, to the elaborate extravagances of the Restoration and the consequent reaction which assisted in the establishment of the self-styled "art of landscape gardening."

The prophets and practitioners of the naturalistic school, from Whately, Uvedale Price, and Repton of the last century, to Messrs. Robinson and Milner of the present day, are here handled without gloves. They are, indeed, too sweepingly assailed; for beyond the vicinity of the house and garden lies a broad field in which only naturalistic treatment is appropriate. Yet, as respects gardens, what follows is true enough:

"Presumably, Mr. Robinson's dictum that 'walks should be concealed as much as possible and reduced to the most modest dimensions,' is based on the state of a virgin forest; the argument perhaps running thus: Because in a virgin forest there are no paths at all, let us in our acre and a half of garden make as little of the paths as possible." "But it is not easy to state the landscape gardener's principles, for his system consists in the absence of any, and most modern writers lead off with hearty abuse of formal gardening, after which they incontinently drop the question of design and go off at a tangent on horticulture; and yet it is evident that to plan out a garden the knowledge necessary is that of design, not that of growing a gigantic gooseberry."

Even the latest books on landscape gardening, the English Milner's and the American Parsons's, treat of trees, shrubs, herbs, and other things, rather than of design in the surroundings of houses. Our private and public gardens also, with their necessarily unnatural and yet studiously informal arrangements, betray the same lack of feeling for design. Our time is certainly out of joint as respects this art, and for this reason this straightforward book is peculiarly valuable and welcome.

Concerning All of Us. By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. Harper & Bros.

THE fraternal and democratic implication of the title of this small volume of essays is faithfully carried out by the tone of their contents. They touch in passing upon topics as miscellaneous in character as the headings of a newspaper column, but without anywhere drifting away from the main current of ideas. These are of a quality that will easily win acceptance with the generality of readers, who find a personal satisfaction in being continually reminded of the value of the average man, and of the preponderating importance of the rank and file of "plain people" over the exceptionally endowed few.

The advantages of local independence in social matters are also dwelt on in detail, and the impossibility, in this country, of a metropolis—a city, that is, with the prerogative of dictating the laws of good manners to other cities. However obvious some of its drawbacks may be, there can at least be no doubt that such social autonomy leaves freer scope for the exercise of what Mr. Higginson calls the "new national temperament." English criticisms upon some of the manifestations of this temperament are dealt with in more than one of the essays, and Mr. Higginson is always ready to parry them by counter-criticism. His foils, it must be said, are always provided with their buttons, for good humor marks every page of the volume. He never, however, omits the retort courteous, and although it is an open question whether the habit of constant self-defence is as likely in the long run as Mr. Arnold's habit of self-criticism to touch the spirit to fine issues, it is impossible not to applaud such vigilant fencing.

By no means second in interest are the opinions here set down in regard to women. They are thoroughly sane and practical, and deserve a sympathetic reading. The time, however, is rapidly passing when they can be read as other than agreeably expressed truisms. The advance in the educational status of women, in the Old World and the New, which has been so marked of late, is merely the index of the change of front which the body of conservative people, apart from educators, are making in regard to the "woman question." In some remote New England town or on retired plantations in the far South, where it is still considered a perilous adventure for a girl to embark on the study of algebra, there may probably linger for a time the need for some one to assert that "women have ceased to be mere dependents and appendages, and there is nothing left for them but to go on and be individuals"; but this can hardly be the case much longer in localities within reach of the current of progress.

There is so much amiable optimism contained in these papers that they are well calculated to produce a cheerful frame of mind in their readers. The busy men and women who have from time to time perused them in the periodicals in which they first appeared, have no doubt felt themselves stimulated to a more

careful and more logical observation of social phenomena. Their reasonableness is their merit, and they are distinguished by a ripeness of reflection and temperateness of judgment that are fortunately within reach of every average man and woman who will consistently apply the rule laid down in one of the papers, of "judging all things constantly in the light of first principles and fresh minds."

B. F. Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783. Vols. XI. and XII. Nos. 1059-1300. London: B. F. Stevens.

THE eleventh and twelfth volumes of this collection return to a subject already treated in the first and fourth volumes, viz., the Commission sent out to America in 1778 with the conciliatory proposals of the British Government. This time we have the official correspondence of the Commission, and a few reports and private letters of Sir Henry Clinton and others. The whole story is one of disappointment on the civil side, and inefficiency of the military department. To the latter, however, there are two exceptions: the successful retreat of the British army across New Jersey in the summer of 1778, and the capture of Savannah on the 29th of December of the same year. This latter service was well performed by Lieut.-Col. Archibald Campbell, a gallant soldier who could write as well as act, and who was not afraid of blowing his own trumpet on occasion. "I need not inform your Lordship," says he in his report, "how much I prize the hope of being the first British Officer to rent a Stripe and Star from the rebel flag of Congress: In that event it will rest with my Sovereign and your Lordship, to decide its merit and consequence" (1248). Shortly after his capture of Savannah, Lieut.-Col. Campbell was joined by reinforcements from Saint Augustine, a fact which he mentions in a private letter as follows: "Gen. Prevost has at last reached this town from the Southward with 900 rag, tag, and Bobtails" (1252). The men thus disrespectfully described had, however, made a much more favorable impression on the general who had actually commanded them. He speaks highly of their conduct and their sufferings, "and the chearfulness with which for days together under the most severe fatigues, they lived only on Oysters" (1251).

Few parts of this collection are so interesting as the military letters. The facts which they relate are generally known, at least in outline, but the soldiers tell their story well and may at any time give us new particulars. It is to be hoped that Mr. Stevens has many more such reports in reserve.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aldé, Hamilton. A Voyage of Discovery. Harpers.
Atkinson, Rev. J. C. Playhours and Half-Holidays. Macmillan. $1.25.
Austen, Jane. Sense and Sensibility. 2 vols. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.50.
Black, William. In Silk Attire. New ed. Harpers.
Booth, Charles. Pauperism: A Picture; and the Endowment of Old Age: An Argument. Macmillan. $1.25.
Brackett, Miss Anna C. The Technique of Rest. Harpers.
Brooks, Edward. The Story of the Odyssey. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co. $1.25.
Buck, Carl D. Der Vocalismus der Oskischen Sprache. Leipzig: K. F. Koehler.
Cathcart, George R. Literary Reader: A Manual of English Literature. American Book Co. $1.15.
Chamberlain, W. B. Rhetoric of Vocal Expression. Oberlin, O.: E. J. Goodrich.
Chandler, H. P. The Lover's Year-Book of Poetry. Vol. II. July to December. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Corson, Prof. Hiram. A Primer of English Verse. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Cowen, Rev. J. F. The Mother of the King's Children. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Davidson, Thomas. Aristotle, and Ancient Educational Ideals. [The Great Educators.] Scribners. $1.
Ellis, F. S. A Lexical Concordance to the Poetical Works of Percy Bysshe Shelley. London: Bernard Quaritch.

MAY
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ARTICLES.—The Teaching of Geography, I., William M. Davis; Entrance Examination in English at Yale, Henry A. Beers; Compulsory Education in the United States, I., William B. Shaw; The Parallel Study of Grammar, E. A. Sonnenschein; Educational Policy of Archbishop Ireland, Thomas O'Gorman; The Grammar School Curriculum, William H. Maxwell; Women as Graduate Students at Yale, Arthur T. Hadley.
DISCUSSIONS.—Certain Views of Herbart on Mathematics and Natural Science, Charles H. Douglas; The Language Question in Switzerland, B. A. Hinsdale.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 12, 1892.

The Week.

THE passage by Congress, with scarcely any opposition, of the bill to admit the Inman steamers *City of Paris* and *City of New York* to American registry is a notable event, and must be considered the beginning of a great reform in our shipping laws and in our commercial policy. The mere fact that the Inman Company is required to build additional ships of the same aggregate tonnage in American shipyards, is a very small price to pay for such a concession. It will be impossible henceforth to resist the petition of other American citizens who own foreign-built ships to have them put under the flag of their own country. It will be impossible long to resist the petition of other American citizens to be put on a footing of equality with foreigners in respect of the ocean carrying trade. What an anomaly and injustice it is which allows British, Norwegian, Chinese, Hawaiian, and all other ships to come to our ports and fetch and carry all kinds of goods for such freight money as they can get, but denies to our own people the right to own these very ships *unless* they are sailed under a foreign flag. You may own a British-built ship and sail it under the flag of San Domingo as long as you please, carrying American products out and foreign products back, but you cannot get the protection of your own country for your property. The negroes of San Domingo can come here with British-built ships and enter into competition with our people in the ocean carrying trade without the slightest restraint, but our own people cannot buy a British ship and get an American registry for it on any terms. The glaring injustice of this discrimination against our citizens must make itself felt ere long, now that Congress has taken *one* step in the right direction. It is said that the admission of the two Inman steamers was due to the galling discovery, at the time of the Chilian difficulty, that we had no swift transports capable of being armed. If this is the true explanation, it is the only good thing that the Chilian difficulty has brought us.

No party seems to be proof against the temptations of the River and Harbor Bill, with its almost innumerable slices of "pork." Ten years ago a Republican Congress passed what was the largest grab of the sort then ever known, and passed it again over President Arthur's veto. The following autumn the party was buried beneath a "tidal wave," which was largely swollen by the popular indignation at this piece of extravagance. Two years ago another Republican Congress passed a river and harbor bill far worse than that which Arthur vetoed, and the next November the party was buried even deeper than it had been in the days when Keifer was Speaker. The Democrats came into power pledged to economy in all appropriations, and yet on Monday 122 Democrats voted for, and only 58 against, a river and harbor bill which carries appropriations immediately available amounting to nearly $22,000,000, and fixes a liability upon the Government for future appropriations of almost $27,000,000, This, too, not only in violation of party pledges, but in face of the fact that the revenues of the Government are not now sufficient to meet the ordinary expenditures, and that new taxes will have to be imposed to pay for this debauch! As all but four of the sixty-three Republicans voting supported the bill, there is no reason to doubt that the Republican Senate will pass it, very likely after adding a good deal to its total. In that case we hope President Harrison will follow the example of his Republican predecessor and send in a veto.

Senator Sherman fought to the end against the barbarous spirit manifested by the majority of both branches of Congress in regard to the Chinese question. He refused to sign the report of the Committee of Conference, explaining that he fully sympathized with the popular feeling against the free introduction of Chinese laborers, but that he regarded the provision requiring every Chinaman now legally here to take out a certificate, under penalty of removal from the country, as in plain violation of the existing treaty with China. Representative Hitt was equally outspoken against the report of the Conference Committee in the House. But, of course, arguments were without avail, for the majority of both parties seem to believe that it is right to "trample upon a treaty," so long as it is a treaty with Chinamen. Two-thirds of the Senate voted to sustain the report of the Conference Committee, and the House concurred by the overwhelming vote of 185 yeas to 28 nays. And we are sending missionaries to convert the Chinese to such Christianity as this!

The passage and signing of the Chinese Exclusion Bill came in very pat with the missionary meeting of the Methodist General Conference at Omaha on Friday, and the occasion was not lost for addressing some very plain words to the politicians who passed the law and the President who approved it. And it is to be remembered that the Methodist speakers simply expressed the sentiments of all the religious bodies in the country. The others will no doubt be equally outspoken on the subject when they come to pass upon it officially. The assertion made at Omaha that "our mission in China is gravely impeded by this law" is just as true of Presbyterian and Congregationalist and Baptist missions as it is of Methodist. This sect may have been a little more impetuous and unparliamentary than Mr. Harrison's own denomination will be in referring to the matter, yet there are thousands of Presbyterians who will agree with the utterance of Dr. Edwards: "This is a sop to the steerages of the vessels that are being unloaded at the Battery. It is a political question, and that is why our noble Senators and our most unimpeachable President complete the iniquitous proceedings." When a Senator, Mr. Harrison spoke and voted on the Chinese question like a civilized man. As candidate for the Presidency, he had to repudiate the most honorable part of his record. As candidate for renomination, he has to put his name to a law which is in flagrant violation of a treaty, which was properly described by an excited Methodist at the Conference as "an outrage on civilization," and which, moreover, will subject hundreds of Americans in China to the gravest perils.

A bill, which was prepared by the American Institute of Architects, is pending in Congress, and ought to be made a law. It provides for a radical change in the methods at present followed in regard to the designs for Government buildings, by authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to obtain plans, drawings, specifications, and local supervision for such buildings by the system of competitive examination among private architects. Not less than five architects shall be asked to compete for the designs for one building, and the one whose plans are approved may be asked to superintend the construction. The Supervising Architect of the Treasury is to remain the representative of the Government in all matters connected with the work of erecting public buildings, being the supervising power over all proposals, material, and contracts, and also over the plans and specifications of local architects. His powers will remain as they are at present, with the exception that he will not prepare the drawings and specifications. He will be made, in fact, the kind of official which his title designates—a supervisor of the architecture of Government buildings, not the architect of them.

What the bill does, is to call to the service of the Government the architectural talent of the whole country, in order that the best of that ability may be used in giving the United States public buildings which will be, in every way, artistically and economically, a credit to us as a nation. Everybody knows that this is not the

case at present. That it is not so is not the fault of the Supervising Architect. He has a task entirely beyond human capacity to perform. In a report favoring the proposed bill, Mr. Tarsney, Chairman of the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds, says very truly that "it need not be urged that it is physically impossible for one man to devote sufficient thought and time to the proper designing and preparation of plans and specifications for fifty or sixty buildings each year which in their artistic expression shall be creditable to the nation, to the age, and to the architectural genius of the country, and that, in the economy of construction, shall do justice to those from whom the cost of such construction is drawn." He reports that the Committee has been furnished with trustworthy data showing that the cost of public buildings in this country ranges from fifty cents to a dollar per cubic foot, against from thirty-eight to fifty cents in foreign countries, and adds :

"Another very serious evil is the length of time required to construct and complete one of these buildings. A building which, if the property of a private citizen, would be constructed in months, when erected by the Government requires years for its completion. This necessarily results in great wastefulness and loss of money to the Government by the payment of unnecessary salaries of superintendents and other agents, by the expense of watching and caring for the materials and structure, and by the loss, waste, and deterioration of such material, besides the inconvenience to the citizens resulting from such delayed construction. As an illustration of the extent to which this evil may extend under present methods, your Committee would call your attention to the last annual report of the Supervising Architect in relation to the public building at Detroit, Mich., where the construction was authorized eleven years ago, and $1,300,000 therefor has been appropriated by Congress years since, and the foundation walls are not yet completed."

The truth of all this is notorious. Combined with extravagant and poor construction, we have almost invariably a style of architecture which is a libel on the artistic intelligence of the country, and a type of building which nine times out of ten is totally unfitted for the uses to which it is put. It is high time that the present system was changed. The country outgrew it years ago, and nobody whose opinion is worth considering favors its retention.

If there has ever been a disposition in the Eastern States to sneer at the West as a region destitute of culture and absorbed in purely material interests, the platform adopted last week by the Democrats of Wisconsin gives notice to the world that the day for such sneers is past. It may be emphatically said that any community which frames and accepts a platform of this character has reached a high state of political development, and sound political development is the best proof of true progress in civilization. In this platform we have as clear and strong a declaration of those principles which are, after all, fundamental to the Democratic party as language is capable of expressing. There is no buncombe or verbiage about it, no hypocrisy or evasion. There is no doubt what it means. It is as explicit in its statement of what it condemns as in its statement of what it approves. It is generally supposed that a platform is of very little consequence, and most platforms are of such a character as to justify this belief. The Wisconsin platform, however, is such a bugle-blast for sound government as may well be worth ten thousand men.

The most important planks are of course those relating to silver. The denunciation of the disgraceful law of 1890 is like a blow delivered straight from the shoulder and striking squarely between the eyes. That act, it is declared, is a cowardly makeshift, and an inexcusable waste of the national resources in the purchase and storage of tons of bullion per day, and is a menace to the maintenance of a sound and stable currency. Not only is its repeal demanded, but the position is unequivocally taken that if we are to have bimetallism, the silver dollar must have the same commercial value as the gold dollar. This is the only honest kind of bimetallism possible, and it marks a great advance in political courage when this doctrine is frankly avowed. On this subject the Wisconsin Democrats have certainly "nailed their colors to the mast." The money which they demand in the interest of the people is to be "composed of or based on and redeemable in gold and silver coin *of equal intrinsic value.*" Any disregard of this principle is justly declared to be "undemocratic, dishonest, and specially hurtful to the farmers and laboring classes, the first and most defenceless victims of unstable money and a fluctuating currency." The principle that there should be no tariff taxation except for revenue is affirmed with the same unmistakable clearness. There is nothing of that wretched makeshift, "incidental protection," nor any of the usual cant about "conserving the interests of American labor." In short, this declaration of political principles comes very near to being the truth, and nothing but the truth. If the party acts up to this platform, it will give the country good government; and where so much sincerity is shown in framing a platform, there is every reason to expect that the party will act up to it.

Three deliverances on the silver question came from Republican State conventions in the West during the past week which it is interesting to contrast. The Wisconsin brethren declare that, "while we favor the use of both gold and silver as money metals under conditions which shall guarantee their circulation at a continuing and substantial parity with each other, under existing circumstances and conditions we are unalterably opposed to the free and unlimited coinage of silver"; and they further declare that "we favor an amendment of the Silver Act of 1890 which shall vest in the President, whenever in his judgment the public interest shall demand it, power to suspend or diminish until the further action of Congress the purchase of silver bullion under said act." The Kansas Republicans, on the other hand, "urge the passage of such laws as will increase the coinage of silver, looking to the coinage of the production of our own mines, as soon as it can be done without injury to the business interests of the country." The Idaho Convention went much further, and instructed its delegates to the National Convention to "use their utmost endeavors to secure a plank in the Republican platform unequivocally pledging the party to the free and unlimited coinage of silver," and also instructed the delegates to vote for no person for President or Vice-President who is not in favor of free coinage. Evidently the Democratic party is not the only one which is divided on the silver issue.

The Republicans of Illinois and Wisconsin made last week a formal and complete surrender of the position which they took two years ago on the question of compulsory education. In 1890 the Illinois Republicans adopted a resolution saying that "we declare in favor of a compulsory-education law," while now they have adopted a resolution that "we pledge ourselves to repeal the present Compulsory School Act." In 1890 the Wisconsin Republicans declared their "belief that the compulsory-education law passed by the last Legislature is wise and humane in all its essential purposes, and we are opposed to its repeal." Having been beaten on this issue, and the "wise and humane law" having been repealed, they have now adopted a resolution that "we regard the educational issue of 1890 as permanently settled in this State, not to be revived in any of its phases by the Republican party." A more abject surrender has not been witnessed in our politics for a good many years.

Whatever explanation may be offered of the renewal of gold exports, the fact itself could not, under the circumstances, fail to cause anxiety. In spite of our abundant harvests, which should normally have resulted in a general buoyancy in the business world, a great deal of distrust and caution has been manifested, while the spirit of speculation has been absent. There is but one sufficient explanation of this state of affairs—the condition of the currency. With the law of 1890 in force, the only question to be asked is whether the increase in the population and business of the country will be sufficient to absorb $54,000,000 yearly of additional Government notes. If it will be sufficient, we are safe; for we may now feel reasonably confident that no new legislation will be worse than the present act. But if it will

not be sufficient, then our condition is so precarious as to justify all the caution and suspicion that exist. For if the Government is issuing more notes than are needed as money, those that are superfluous will certainly be presented for payment, and payment will be demanded in gold and not silver. Moreover, the Government must pay in gold; for if it should for a moment hesitate to do so, a panic would at once ensue.

In commenting upon the loss by the United States Treasury of nearly $6,000,000 gold during the month of April, the *Financial Chronicle* observes that this loss is doubtless chiefly due to the payment of the interest on the 4 per cent. bonds. It is true that the quarterly interest on these bonds which fell due on the 1st of April very nearly coincided in amount with the reduction in the gold reserve, but the reason is not apparent why the payment of this interest should have been demanded in gold. Of course the bondholders did not as a class want gold; they probably deposited their coupons or checks as usual, and the banks must have, for some reason, obtained gold from the Treasury upon these or other obligations. It would seem as if there must have been a demand for gold for export, or else to strengthen the bank reserves, and the real nature of this demand deserves a careful investigation. Unless it appears that the payment of the interest upon these bonds is regularly attended with a corresponding reduction of gold in the Treasury, the recent reduction must be explained by reference to some other cause.

The London *Economist* discusses at some length the project for a new international monetary conference, with special reference to the participation of England and India therein. It maintains first that Great Britain, before accepting an invitation to join in the conference, should make known distinctly how far she is willing to go, if any distance at all, so that other nations may not be deceived or led to indulge false expectations. The utmost that Mr. Goschen has hinted, up to this time, is that the Bank of England should be "advised" by the Government to take into her reserves a sum of silver equal to one-fourth of her gold, thus making the whole reserve consist of one part silver and four parts gold; this on condition that other nations shall throw open their mints to free coinage of both metals at a common ratio. But the *Economist* points out that the Bank of England, being a private corporation, is under no obligation to accept the Government's advice on this point, or, having once accepted it, to follow it for ever. It is important, the *Economist* thinks, that other nations should be made to understand these things. As to India, the suggestion is that that country shall agree to keep her mint open to silver for a certain term of years, on the same condition that the Bank of England requires for doing what she does. But what does that mean? Does it mean that if no international agreement is made, India will adopt the gold standard? Not at all, thinks the *Economist*, because the task is far too great for her. It is not to be thought of. So the participation of England and India would be of no more real consequence or significance than their participation in the Conference of 1881.

The women of Wyoming appear to maintain their interest in the suffrage. They not only vote regularly in a proportion which seems to approach that among men who are entitled to the ballot, but they take an active part in the caucuses and conventions which nominate candidates. A good many of the sex attended the recent Republican State Convention for the choice of delegates to the National Convention, and the male majority "recognized" them to the extent of giving them two places as alternates. This is somewhat after the system adopted by the Republican managers in a good many States regarding the negroes—of giving all the places as delegates to whites, and allowing the blacks only the "leavings" in the shape of election as alternates, who are not expected to serve; but, nevertheless, it must be regarded as "the entering wedge," and by 1896 the women of Wyoming may compel a "recognition" which will be of more value.

It appears from President Reynolds's report to the stockholders of the Mexican Central Railroad that the McKinley tariff has really led to the establishment of some new industries; but, unfortunately, the industries are in Mexico. It was thought by the officers of this railroad that the increase of the duty on lead ores would injure its business by making it unprofitable to import them. Apparently the smelters who were using these ores in the United States did find it unprofitable to import them after the tariff went into effect, for they transferred their works to Mexico. The railroad thus suffered some loss of freight upon ores carried to the frontier; but as it now hauls them to smelting works on its own line at better rates, and has in addition the bullion traffic and that in coal and all other supplies for the smelters, it finds that it has gained much more than it has lost. The advantage to American labor of this mode of establishing "hundreds of new industries," as the *Tribune* says, is not very apparent; but it can at least find satisfaction in the abstract principle, sustained by President Reynolds's evidence, that the McKinley tariff can produce the establishment of new industries somewhere.

It is the invariable tendency of theological controversies to push opposing views to extremes, and it is not, therefore, surprising that the present dissensions in the Presbyterian Church have driven the Princeton conservatives into a hyper-orthodoxy unknown to their fathers. The correspondence relating to the withdrawal of Prof. Van Dyke from Princeton Seminary shows that the lines are now more rigidly drawn in that institution than in the days of the Hodges themselves. It ought to give a seminary pause, we should think, to find that its zeal for sharpening distinctions of doctrine and making them tests of loyalty, results in the loss of one of its own sons and successful teachers, who maintains his entire fidelity to the creed of his Church and the old traditions of the seminary, but who refuses to ally himself with those who are endeavoring to make the institution more orthodox than the Pope. Princeton has already had the mortification of seeing several of her sons go over to the radical, or at least the liberal, party in the Church. There is nothing unprecedented about that: the most ardent innovators are usually those who have revolted from a surfeit of traditional teaching. Yet this fact does not prevent the zealots of every generation from following the example of the gods of Greece and devouring their own children.

The ministerial crisis in Italy is interpreted to mean that the country can no longer bear the expense attendant upon being a military and naval Power of the first class, and ready at all times to come to the assistance of Germany or Austria if either of them is attacked. This is what the Dreibund means. It demands of Italy pecuniary sacrifices of crushing weight, and yet there is no conclusive evidence that the country will not stagger along under the burden for some considerable time, rather than resign the place which national pride claims for her. Whatever may be the outcome of the crisis, it will be the expression of the national will, for there is not in Europe a more democratic country in fact. The forms of royalty and nobility which still exist are in strict subordination to parliamentary government. The civic instinct and patriotic pride which distinguished the Italian republics in the old times have never ceased to burn, although often seemingly quenched in blood and foreign domination. Whatever money Italy spends on fleets and armies she will spend because the taxpayers will it; not because the King and a few great families impose the charge upon them. It is to be hoped that they will abate something of the strain they have put upon themselves during the past fifteen years. It would be a great gain even for one country to make the experiment of reducing her armament, since it would enable the others to take the policy of reduction into consideration. It would open new channels of thought on the Continent of Europe, and might lead to better ideas concerning the chief end of man, which now means fighting or preparing to fight.

THE PRESIDENTIAL OUTLOOK.

ALL the 900 delegates who are to compose the National Republican Convention which will meet at Minneapolis on June 7, have been elected. Of the same number who are to compose the National Democratic Convention, which will meet at Chicago on June 21, only about 400 have been chosen. There is much speculation in public by the professional politicians as to the probable action of each convention, and there are many pretences, emanating chiefly from Washington, that there is much doubt as to the candidates who will be nominated. In reality, however, there is very little doubt as to the outcome of either convention. The Republican candidate is almost certain to be President Harrison, and the Democratic candidate is equally certain to be Mr. Cleveland. Both nominations are written in the book of political destiny, and the persons who are so voluble in doubt as to the writing are either manœuvring for position, or are blindly struggling against the inevitable.

A careful table of the delegates to the Republican Convention is published by the Philadelphia *Press*, with the preferences for various candidates divided as follows: Instructed for Harrison 328, not instructed, but favorable to Harrison 312; for Blaine 50, for Alger 24, unknown 186. This estimate, as it stands, would nominate Harrison on the first ballot, for a majority is sufficient, and he is credited with more than two-thirds. But the *Press*, which has always been a devoted Blaine organ, says that the "fifty delegates placed in the Blaine column will probably find reason before this Convention meets for ranging themselves in the Harrison column, where the Alger and unknown delegates will doubtless be found also after the first ballot." This is a frank admission from an unquestioned Blaine source that there is nothing serious in the most recent effort of Platt, Quay, and the other Harrison "strikers" to revive the Blaine boom. Those political adventurers may possibly deceive themselves into thinking that they can prevent Harrison's renomination, but we doubt if they deceive anybody else, least of all the President.

On the Democratic side, the most careful estimate that we have seen of the delegates thus far chosen to the National Convention is made by the Boston *Herald*, which gives Mr. Cleveland 300 out of a total of 378. "This is, on its face," says the *Herald*, "a showing for Cleveland fully equal to what his most sanguine supporter has claimed," and "is considerably more than the necessary two-thirds proportion for him." The *Herald* adds that according to present indications there "will be not much more than a scattering opposition to Cleveland's nomination in the Convention." All the opposition that there has ever been to Cleveland's nomination had its beginning and ending in David B. Hill. If he had not used his machine to misrepresent New York sentiment in regard to Cleveland, there would not have been at any time a question as to Cleveland's nomination by acclamation. The only obstacle to such nomination which exists to-day is that which Hill's "snap" delegation presents; and the only doubt which exists in anybody's mind about the wisdom of that nomination is that which is based upon a fear that Hill treachery will prevent success at the polls. This reduces the Democratic Convention's work to a very simple question. It must decide whether or not it will allow "Dave" Hill to dictate its action. What he says is very plain. It is simply: "If you dare to nominate Grover Cleveland, I will knife him at the polls. You must either take me or some man who represents my kind of politics." There is no escape for the Convention from a decision on this point. It must take Cleveland and reject Hill and all his kind, or take Hill and reject Cleveland and all that he stands for in politics and government. Mr. Hill has forced the fighting on this issue, and has made dodging of any kind impossible.

It is for this reason that Mr. Cleveland's nomination has for many weeks seemed to us to be a certainty. For the party to refuse to nominate him would be to make public confession that it had neither principles nor character, but was hopelessly in the power of a gang of political brigands who regarded its sole mission to be the pursuit of spoils and public plunder. It is a great mistake to say that the Mugwumps are "dictating" Cleveland's nomination. They have had no hand in the present controversy, but have viewed it with more or less indifference from the outset. All the "dictating" has come from the Hillites, who have taken the party by the throat and have threatened to strangle it if it persists in trying to be honest and decent and worthy the support of intelligent and public-spirited men. The Mugwumps have regarded this struggle as a family matter, and have been awaiting the outcome philosophically. If the Democratic party thinks it can get along without the aid of independent votes, it can be certain of ridding itself of them by allowing the Hill brigands to control its councils.

The position of New York politicians towards the probable nominees of both parties is curious and instructive. Hill and his followers are threatening to knife Cleveland if he is nominated, and Platt and Miller are threatening to withdraw from politics and let somebody else run the Republican campaign if Harrison is renominated. If both parties could be rid for ever of the politicians who make these threats, it would be a good thing for them and an immense gain for the cause of good government in this State. Hill on one side and Platt on the other have reduced New York politics to a mere scramble for spoils and plunder, and have driven from the councils and leadership of both parties all men of first-rate ability and high principle. It is fitting that, so far as Presidential nominations are concerned, the New York delegation of either party should have little or no influence in determining the choice.

REPUBLICAN FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT.

THE platform of the New York Republicans this year asserts that "the people must continue to look to the Republican party to maintain the good faith of the nation in all matters of finance." This is but a faint echo of those vigorous warnings against Democratic financiering which used to appear in Republican platforms ten or fifteen years ago. Yet, after four years of actual Democratic control of the finances, the only charge against it which the Republicans could make in 1888 was that it had made "efforts to demonetize silver." This policy the national Republican platform of that year "condemned," though it is probable that the complaint of the same party this year will be that the Democrats want to remonetize silver. But, leaving that question of consistency one side, it is desirable, in view of the claim of the Republicans of this State cited above, to pass in review the financial management of the present Republican Administration, especially as contrasted with the record of the Democratic Administration preceding it.

Taking up first the question of economy in public expenditures and resultant ease in the situation of the Treasury, the comparison is far from bearing out the Republican boast. During President Cleveland's term the revenues exceeded expenditures by an average of nearly $100,000,000 per year. In President Harrison's first year the excess of revenue was $85,000,000, last year it fell to $26,000,000, and this year it will be considerably less than nothing. This difference is due not to declining revenues, but to swollen expenditures. The total revenue in the first year of Republican control was $16,000,000 greater than in any year of the Democratic Administration, and was $5,000,000 greater last year. The total expenditures tell the story, having been $19,000,000 greater in Harrison's first year than in any one of Cleveland's, and no less than $66,000,000 in his second. In place of the overflowing Treasury which Secretary Fairchild left behind him, Mr. Foster can show a net cash balance at the end of April, 1892, of only $31,000,000, and nearly half of that is made up of subsidiary coin which is practically an unavailable asset. And, as is well known and he virtually admits, even that narrow surplus would have been wiped out had he not held back payment of millions of appropriations made by a Congress Republican in both its branches. On the basis of this dispassionate comparison it certainly takes a good degree of effrontery for the Republicans to go on claiming a monopoly of the talent for financial administration.

Passing to the matter of actual interference with the currency—a subject which bears most directly upon that "good faith of the nation" to which the Republicans now refer—we find the fact to be that the Democratic Administration bent all its efforts to the repeal of the Bland Bill of 1878, and was so openly hostile to any extension of the silver coinage that the free-silver question was practically lifeless during the whole of Cleveland's term. But no sooner did the Republicans come into power than they began to display their superior genius for finance by coquetting and compromising with the silver-men. They fell into the immense mistake of supposing that a few chunks of meat thrown to the pack would satisfy them, instead of simply whetting their appetite and bringing them back the next day hungrier and fiercer than ever. The vaunted act of July 14, 1890, was accepted by the silver champions merely as a payment on account, and as an augury of final success in getting their whole bill paid. Not only did it thus inflame the madness which it was intended to allay, but in itself it has proved a most embarrassing measure to the Treasury. It appears from Secretary Foster's answer to the Morgan resolutions that the Treasury is already a loser to the extent of $12,000,000 under the provisions of this brilliant stroke of Republican finance. More than that, so threatening has that law become to the business interests of the country that chambers of commerce are demanding that it be rescinded, and a leading Republican Congressman has introduced a bill for its repeal. What is this but a confession that the law was a blunder from the start, and that three years of a Republican Administration have brought the finances of the country into a more embarrassed and even critical condition than has been known since the resumption of specie payments?

The personnel of the Treasury Department furnishes another basis for a comparison of the two Administrations, no more favorable to the Republican claim than the others. If Manning was known mainly as a politician before becoming Secretary, his ability and effectiveness as a financier were immediately demonstrated in his official papers and decisions. His successor was in all respects a safe and accurate Secretary. Of Mr. Windom's high character there can be no question, yet his ability, which was great, was too often displayed as ingenuity and audacity in playing with fire. His untimely death saved him from the mortification of seeing how futile his silver measure was in restraining the frenzy of the silver-men, and how heavy a load it has become to the Treasury. It is a great falling off to come to his successor, of whom it is the simple truth to say that he was fitted by previous training to discharge only the political part of the Secretary's duties, and that he has given his strength to that part. As manager of the nation's finances he has shown a vacillation without precedent, has made estimates absurdly wide of the mark, has allowed subordinates to be guilty of the most scandalous indiscretion, and in general has followed a fatuous "after-us-the-deluge" policy. He has been the weakest financier that the Treasury has seen in years, precisely when the exigencies of the situation called for the highest talent and the firmest character.

The comparison we have made is not vitiated by the undoubted fact that the Democratic party as a whole is not so sound on finance as is the Republican party as a whole. The point is, that the Democrats did, in fact, elect a President who was sound, and who gave the country a sound and able financial administration, while the Republicans elected leaders who have plunged the national finances into serious difficulties. The comparison that business men will make is just the one that we have made—a comparison of the actual records of the last two Administrations. In face of the showing thus arrived at, for the Republicans to claim that the finances of the country are safe in their hands alone, is not only to lay themselves open to the charge of untruthfulness and hypocrisy, but, what is far more dangerous in a political campaign, is also to expose themselves to ridicule.

THE DUTY ON OLD BOOKS.

THE abominableness of a duty on literature is an old story, but the "crazy-quilt" patch-workers who evolved the McKinley Bill have succeeded in producing in this particular, as elsewhere in that bill, fresh confusion, fresh restrictions, more unreasonableness, and more injustice. The paragraph of the McKinley Act free list which allows the importation of old books reads as follows: "Books, engravings, photographs, bound or unbound etchings, maps, and charts, which shall have been printed and bound or manufactured more than twenty years at the date of importation." This badly worded clause is a good example of the results of the tinkering method of producing legislation, as will be more clearly seen if we go back to previous tariff laws to trace the evolution of it. The paragraph appeared in the Tariff Act of July 14, 1870, where it read simply, "Books which have been printed and manufactured more than twenty years," and it was repeated in the Revised Statutes (1873) as section 2505, with slightly elaborated language, as follows: "Books which shall have been printed and manufactured more than twenty years at the date of importation." Here, of course, the stipulation "printed and manufactured" applies directly to the article books, but in the Tariff Act of 1883 the wording of the clause was changed, by the insertion of the words in italics, to read: "Books, *engravings, bound or unbound, etchings, maps, and charts,* which shall have been printed and manufactured more than twenty years at the date of importation"; and here the requirement "printed and manufactured more than twenty years" would apply not only to books, but also to the new articles enumerated, and of the latter, engravings might be bound or unbound. In the McKinley Act there was a further interpolation of the word "photographs" directly after the word "engravings," and the qualifying words "bound or unbound" were pushed along, and, by the removal of the comma, were made to apply (intentionally or unintentionally) to etchings instead of to engravings; while the confusion was made complete by the addition of the words "and bound" to the clause, which must be construed to apply equally to all the articles enumerated.

The question arises as to the effect of this awkward introduction of the words "and bound" into section 512 of the free list. The Treasury Department rulings under the Revised Statutes and the Tariff Act of 1883 held that unbound printed sheets were not "books printed and manufactured" within the meaning of that clause; but doubt was thrown upon this interpretation by the opinion of the Attorney-General of September 16, 1886, to the effect that works imported in printed sheets in unbound condition were none the less books, and, if printed more than twenty years, were entitled to free entry. The words in question might, therefore, have been added to the law in order to support the Treasury Department's construction of the paragraph as requiring books to be completely manufactured, *i. e.*, printed, folded, sewed, and bound, in order to be entitled to free entry.

The question of the assessment of duty on old books newly bound or rebound had been decided by the Treasury Department in the negative on March 5, 1872, and this decision was followed as a precedent as late as March 2, 1891, when it was held to apply on the ground that section 512 of the new Tariff Law did not differ materially from section 658 of the Act of March 3, 1883. But the Board of General Appraisers thought otherwise when the question came before them in relation to the importation of a lot of old books recently rebound, and argued that the word "bound" was new matter added by the Act of October 1, 1890, to previous legislation, and that no effect could be given to this additional language unless it was found that Congress meant to embrace by it the entire condition in which books should be admitted to free entry; moreover, no provision exists for the payment of duty on the cost of rebinding. The Board held, therefore (March 16, 1891), "that books entitled to free entry must be both printed and bound more than twenty years prior to importation, and that such binding includes rebinding when the same is entire."

As no appeal was taken from this decision within the thirty days allowed by section 15 of the Administrative Customs Act for applying to the Circuit Court of

the United States for a review of any decision of the Board, it has been followed in all subsequent similar cases of importation, and has resulted in great loss to the importers of books, and most serious inconvenience and uncertainty. It is not the custom to date book-bindings, and the most expert knowledge will not enable one to be sure of the age of any piece of binding, for books bound forty or fifty years ago, if kept in cases excluding heat and dust, will look fresher than others whose bindings of but five or ten years have been exposed to the action of light, dust, and gas. How, then, is the poor appraiser to decide equitably when his blind decision as to the date of a binding, costing perhaps two or three dollars, involves the payment or non-payment of 25 per cent. duty upon as many hundred dollars, the value of the book itself? When a book-buyer orders from foreign catalogues, he cannot know whether the books, despite their dates, may not be held dutiable by our Custom-house on the ground of the fresh appearance of their bindings; and he cannot be sure how to make out his invoices for the same reason. Nobody is helped by these vexatious hindrances. Our irrational attitude towards book-importation will not bring about a change in the manner of doing business abroad, nor will a single volume the less be bound over there, or a single volume the more be bound on this side of the ocean; so that American binders will certainly not reap any benefit. The single result is to discourage the importation of old books—a result that is chiefly harmful to the intellectual advancement of our own people. Clearly, the spirit of section 512 is to allow the free importation of all literature after a lapse of twenty years, but the Board of Appraisers make a farce of it by ruling that such literature must not be embodied in unbound books, neither must it come to American scholars in books too freshly bound, but can only be encased in bindings that have the appearance of an age of twenty years or more.

RAILWAY HOURS AND SERVICE.

A MONTH ago three directors of the Cambrian Railway, one of whom was a member of Parliament, were called before the bar of the House of Commons and publicly censured for the discharge of a railway employee who had given public testimony against that company before the Parliamentary Committee on the hours of labor of railway servants. The printed reports of the conclusions of the Committee and of the testimony make up an interesting story. There had been an investigation into the question of long hours for railway men for some time past. It was shown that certain classes of railway servants were often on duty so many consecutive hours as to imperil the public safety. This investigation led to no action on the part of Parliament, because it was felt by railway managers that any interference with their authority would relax the discipline of the employees, on which so much depended. Nevertheless, the evil and danger of overwork on the part of train and signal-men, and others holding responsible positions, were conceded, the practical result being an improvement in the arrangement of details of working hours, because of the strong public opinion aroused by the testimony taken.

Of course this testimony reflected upon the management of the railways to a greater or less extent, and the directors of the companies thus maligned (as they claimed) were indignant, all the more because their own men had furnished the damaging evidence of their requirement of exhausting service. Soon the Secretary of the Railway Servants' Society notified Parliament that four men who had testified had been discharged in consequence. The Committee called all the persons concerned before it, and reported as to three of the men that good cause existed for their dismissal. These employees were such as we are familiar with in the United States—men who neglect their duties and give their real attention and time to stirring up strikes. But as to the fourth man, named Hood, the Committee found that the discharge "was mainly in consequence of charges arising out of the evidence given by him before your Committee, and was in a manner calculated to deter other railway servants from giving evidence before your Committee." This was strictly true—the real offence of Hood was in saying anything at all about the long hours worked by servants on the Cambrian Railway; but the technical offence was falsifying the pay-sheets at his station. This he did in order to shield the company, because otherwise the sheets would have disclosed that an employee under Hood had been obliged to be on duty, at least nominally, for forty-four consecutive hours. A dismissal under such circumstances was not accepted by the House of Commons; so the offending directors were called before the bar and publicly reprimanded, after a debate which threatened at first to impose a more severe penalty.

The incident is worthy of note because it shows the fairness of the House in protecting laboring men against employing corporations when unjust treatment is shown, and also because it vindicated the right of the House and the public to freedom of testimony and of discussion in matters concerning the public welfare. It should also be noted that these supplementary examinations were made by the House Committee on the appeal of the Railway Men's Trade Union, which alleged unfair treatment to four of its members.

The subject-matter of the investigations, viz., the extra hours of railway servants, is important wherever railroads are run. A cast-iron ten hours' law we certainly ought not to have: it would work confusion rather than relief; but it is nevertheless true that many accidents might be traced back to the exhaustion and lack of vigilance displayed by railway men who had been on duty too long. The proper remedy is the holding of the corporations to a strict accountability for mishaps so arising, and the education of public opinion to the wrong and danger of excessively long, continuous service where such is the rule.

This accountability to the public is strengthened in Great Britain by an excellent system of examination into all accidents by an officer of the Royal Engineers under the direction of the semi-official Board of Trade. The reports are made to Parliament for general use and are non-political. The latest of these reports is that of Maj. Marindin on the killing of a trainman last October while switching. After asserting that the accident was due to the trainman's own negligence, the report continues: "The reason is not far to seek, for it appears that Choules had at the time been upon duty for a period of no less than 22 hours 18 minutes consecutively. It is impossible to believe that a man who had been on duty for this length of time was fit to take proper care of himself or of his train. I attribute the accident to the terribly long hours for which this man had been called upon to work."

A system of impartial investigation into all accidents in the United States would do much towards finding causes and effecting cures. But political investigators are worse than useless. Take, for example, the New York Railroad Commissioners. They have just dismissed Thomas W. Spencer, who has for nine years been the expert employed in inspecting bridges and track. His successor (after July 1st) is described as "utterly incompetent" and without experience in railroad work. Of what use would his investigation of an accident be? His only qualification for the office is that he supports Hill and is a "heeler" of Railroad Commissioner Beardsley, who was himself appointed solely to help along the political aspirations of our late Governor and present Senator. Reports by such a Board, either upon accidents or hours of labor, must be valueless.

Meanwhile, railroad managers are more and more recognizing that long hours "do not pay," even in dollars and cents; but it cannot be doubted that further progress can still be made in the line of restricting to reasonable hours the work of those railway men who are immediately responsible for life and property.

THE IRISH TRAGEDY.

LONDON, April 21, 1892.

THE general election, upon which the hopes of the Irish people have for so many long years been fixed, cannot be far off. It may come upon us any day. Meanwhile, there is no likelihood that the present posture of Irish affairs will materially change. It may therefore be opportune to consider our prospects regarding that election. Hope never beat higher than before Mr. Parnell's fall; a great change was wrought by that catastrophe. All

that has occurred since November, 1890, has more than justified sinister anticipations respecting what was likely to result from a split. But nothing has occurred to alter the conviction that a split was inevitable from the moment of the revelation of Mr. Parnell's treachery to his country, in preferring to her welfare the gratification of his guilty passion—in bartering for the devil's gains a place beside the Washingtons. Had the party endeavored permanently to stand by him through thick and thin, as it did for some days, the power of past cohesion might have held it together for a while, but sooner or later the distrust and antipathy engendered in the minds of most by the divorce proceedings would have led to disintegration. It would be as reasonable to attribute present troubles to the action of those who deposed the leader as it would be to attribute to a crew themselves the difficulties consequent upon realizing the insanity of their captain and taking from him the command. The discouragement really lies not in the number of the representatives who stand by Mr. Parnell's manes, but in the extent to which they find support in Ireland.

When the division came, many thought that Mr. Parnell could not hold out for a month. He held out, with apparently undiminished support, until his death nearly a year afterwards. From his grave sprang a feeling more bitter and irreconcilable than any that had shown itself during his lifetime. Whence the Parnellite funds come is a problem; but hitherto they appear sufficient, whether for elections, newspapers, or the sustenance of Parliamentary members. The Waterford election proved how mistaken were anticipations that Parnellism, without Mr. Parnell, would have no continued vitality. The Irish representation stands at present fifty-three Nationalists, thirty-one Parnellites, eighteen Conservatives. The forecast of the *Times* election commissioner seems to me tolerably well grounded, that there will be returned in the new Parliament (supposing there is no want of funds on one side or the other) seventy Nationalists, ten Parnellites, twenty-two Conservatives. If he errs, it is perhaps in underestimating the possible number of Conservatives. It is easy to point out that no people are ever united upon any question, and that, after all, seventy as against thirty-two would give a large majority in favor of a reasonable measure of home rule. It is easy to point out that the probably increased number of Conservatives will result, not from a diminution in the number of those who desire home rule, but in the better preparedness of those who oppose it. It is easy to point out that present differences among Nationalists are a guarantee that a homogeneous Protestant party in an Irish Parliament would be likely to hold the balance of power. But in the balancing of British opinion and in the consideration of such an important question as that of home rule, a change from a united party of eighty-four, fully prepared to make the best of whatever measure was agreed to, to one of seventy, leaving ten possibly in bitterest opposition, must seriously influence the British electorate.

Most unfortunate, too, will be the impression produced by Ulster (as appears probable) having a majority of members against home rule. No one, Irish or English, has altered his opinion who seven years ago fully gauged the necessity of the measure, both for the elevation and regeneration of Ireland and for disencumbering the Imperial Parliament. A philosophic conviction does not always prevent discouragement, at times almost amounting to hopelessness, as under recent developments. And how many held to their opinions more through sympathy, fashion, or feeling, than from deep conviction? The fact alone that English deputations are no longer sure of the enthusiastic receptions they met in Ireland from 1885 until Mr. Parnell's declarations regarding "English wolves" (indeed, no deputation since those utterances has thought it safe to make the experiment), has a most deterrent influence. Ireland is not the fashion as she was, and English social questions are pressing more and more to the front. Patriots engaged in belittling each other are by no means the objects of sympathy and interest they were when heroically enduring the amenities of Mr. Balfour's constabulary and jailers. There is less apparent hearty support of home rule among Irish Protestants than there was five years ago. Ascendancy in Ireland, for many years utterly demoralized by the shock of the land agitation, has been of late steadily reorganizing its forces; and so great is the strength of social influence, dominated by the official classes, and so remorselessly and surely has the power of boycott and ostracism been employed against persons suspected of Nationalist sympathies, that we fear it would now be difficult to procure those Irish Protestant declarations in favor of the change which were, during the Aberdeen régime, cheerfully accorded. The war of parties has been too severe a strain to be borne by thousands of tender souls. The tendency of those who nominally cease to take an interest in politics is to pass over to the Conservatives. Thousands who formerly read Nationalist papers have, from personalities and bitterness latterly shown in them, sought quiet in the columns of the Conservative press.

The apparent strength of opposition would doubtless disappear upon the establishment of home rule. For the present it seems like iron. Most Nationalists feel anxious and discouraged, especially, perhaps, those upon whom would be likely to devolve some of the burthen of the government of Ireland under a new régime. It is to be feared that a love of disaffection has become almost chronic in some sections of Irish society—as if people could not be happy unless in opposition to powers that be. Ireland is being more and more demoralized by Treasury grants, public works, loans, relief works. It is said that upon an adjustment of financial affairs between the countries, she would be the gainer. However this may be, the fact remains that there is apparently no limit to the financial concessions of John Bull, if only to silence "those beggarly Irish"; and that an Irish exchequer would soon be exhausted, and then all the socialistic and opposition forces throughout the country, expressed, it might be, at first, by only 10 per cent. of the representation, would come fully into play, demanding the realization of the golden prosperity so thoughtlessly prophesied by some as an immediate result of home rule. The present movement has found its strength partly in descending to a lower and more prosaic level than that of the Irish nationalism of former years. Nothing must now be done to diminish the expenditure of British money in Ireland. Where formerly the erection of new barracks and jails would have been held up to odium, they are now favored as leading to that expenditure of the "hard money" of which the country is so much in want. The Irish Nationalist members of both parties are, however, happily free from suspicion of desiring individual aggrandizement for themselves or their friends. The Conservative party have more and more made it a portion of their policy in all parts of the United Kingdom to minister to local needs through the dispensation of imperial grants.

The abusive language, the suspicion, the impugning of motives, the reciprocal libelling on both sides in this contest have done much to weaken public confidence. Nothing said by opponents during the darkest passages of the Pigott forgeries was much worse than what is now freely bandied between men who are believed to have known each other intimately. Other peoples can, without doubt, indulge in such amenities without danger to their liberties. Ireland cannot afford them. Few indeed are the Nationalist leaders whose prestige has not in some measure suffered. It has been too much forgotten that, bad as Parnellism is, Nationalism itself can by contest be dragged down to the same level. And yet, with the most thoughtful of those who believe they understand the combatants, the uppermost feeling is intense compassion. Knowing what the men really are, what at bottom are their desires and capacities, how unselfishly they have worked, how freely they have sacrificed, how patiently they have suffered, surely we may believe most of them are still capable of rising above present misunderstandings and complications, and again uniting for the common good. They appear now as if acting under some hideous nightmare or hallucination. The struggle of these long years (the continuation of the bitter contests of centuries) has been so severe, the sickness of hope deferred has been so real, as to have, as it were, temporarily thrown many noble natures off their balance. It was almost enough to shatter any cause to have so long to battle with such overwhelming force, to have borne such trials, and to have suffered such betrayal by a leader. Should the present movement, by any chance, end in disaster, "the classes" in Ireland will yet realize the mistake they are now making in opposing a steady *non possumus* to a movement capable of forming a basis for the orderly settlement of the country.

Bewildered as the British Liberals doubtless now are by recent developments of the struggle, they appear to me well enough inclined, with clear-sighted honesty and determination to support the convictions of their leaders. The British masses are perhaps somewhat thick-headed and difficult to move; but, once convinced, it is not their nature to go back. As the degradation wrought by slavery was, by the interested and thoughtless, used as the most powerful argument for the retention of the system, and by the clear-sighted for its destruction, so is it with the present difficulties in Ireland. No other nation in modern times has presented such a spectacle as she does in the steady decrease of her population within half-a-century, from 8,250,000 to 4,750,000, in its continuing decrease, in her constant unrest, in the patent source of weakness she is to the Empire of which she forms a part, in her inferiority to the sister island in all save natural features, the capabilities of her people, and their high morality. Present woes have been wrought under a system of external rule of a class and a religion, for a class and a religion, by a class and a religion. Sooner or later this system must end. If at the coming election, so much the better. But it now appears improbable that this change will bring immediate peace and contentment. We shall not garner in sunshine the harvest for which we have labored.

D. B.

PROSPECTS OF THE FRENCH CABINET.

PARIS, April 25, 1892.

BOTH Chambers have adjourned for the Easter vacation, and politics are at a standstill. The moment, therefore, is a favorable one to sum up the situation, and to try and fix the real meaning and tendency of the incidents which have just taken place. Naturally enough, *the* event of the session just closed has been the fall of the Freycinet Ministry and the formation of a Cabinet by M. Loubet. Scarcely yet six weeks old, the new Ministry has already passed through a series of determined attacks, and these, by somewhat forcing the Government's hand, have made it sufficiently clear, at least to the old parliamentarian, what are the peculiar dangers to which M. Loubet and his fellow-Ministers are exposed, what line of conduct they propose to take, and what future is reserved for them.

The crisis which, at the end of February, led to the fall of the Freycinet Cabinet was in no sense the outcome of a systematic opposition supported by convincing argument, nor yet of a genuine want of harmony between the Government and the majority of the Chamber. Unhappily, in France much less will suffice to overturn the Government coach. As we have here no great political parties strongly organized, with a clearly defined programme, and led by universally recognized chiefs; as, on the contrary, Parliament is broken up into a great number of distinct groups, allied only temporarily and almost at random; as, in fine, individual interests and rivalries often enough outweigh the public good in political conflicts, a ministry will frequently come to grief over a chance debate, beaten by a chance majority which no longer exists on the morrow. It must, however, be conceded that the Freycinet Ministry, during its last days, hung but loosely together. Personal ambitions interfered to complicate the situation, whence came, first, dissensions, and afterwards strained relations among members of what ought to have been a "happy family." No wonder, therefore, that a common understanding on political questions of vital interest became almost an impossibility. Complications of all kinds were not long in following. For instance, at the moment when an important law was to have been drafted, which needed the coöperation of two ministerial departments, the heads of these two departments would no longer consent to speak to each other. More than this, M. Constans, Minister of the Interior, had, in the Chamber, come to be the butt of the most virulent criticisms—criticisms, indeed, which were directed rather against the man than the politician, but which contributed none the less to enfeeble the Government more and more.

One may grant, then, that the catastrophe was not difficult to foresee. What no one was prepared for was the way in which it came about. Nothing, perhaps, more incoherent and incongruous had ever been witnessed in parliamentary annals than the debate that preceded the final defeat. The vote of confidence asked for on the Government's religious policy, eminently simple as it was, gave rise to a series of propositions and counter propositions wherein the Ministers entangled themselves as in a maze; and when at length they got out, it was to find that they were—in a minority. The humor of the situation was that the majority should have assaulted its own ramparts. On the point at issue the Cabinet and the bulk of those who conspired against it held but one opinion. The concluding incidents of the sitting and the events of the following weeks proved conclusively that such was the case.

A crisis of this nature, lacking as it did sufficient *raison d'être*, did not give much indication as to how a new Cabinet would be formed. Many thought that the situation called for a dissolution; that the existing Parliament, by its recent conduct, had shown that it did not know its own mind; and that no future Government depending upon the same support could at any time be sure of a majority that would enable it to carry on the work of legislation. Consequently, the President and the Senate ought to use their constitutional right, dismiss the existing Chamber, and appeal to the electors. M. Carnot, however, preferred to dispense with this drastic remedy; and, after a lengthened period of hesitation, M. Loubet was brought forth from the Senate, where he had played a comparatively minor rôle. To call the Loubet Cabinet a new Ministry would be obviously incorrect. It contains far more of the old element than of the new. Most of the Freycinet Ministers keep their portfolios, including M. de Freycinet himself; and most of them hold the same offices now that they did before the change. Those who have disappeared are either the nonentities, or else those who had excited animosities that rendered their return for the time being impossible. With but this slight alteration in the fresh Cabinet's composition, it was not to be expected that any great change of policy would follow. M. Loubet's advent to power, and indeed the new Prime Minister's manifesto, might have been signed *in toto* by his predecessor and fellow-Ministers. This method of patching up a ministry, taken in conjunction with the fantastical vote mentioned above, amply exemplifies, I think, what I said at the beginning as to the manner in which French cabinets are often constituted and fall to pieces.

The first days of the newly constituted Government were marked, it will be remembered, by a number of Anarchist outrages. Attempts were made to blow up in succession some military barracks and three private houses. As may be imagined, these explosions caused a profound emotion in Paris—an emotion which foreign newspapers exaggerated into mad panic and affright. Paris was not panic-stricken, but certainly rendered uneasy; and when at first the police seemed to hesitate and to take no energetic action, recriminations made themselves heard, while some newspapers profited by the occasion to sing the praises of the "departed" Minister of the Interior, and to declare that if only M. Constans had been at the helm of affairs, his watchful activity would have prevented any such deeds from taking place. These murmurings, however, in no wise damaged the Cabinet. In general, the people thought that at such a time the executive power ought not to have its hands weakened. Further, the two Chambers, feeling that the existing law did not give adequate authority to criminal courts for dealing with dynamite offences, voted without opposition the extra demands that the Government at once came forward to make.

The Anarchist difficulty dealt with, there remained still the religious question, which, as it had already been the occasion of the late Ministry's fall, threatened equal embarrassment to the present rulers of the country. M. Loubet, in his religious policy, made it clear that he intended to maintain the attitude taken by his predecessors. It is true, he did not express this in so many words. In order to put himself on constitutional ground, he declared that he would base his action in the matter on the Concordat of 1801, which still regulates the relations of Church and State in France. At the same time he endeavored to render both sides of the Chamber favorable to his policy. Hoping to catch the support of the section to whom the clergy is a *bête noire*, and who as a body favor a policy of repression, he announced that the Government was determined sternly to repress all clerical interference in political affairs. On the other hand, as a bait for the Moderates, he insinuated that he and his colleagues sincerely desired peace and reconciliation between Church and State, and that for his part he would scrupulously observe all engagements to which the civil power had lent its sanction. Amid these ambiguities of language, fresh circumstances arose which very soon brought to light the Ministry's real preferences.

A certain number of ecclesiastics had begun during Lent to tackle the engrossing subject of Socialism, either by treatment in the ordinary sermon, or by a kind of contradictory lecture from the pulpit, during which the part of the opposition was played by a priest previously prepared with certain objections. Neither the one nor the other method pleased the Socialists. The ordinary sermon was only a one-sided argument; and the contradictory lecture, where everything had been cut-and-dried, seemed little better than a sham. Serious disorders followed. A certain number of Socialists and of the extreme Radicals went to the churches in crowds, interrupted the speakers, and, when the church authorities intervened, broke into open riot. As a rule the police refused to interfere, on the ground that their duty was confined to maintaining order in the streets. The affair had then to be fought out between the church officials and the rioters, and the upshot was that more than once the furniture and images, etc., of the buildings were wrecked. About the same time several of the bishops thought fit to hold language which might be interpreted against the Government. For instance, the Bishop of Mende prepared to publish certain instructions to old and young of his diocese, in outward form spiritual enough, but between the lines containing criticism of certain acts of the civil power. Add to this that the faithful were admonished to vote only for the "ardent Catholic," and it is not to be wondered at that the Government should seize the incriminated copies, while still in the press, in order to pursue the delinquent.

These incidents naturally came up for discussion before the Chamber. At once the Conservatives, reminding the Government of its promises, called upon the Minister of Public Worship to take measures for insuring liberty and order in the churches. The Radicals, on their side, were not behindhand in demanding to know what course the Ministry was going to follow in presence of the "underhand manœuvres of the clergy." The two questions were really quite distinct; and, this being the case, separate replies should have been given. But, instead of disentangling the two issues, the Government preferred to join them together. As a matter of fact, both in equity and in law, the claim of the Conservatives was perfectly justified. The law itself is clearly laid down. The Government is obliged in any case to see that freedom of worship is assured. If disturbances arise, its duty is to put a stop to them, and to prosecute and punish the instigators. But the Ministry feared that, by giving a pledge to the Conservatives and promising to prevent the recurrence of the disorders complained of, it would discontent the Radical party. It therefore limited itself to a few vague protestations, try-

ing at the same time to attenuate what had happened and to throw the responsibility of it on the clergy. Then, attacking in its turn, it took upon its own shoulders the burden of the Radicals' complaint, condemned the attitude of divers of the clergy; declared that the Government would never tolerate criticism of its acts by bishops serving under it and figuring on the budget; and, finally, announced that it intended to prosecute the Bishop of Mende and to deprive him for a time of his stipend. These tactics had the desired success. The Republican party, always ready to repeat the famous epigram of Gambetta, "Le cléricalisme, voilà l'ennemi," accorded a vote of confidence to the Ministry with the utmost unanimity, and no more was heard of doing justice to the legitimate complaints of the Conservatives. Henceforth it was easy to understand in what sense was to be interpreted the previously vague language of the Government to both parties. The Moderates were to content themselves with fair words, while the positive pledges fell to the share of the Radicals.

If the debate on the religious policy of the Government ended in a complete victory for the Ministerialists, another which took place a few days later came very near to ending in a defeat. This time the colonial policy was in question. Though possessing a sufficiently large number of colonies and continually making efforts to extend her influence and rule over great and numerous territories, France cannot yet be said to have a colonial policy. With all due appreciation of what has been done during the last few years, it must be confessed that the efforts of our countrymen have never thus far corresponded to any general idea, nor have they ever been made on a clearly conceived plan, the realization of which might be slowly and surely pursued. The ministries that have successively come into power have always proceeded by small and isolated expeditions. Protesting always that their ambition was not great, that they simply wished to chastise a few rebels or avenge an insult to the flag, they asked at first for a small grant wherewith to send a small body of troops, and invariably finished by spending more money and losing more troops than if they had made a definite conquest once for all. Even the principle of colonial extension is far from being universally admitted. Therefore each time that a question of colonial policy is brought before the Chambers, the debates are long and animated, for not only is a point made of discussing the Government proposals, but the maintenance of certain colonies, as indeed the expansion of France itself, forms the subject of serious argument.

This was what happened on the present occasion. The Government asked for a supplementary grant, destined to reinforce the troops that were operating in the Sudan towards the "Hinterland" of the colony of Senegal, and to despatch an additional force to the coast of Guinea. The Dahomans, who had hitherto enjoyed the protectorate of France, had suddenly revolted and were menacing the French ports. Scarcely had this demand been made in the Chamber, when the Ministry was attacked on all sides, and, together with the Government debate on the grant, came the inevitable private motion and discussion on colonial policy. While some members protested against any sending of troops whatsoever for the new expedition, others proposed, on the contrary, to augment the grant asked for by the Government, on the ground that it was manifestly insufficient. These latter added that it was high time to break with the shilly-shally policy that had so far been pursued, and to resolve to act with decision and vigor. Curiously enough, it was the members of the Right—those who previously had been accustomed to protest against all colonial expeditions—who now came forward to advocate the bolder measures.

The attitude of the Government on this occasion was singularly inconsequent. Faithful to the traditions of its predecessors, it would make no definite engagement of any kind, declaring simply that it desired only the grant it had asked for, in order to meet the present necessity, and that it wished in no way to prejudge the future. One member of the Cabinet went so far as to say that he had no plan. After all said and done, the Ministry finished by obtaining what it wanted; nevertheless it was not able to congratulate itself on having gained a victory. It carried no vote of confidence, and it was by a majority of only thirty-eight that it avoided a vote of censure. If, then, the question put to the Government on its religious policy had helped to strengthen the Cabinet, that addressed to it on its colonial policy had done much to seriously undermine it.

To sum up, it may be said that the situation of the Loubet Ministry is at the present moment almost the same as that of the Freycinet Ministry at the moment of its fall—a state of things, indeed, natural enough, seeing that it represents the same policy, is composed of nearly the same elements, and is at the head of the same Chamber. It is unable to rely on a solid and uniform majority. Obliged to reckon continually with the diverse factions of the Republican majority of the Chamber, it can live only from day to day, and that without any clearly defined political line of conduct. With a little skill and complaisance it may be able, indeed, barring unforeseen accidents, to prolong its existence for several months; but it may also fall to-morrow on some trifling question, without there being any formal opposition on the part of the Chamber, and consequently without there being necessarily any change, as a result of its fall, in the total policy of the country. Outside this general statement—unsatisfactory enough—it is possible, by studying the parliamentary incidents which have characterized the Government's accession to power, to point out the dangers it is fated to encounter. Whatever may happen in the colonies, and whatever may be the success of the expeditions which are to be undertaken, the hesitating attitude it has assumed in the matter of colonial policy is sure to induce hesitations in the after settlement of the States it may be called upon to administer. On the other hand, in spite of the brief success which it has procured for itself by the recent exposition of its religious policy, it has really and permanently satisfied no one. Its fault has been a primary want of frankness, which will ultimately become a formidable weapon of indictment in the hands of the Opposition, and serious embarrassment, to say the least, will in the long run result from it.

Truth to tell, it is not from the ministerial and parliamentary standpoint alone that the religious and colonial questions have such importance. They are incontestably, though without its being always clearly understood, the two questions which at the present time outweigh all others in France. S.

FREEMAN AS AN HISTORIAN.

LONDON, April 23, 1892.

IN a preceding letter I have said something regarding the personal qualities of the distinguished writer whom England has just lost; in this one I will make a few observations on his gifts as an historian.

Every one knows the old maxim, "*Pectus facit theologum.*" Not less aptly may it be said that the merits of a great historian are far from lying wholly in his intellectual powers. One of the highest of such merits, a merit which the professional student has even more reason to appreciate than the general reader, is a moral quality—the love of truth, and the willingness to undertake, in the search for it, a toil by which no credit will ever be gained. This sort of conscientious industry was possessed by Freeman in a very high measure. Though he talked less about facts and verities than Carlyle did, Carlyle was not so assiduous and so minutely careful in sifting every statement before he admitted it into his pages. That he was never betrayed by sentiment into a sort of partisanship it would be too much to say. His Scotch critics used to accuse him of having been led by his English patriotism to over-estimate the claims of the English Crown to suzerainty over Scotland. Mr. J. R. Green and Mr. C. H. Pearson thought that the same cause disposed him to overlook the weak points in the character of Harold, son of Godwin, one of his favorite heroes. But there have been very few writers who have so seldom erred in this way; few who have striven so earnestly to do full justice to every cause and every person. The characters he has drawn of Lucius Cornelius Sulla, William the Conqueror, and Thomas of Canterbury are models of the fairness which historical portraiture requires. Though disposed to be positive in his opinions, he was always willing to reconsider a point when any new evidence was discovered or any new argument brought to his notice, and not unfrequently modified his view in the light of such evidence or arguments. It was this passion for accuracy and for that lucidity of statement which is the necessary adjunct of real accuracy, that made him deal so sternly with confused thinkers and careless writers. Carelessness seemed to him, as indeed it ought to be regarded, a moral fault, because a fault which true conscientiousness excludes. So also clearness of conception and exact precision in the use of words were so natural to him, and appeared so essential to good work, that he was apt to set down the want of them rather to indolence than to incapacity, and to apply to them a proportionately severe censure. Never touching any subject which he had not mastered, he thought it his duty as a critic to expose pretenders, and rendered in this way, during the years when he wrote for the *Saturday Review*, services to English scholarship second only to those which were embodied in his own treatises.

The habits of accuracy which he had formed were well illustrated by his attitude towards branches of history he had not explored. With a profound and minute knowledge of English history down to the time of King Edward the Second, a less full but very sound knowledge down to Elizabeth, and with a thorough knowledge of pretty nearly all ancient history, and of foreign mediæval history till about the time of Charles the Fifth, his familiarity with modern European history since the sixteenth century, and with the history of such outlying regions as India or the United States, was only that of the average well-educated man. But when he had occasion to refer to those periods or countries, he hardly ever made a mistake. If he did not know, he did not refer; if he referred, he had seized, as if by instinct, some-

thing which was really important and serviceable for his purpose. The same remark applied to Gibbon and to Macaulay. I am not sure that it holds equally good of Mommsen, admirably exact as he is in his own wide dominions.

Industry came naturally to Freeman, because he was so fond of his own study. None of his work was task work; all was done because he loved doing it. This joy in reading and writing of the past came from the intensity with which he realized it. In some directions he did not show much imagination: he had, for instance, no pleasure in books of travel and very little in poetry. But he loved to dwell in the past, and seemed to see and feel and make himself a part of the events he described. Next to their worth as statements of carefully investigated facts, the chief merit of his books lies in the sense of reality which fills them. The politics of Syracuse, the contest of William the Red with St. Anselm, interested him as keenly as a general election in which he was himself a candidate. Looking upon all current events with an historian's eye, he was fond of illustrating features of Roman history from incidents he had witnessed in taking part in local government as a magistrate, and has, in his account of the relations of Hermocrates and Athenagoras at Syracuse, some reflections suggested by his experience as a member of the Hebdomadal Council at Oxford. This power of realizing the politics of ancient or mediæval times was especially useful to him as a writer, because without it his books might have run the risk of being dull, seeing that he cared exclusively for the political part of history and scarcely ever touched upon social or religious phenomena—subjects from which such writers as his friend and disciple J. R. Green drew much of what gives a charm to their narratives. This was one of the points in which he rose superior to most of those German students with whom it is natural to compare him. Many of them have equalled him in industry and diligence; some have perhaps even surpassed him in the ingenuity which they bring to bear upon obscure problems; but very few of them have the same gift for understanding what the political life of remote times really was like. Like Gibbon, Freeman was not a mere student, but also a man of affairs, accustomed to take a part in the world's work, which enabled him to know how things happen in a way which the mere student seldom can. If he had less ingenuity than some of the Germans, he had far more common sense, and brought it to bear about their conjectures in a thoroughly useful and practical way. And he was wholly free from that craving which seems to possess so many of them to have at all hazards something new to advance, be it a trivial fact or an unsupported guess. He was accustomed of late years to complain that German scholarship seemed to be suffering from the passion for "Etwas Neues," and the disposition to disparage work which did not abound with novelties, however empty and transient such novelties might be.

The mention of the Germans suggests a reference to the enormous quantity of work he produced. Besides the five thick volumes devoted to the Norman Conquest and William Rufus, the three thick volumes to Sicily, four large volumes of collected essays, and nine or ten smaller volumes on architectural subjects, on the English Constitution, on the United States, on the Slavs and the Turks, he wrote an even greater quantity of matter which appeared in the *Saturday Review* for the twenty years from 1856 to 1876. This immense facility of production was due to his power of concentration. He always knew what he meant an article to contain before he sat down to his desk; and in his historical researches he made each step so certain that he seldom required to reinvestigate a point or to change, in revising for the press, the substance of what he had said. He was by no means what would be called a man of business—leaving the management of his property, for instance, chiefly to those nearest to him; but in his literary habits he was singularly methodical and precise. It is often observed that the extent to which all who write are drawn into journalism, and forced to write quickly, hastily, and profusely, must tend to injure literature both in matter and in manner. In point of matter, Freeman, though for the best part of his life a very prolific journalist, writing two long articles a week during twenty years, did not seem to suffer. He was as exact, clear, and thorough at the end as he had been at the beginning. On his style, however, the results were not wholly fortunate. It retained its force and its point, but it became diffuse—not that each given sentence was weak, or vague, or wordy, but that what was substantially the same idea was too apt to be reiterated, with slight differences of phrase, in several successive sentences. This tendency to repetition caused some of his books, and particularly the Norman Conquest and William Rufus, to swell to dimensions unfavorable to their popularity. That work would certainly be more widely read if it had been, as with more effort at compression it might have been, reduced from seven volumes to four. For this reason his manner is perhaps at its best in some of the smaller books, such as the sketches of towns and the collected essays. It must, however, be added that the prolixity we sometimes regret was partly due to his anxiety to be scrupulously accurate; and that the tendency to repeat the same word too frequently was due to his preference for words of Teutonic origin. He prided himself on this purity of English; but some of his friends thought he sacrificed too much to it. Nor must one forget to express a regret that he did not more frequently enliven his pages by indulging in the humor so natural to him. His letters sparkled with wit and fun, but it is only in the notes to his histories, and seldom even there, that he allows one of the most characteristic features of his mind to appear.

So far I have spoken only of his books. He was, however, also a Regius professor of history during the last ten years of his life, and the head of the historical faculty in his own University, which he loved so dearly. That he was less brilliant as a teacher than as a writer may be partly ascribed to his having come too late to a new kind of work, and one which eminently demands the freshness of comparative youth; partly also to the cramping conditions under which history has to be taught at Oxford, where everything is governed by a system of competitive examinations which Freeman was never tired of denouncing as ruinous to true study. His friends were, however, inclined to doubt whether the natural bent of his mind was towards oral teaching. It was a very peculiar mind, which ran in a deep channel of its own, and could not easily, if the metaphor be permissible, be drawn off to irrigate the adjoining fields. He was always better at putting his own views in a clear and telling way than at laying his intellect alongside of yours, apprehending your point of view, and setting himself to meet it. Or, to put the same thing differently, you learned more by listening to him than by conversing with him. He had not the sort of quick intellectual sympathy and effusion which feels its way to the heart of an audience, and indeed derives inspiration from the sight of an audience. Oddly enough, each of his three distinguished predecessors in the chair of Modern History at Oxford has been, though not for quite the same reasons, far more eminent as a writer than as a teacher. Each of them, and especially Mr. Goldwin Smith and Dr. Stubbs, adorned the post and stimulated historical study by his mere presence in Oxford, accessible to students and influencing the intellectual movements of the place. So Freeman's residence there, where he delighted to surround himself with all the ablest and most studious of the young workers, and his giving to them the fullest measure of encouragement and generous recognition, and setting a splendid example of loyalty to truth and love of freedom, conferred on the University a benefit the loss of which is being more than ever felt now that a cynical Prime Minister has appointed as his successor a brilliant literary man, Mr. J. A. Froude, from whom loyalty to historical truth and the love of freedom are conspicuously absent. In this way his value to Oxford can hardly be overrated. But it is after all by his books that he will be known. Some of them have already done their work in influencing the opinion or enlarging the views of his contemporaries. But others will live into a yet distant future, because the patient and thorough work and the vigorous sense which have been put into them will not permit them to be superseded, but will make them as essential to the next generation or two of students as they are now to ourselves. O. D.

Correspondence.

A MANUSCRIPT OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mrs. Helen Clark of Millfield, near Street, Somersetshire, has a brief but very interesting manuscript of President Lincoln, which I have not seen in print. It is a preamble and resolution suggested by the President for adoption by meetings in England, and transmitted to John Bright (Mrs. Clark's father) by the Hon. Charles Sumner. The Senator's letter, enclosing President Lincoln's manuscript, is dated April 17, 1863. In it he says:

"Two days ago the President sent for me to come to him at once. When I arrived he said that he had been thinking of a matter on which we had often spoken—the way in which English opinion should be directed; and that he had drawn up a resolution embodying the ideas which he should hope to see adopted by public meetings in England.

"I enclose the resolution, in his autograph, as he gave it to me. He thought it might serve to suggest the point which he regarded as important."

PRESIDENT LINCOLN'S MANUSCRIPT.

"Whereas, While *heretofore* States and Nations have tolerated slavery, *recently*, for the first [*sic*] in the world, an attempt has been made to construct a new Nation, upon the basis of, and with the primary and fundamental object to maintain, enlarge, and perpetuate human slavery; therefore,

"Resolved, That no such embryo State should ever be recognized by, or admitted into, the family of Christian and civilised nations, and that all Christian and civilised men everywhere should, by all lawful means, resist to the utmost such recognition or admission."

The above manuscript, and Charles Sumner's letter, are kept in a frame on the wall at Millfield. Moncure D. Conway.

New York, May 2, 1892.

HARRISON AND GRANT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The editor of the *Nation* (April 21) writes as follows:

"It seems to be one of the peculiarities of President Harrison that he has no further use for a faithful friend who allows himself to be caught and exposed. He dropped Dudley after . . . and dropped Quay after . . . Now he is preparing to drop Wanamaker."

The above reminds one of the fable of the Wolf and the Lamb. The said editor used to ridicule President Grant for standing by his friends who happened to come "under fire"; now he blames Harrison for taking the opposite course of "dropping" his friends under like circumstance. Some people are never satisfied!

Strict Constructionist.

Prairie du Chien, May 1, 1892.

[Our "Constructionist" is not so "strict" as he imagines. We in nowise reprobated President Harrison's course in dropping the unscrupulous henchmen to whom he owed his election by bribery and corruption. Nor is Wanamaker the "friend" of Harrison in any sense but that of being, as we said in the article quoted from, "the first man [in the history of our Government] who was known to have bought his portfolio with cash." The "friends" of Grant, on the other hand, whom he stood by under fire were social acquaintances, boon companions, members of his official family, and the like, to whom he owed nothing, but who owed everything to him, and who shamefully abused his trust in them by making their relations to him a vantage ground for public plunder and a shield against detection and punishment.—Ed. Nation.]

DRED SCOTT'S BACKER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A correspondent, in the *Nation* of April 28, calls up the Dred Scott case, and inquires who furnished the means of bringing forward and maintaining that case of dread. The case was instituted in the United States Circuit Court for Missouri. To the declaration there was a demurrer, which was overruled, and the defendant, John F. A. Sandford of New York, was required to plead over, and on his pleas trial was had, and verdict and judgment for him. The plaintiff, by writ of error, removed the case into the Supreme Court of the United States.

As stated, the slave Dred and his wife were held in Missouri. Dred had been carried to Rock Island, Ill., and thence to Ft. Snelling, where he was married. He claimed that this carrying him by his owner into territory where slavery was prohibited made him free. The Court, six concurring, held (1) that, being of African descent, Dred could not become a citizen, even if free, and therefore could not maintain a suit in the United States courts; (2) that he could not become free by being carried into territory where slavery had been prohibited only by act of Congress, because Congress had no power under the Constitution to prohibit slavery in the territory of the United States.

Montgomery Blair was at the time a resident of St. Louis, a distinguished lawyer of that bar; afterwards a resident of Washington and Mr. Lincoln's Postmaster-General. I had more than one conversation with him about this case, which he instituted and carried through for Dred. I always understood that he advanced means to carry it forward. It was like him to have done so; and such things have several times been done by lawyers within my personal knowledge. A. G. R.

Washington, May 6, 1892.

NON-NATURALIZED CITIZENS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with much interest your article upon "New England's Dumb Vote." As one of the "British immigrants" who "have obstinately clung to their old nationality," I should be much obliged if you would allow me to bring forward the reason which has in my own case, and I do not doubt in that of many of my countrymen, been the chief obstacle to the "assumption of the duties of citizenship." This is, the renunciation clause in the oath of allegiance. There may be some difference of opinion as to the meaning of the word *allegiance*, but to my mind it covers every duty which a patriotic man undertakes for his country to secure her honor and safety. To renounce this duty would, with many of us, be simple perjury. It lies in our bones and cannot be sworn away even if we would.

It may, of course, be claimed that one cannot truly carry out one's duty towards both the land of birth and that of adoption. This I most emphatically deny. The most trustworthy citizen is certainly not he who can, immediately on landing here, renounce all bonds that tie him to his native country.

Does a woman, for fear of future quarrels with her mother-in-law, call upon the man she marries to renounce all duty towards his mother before he vows to be true to herself? Would he comply with such a request if she made it? Would he be worth having if he did?

Do not complain of us who are debarred from the franchise by your own decree. Think of us rather as those who, with the desire and capacity to become good citizens, have not the right to take a hand in the management of even the districts in which we live. In your hands lies the remedy, not ours.

Yours truly, P. Shepherd.

Washington, D. C., May 4, 1892.

PUBLIC FINANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The annual English budget has been laid before Parliament, and, at the risk of exciting a howl of patriotic indignation, I will venture to give expression to the admiration it excites.

The first thing is its simplicity. Instead of long columns of figures which no outsider can understand, and which only obscure the totals, the summing up is as concise as that of a lady's pocket money after a day's shopping:

Revenue	£90,995,000
Expenditure	89,928,000
Surplus	£1,067,000

The estimate of a year ago gave a surplus of £166,000, so that the variation in actual results is less than 1 per cent. of the revenue. The estimates for the year 1892–'93 are:

Revenue	£90,477,000
Expenditure	90,253,000
Surplus	£224,000

—less than ¼ of 1 per cent. of the estimated revenue.

Compare this with the finance which one year has a surplus of one hundred millions and the next year is in arrear in the pay of workmen. And this year is only a sample of a history. About 1840, with a tangle of some 1,200 customs duties, the revenue showed a deficit. When the income tax was resorted to, and, in spite of the relief of several large items of taxation, showed a surplus of revenue, instead of a mad rush to pay off the debt as fast as possible, that surplus was used for further relief from taxation, binding the people together by fresh ties of loyalty and gratitude. It is perhaps not too much to say that by postponing the payment of its debt, the British nation has saved the full equivalent of the amount in its reduced proportion to the national wealth; and yet there has been going on a steady liquidation, till the amount of the debt has been reduced from £885,000,000 in 1816 to £685,000,000 at the present time. What nation in Europe can point to such a record?

Again, while nearly all the nations of the world seem to be engaged in a frantic emulation as to which, under the euphemism of "protection," shall injure its own people most in the hope of injuring foreigners, Great Britain alone stands upon her basis of free trade as on a rock, and every proposal to depart from it is met with a shout of laughter.

Why is it that the English national finance is beyond question the first in the world? Certainly it is not because of the superior wisdom of Englishmen. For one, I believe that the average of financial knowledge and of general intelligence in our Congress is fully equal to that of the British House of Commons. Nor is it that Englishmen are better financiers. We have an abundance of men as able to deal with the intricacies of finance as any Englishman who ever stepped. For example, there is compressed into four pages of the May *Forum*, and signed Michael D. Harter, a statement of the evils of our silver coinage and of the course which ought to be pursued, of which for sound finance and manly courage no English Chancellor of the Exchequer would need to be ashamed. But Mr. Harter is only one of 325 members of Congress, each of whom has as good a right as himself or anybody else to a voice in the matter. The real success of English finance lies in the fact that it is placed in the hands of one man. Parliament never proposes an expenditure or a tax. It has simply a veto upon the proposals of the Chancellor of the Exchequer. Yet it does not follow that he has it all his own way. He is exposed to an ordeal of criticism so severe that only a man of the highest abilities and (still more) purity of purpose can stand it. It is this process which has produced a list of names like those of Sir Robert Peel, Mr. Gladstone, and Mr. Goschen.

It must be confessed that for the present we are limited to merely speculative inquiry. Imagine the outcry in Congress which would meet a proposal not merely to give to the Secretary of the Treasury a seat in Congress, but to clothe him with the functions of the Committees both of Ways and Means and of Appropriations. Yet that is only a concrete statement of the much larger question whether this Government is to be carried on in the interest of the nation, or of the private interests which largely make members of Congress and control them after they are made: a question which, unless some peaceful solution in the former direction can be found, will ultimately bring on an appeal to arms. G. B.

Boston, May 5, 1892.

Notes.

HARPER & BROTHERS have under way 'Stories and Interludes,' by Barry Pain; 'An Edelweiss of the Sierras,' by Mrs. Burton Harrison; a 'Life of the Earl of Derby,' by George Saintsbury; and George William Curtis's address on Lowell before the Brooklyn Institute, illustrated with several portraits.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish immediately 'The Last Words of Thomas Carlyle,' containing his "Excursion (Futile Enough) to Paris," and his solitary novel, "Wotton Reinfred." The book will be the first of Carlyle's to receive an American copyright.

Lee & Shepard will have ready during the present month 'The Spirit of the New Education,' by Mrs. Louisa Parsons Hopkins; and 'Talks on Graphology: the Art of Knowing Character through Handwriting.'

The thirtieth volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) is exceptionally rich in good reading, as may be judged from the fact that it embraces Dr. Johnson, Inigo Jones, Ben Jonson, Joule, the Keans, the Kembles, and Keats. Dr. Johnson has fallen to Leslie Stephen, and is admirably chronicled in sixteen compact pages. One of the great lexicographer's "emphysematous lungs," we are told, is shown in a plate in Baillie's 'Morbid Anatomy.' The American contingent is also larger than usual, and includes John Paul Jones; John Josselyn, author of 'New England's Rarities'; Edward Johnson, author of the 'Wonder-Working Providence'; Isaac (husband of Arbella) Johnson, who came over with Winthrop; Sir Wm. Johnson, who comforted himself with German, Dutch, and Indian wives or mistresses; and George Keith, who, while still a Quaker and in Pennsylvania, put forth the earliest protest of his sect against slavery (October 13, 1693). We might also instance the actress, Avonia Jones, daughter of the once barratrous George, Count Joannes; and George Johnstone, in the notice of whom is to be remarked a reference to Mr. Stevens's 'Facsimiles of MSS. relating to America.'

The eighth volume of the new 'Chambers's Encyclopædia' extends from Peasant to Rumelia. It has hardly any feature that distinguishes it from the preceding volumes, and but one that invites comment, viz., the copyrighted article on Protection, by W. Draper Lewis. The editor has surrendered this topic entirely to its American friends, perhaps from the mistaken notion that he will thus recommend his work to the American public at large. A certain timeliness attaches to this infantile argument for shoddy and against free wool: "The protectionist believes that Government can aid in the unconscious adaptation of the individual citizen to his environment. . . . The climate of England is much damper than that of the United States. Wet cotton fibre is a better conductor of heat than wet woollen fibre. . . . Cotton being more easily obtained than wool, it is a waste of energy to use the latter where the former can be employed without danger to health. The dry climate of the greater part of the United States renders it possible for the people to employ with safety a larger proportion of cotton in their clothing than is advisable in England. . . . Thus the tariff on wool and woollens, besides being defended on the ground of the protection it affords to the sheep-raisers, is also," etc., etc. Not all the articles in the present volume have been intrusted to such powerful minds as Mr. Lewis's. Mr. Clements Markham, Mr. A. H. Keane, Prof. Andrew Seth, Mr. Edmund Gosse, Mr. Holman Hunt, Mr. Hamerton, Mr. Walter Besant, Mr. Austin Dobson, and Canon Taylor, are, however, if intellectually inferior to Mr. Lewis, safer guides. This volume has the usual colored maps of the States of the Union and of other countries.

Dr. J. B. Hague's rhymed translation of the 'Odes and Epodes of Horace' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) represents, on his part, the loving work of many years. It is accompanied by the Latin text as it was received thirty or forty years ago, and by an introduction and notes intended for the general reader. The versions, although very free, contain the same number of lines as the originals; the notes consist chiefly of those views of Horace, his works, and the history of his times which formerly met with general acceptance.

A new translation of the entertaining 'Memoirs of Marguerite de Valois, Queen of Navarre,' has been brought out (London: Nimmo; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). Henry IV.'s Queen is famous in literature and romance. Both her literary merits and her romantic adventures may be enjoyed by English readers in this excellent translation by Mrs. Singleton (Violet Fane), who has caught the spirit of the original and rendered it successfully, barring some few misapprehensions here and there. The picture of the times given by a princess whose charms were celebrated, whose rank brought her into contact with all the leading men and women of a most stirring epoch, is a brilliant one. Marguerite writes well almost always—remarkably well at times. Her native talent was helped by the scenes she witnessed and reported. The troublous years of the close of the dynasty of Valois live in her pages; the pitiable Charles IX., the contemptible Henry III., the bold Henry of Navarre, the intriguing Catherine de Médicis, are portraits touched with a master hand. As for the description of the massacre of St. Bartholomew—of so much of it, at least, as the Queen saw—it is so well known to every student of sixteenth-century history and literature that it needs only a bare mention. For the rest, Court gossip mingles with historical material; pictures of state ceremonies with accounts of family jars; political disquisitions with indignant refutations of slanders. In short, the Memoirs are full of the savor, the piquancy, the quaintness and interest of the stirring age when Huguenot strove against Catholic, and the three Henrys were in the field against each other. The work is beautifully printed on thick paper, and illustrated with excellent portraits of the chief personages.

The Clarendon Press sends out a carefully prepared edition of the old French poem contained in MS. 596, in the Lambeth Library. Mr. G. H. Orpen is the editor, and he not only has collated the text of Francisque Michel's edition of 1837 with the original MS., but has added a literal translation, abundant and well-digested notes, a map of that part of Ireland, Midhe and Laighin, in which lay the scene of the war described in the poem, full indexes of places and names, a glossary, and a title, 'The Song of Dermot and the Earl.' The MS. has been consulted by historians of Ireland, notably by Stokes, but the text has never yet been presented in so useful and handy a form as in Mr. Orpen's valuable edition. The translation, which is printed on the right-hand pages, the text occupying the left, claims no merit of literary beauty, but it has the far more important one, in this case, of faithfulness and accuracy.

Every mathematician who proposes to carry his studies beyond the college curriculum will be glad to learn that Prof. F. N. Cole has published a translation of Netto's well-known 'Theory of Substitutions,' which can be obtained by enclosing three dollars to the Register Publishing Company, Ann Arbor, Mich. If not a great classic, it is a standard treatise; and the student who is not thoroughly familiar with its contents (which can nowhere else be so conveniently mastered) will find himself put to serious inconvenience in reading many a recent German memoir. The present edition has been extensively revised and altered by the author, so that it is better than the German original—not to speak of the comfort of reading mathematics in our clear and concise language.

We may also call attention to the second edition of Joseph Edwards' 'Elementary Treatise on the Differential Calculus' (Macmillan), a sensible and useful treatise, including everything necessary, and excluding subtilties not called for. The examples are specially copious and well chosen, and in general the treatise has the best qualities of the English text-books, without their worst defects. Still, we cannot help thinking that the examination of such Continental treatises as those of Schlömilch and of Jordan would have led to some improvements. However, the student will find the presentation easy, interesting, and tolerably full.

M. Max Leclerc has reprinted in handy form from the *Revue Bleue* his address to pupils and alumni of the École Libre des Sciences Politiques on University Extension ('Le Rôle Social des Universités.' Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.). It is a clear presentation of the English movement of which America is now just feeling the contagion. M. Leclerc does not advocate a servile imitation of methods, but would have his countrymen catch the spirit of this effort to make the university a centre for the diffusion of sweetness and light in the community at large.

The choice for a thesis of such a subject as 'The Palatal Consonants in English,' by Mr. Benjamin Duryea Woodward of Columbia, is noteworthy as indicating a commendable turning to more critical work in English philology. Unfortunately, however, the thesis itself can hardly receive the highest praise. Mr. Woodward has brought together all the examples of words in which palatal consonants occur, but he seems to be too poorly equipped on the side of phonetics to carry on such an investigation successfully. A greater blunder was to base everything upon the etymologies in Skeat's Dictionary, many of which are inaccurate and have been already corrected by Kluge, whose 'Etymologisches Wörterbuch' is not mentioned by the writer. Take, for instance, the words with initial *sh* and those with the *sk* sound. The majority of the former are derived from Old English words with initial *sc*, while the majority of the latter come from the Old French or the Scandinavian. Exceptions to rules of such uniformity ought to be explained, but Skeat makes no attempt to explain them, and Mr. Woodward follows him in this.

A commendable 'Catalogue, with Descriptive Notices, of the Portraits, Busts, etc., belonging to Yale University,' has just been published by the Corporation, under the painstaking editorship of Mr. Franklin B. Dexter. The Trumbull portraits (including a full-length, life-size Washington) and miniatures cut a large figure in the collection, and the Trumbull family itself is well pictured. The list embraces a great number of colonial worthies, as well as of the leading men of the Revolution and the first half-century of the

Republic, along with latter-day governors, professors, benefactors, etc., and some Old World personages, mostly of doubtful ascription and authenticity, as Mr. Dexter intimates. One of the most interesting portraits is that of Eli Whitney by S. F. B. Morse. Mr. Dexter provides an index of artists, and one would have expected also a list of subjects, by no means rendered superfluous by the alphabetical arrangement of the descriptive notices.

The significance of the recent action of the Yale Faculty in admitting women to the degree of Ph.D. is defined by Prof. Hadley in the *Educational Review* for May. It was, he says, merely giving "official recognition as members of the University" to women, who had for many years past availed themselves, by the courtesy of instructors, of the courses of graduate instruction. Such recognition "seemed only fair," and hence was voted almost unanimously. Prof. Hadley argues that this step does not involve co-education in the College, which has been conservative, while the University existing side by side with it has been progressive, and makes in this instance no breach of tradition.

An appeal for the equipment of the Soldiers' Field, Harvard's new athletic ground beside the Charles River, has been put forth by a committee with Mr. Alexander Agassiz at its head, and Mr. William Hooper, No. 87 Milk Street, Boston, for its treasurer. Plans accompany the statement of needs, and call for the sum of fifty thousand dollars.

The "Quarter-yearly Review of the Liberal Arts called the *Knight Errant*," which emanates from Boston (Elzevir Press, 106 Pearl Street), has a well-devised cover design, and indulges in bold print on heavy paper with generous margins. The typography, viewed narrowly, is not first-rate. The articles are, mostly, vague echoes of Ruskin, Rossetti, and William Morris, and can hardly pass for bugle notes in the "war against the Paynims of realism in art, . . . the dragon of materialism, and the fierce dragon of mammonism," "for the succour of forlorn hopes and the restoration of forgotten ideals." The poetry of the number is equally ineffective. It would be hard to characterize the mélange, which includes part of an address by Prof. Norton, an allegory by Brander Matthews, a tale or picture by Bliss Carmen. In the main, the *Knight Errant* would seem to be not "a magazine of appreciation," but of depreciation. The one incontestable document is a photogravure of the lovely "Columbine" of Bernardino Luini.

One of the most beautiful maps ever issued by the house of Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, is the second edition of the "Carte Générale des Provinces Européennes et Asiatiques de l'Empire Ottoman" of Dr. Henry Kiepert. It might not inaptly be styled a map of the Eastern question. Its sweep is from the meridian of Rome to that of Shiraz, and from the parallel of Munich, Vienna, Kharkov, to that of Cairo and Suez. Within these limits, Arabia alone, of the members of the Ottoman Empire, is neglected. The whole of Hungary, Austria, Greece, the major part of Italy, are shown; the whole of the Black and Caspian Seas. The scale, 1:3,000,000, is sufficiently large to make of the four sheets conjoined a serviceable wall-map. They come to us conveniently folded as a folio, with tapes for hanging, and accompanied by an alphabetic index of places in octavo. The lettering is very clear and the coloring delicate.

Leach, Shewell & Sanborn send us the tenth edition of Dr. Kiepert's Ancient Atlas in twelve maps, and this, too, is provided with an index.

The death of Mr. Roswell Smith will cause no practical change in the policy or management of the Century Company. His place as President will be taken by Mr. Frank H. Scott, who has been connected with the company from the start, and has hitherto acted as Treasurer.

The reputation which the Bodleian Library enjoys for its collection of Cotton Mather's works has recently been put in peril by one of the subordinates of that famous institution, who stole these books. They were valued at £80. It is satisfactory, however, to learn that the whole of the Mather tracts have been recovered. The offender was sent to prison for a month with hard labor. Who tempted him?

"W. M. G." writes to us: "Permit me to call your attention to the fact that the identification of Mérimée's 'Inconnue' with 'Jennie Dacquin' is not a *new* discovery, as you will find by consulting the *Athenæum* of January 23, 1874. 'Dacquin' does not look French, and does look like a Frenchman's attempt to spell an English name which he has only heard, not seen. Sixteen years ago, it seems, the lady's name was spelled 'Jenny Dakin.'"

The article on the present requirements for admission to Harvard College in the current *Atlantic* is from the pen of Mr. James J. Greenough, and not (as we were led into saying) by his father, Prof. Greenough.

—We do not know whether any other class at Harvard has passed in its effects, but this has happened in the case of the class of 1828, owing to the death of its secretary, the late Dr. Henry I. Bowditch, and the near extinction of the class, there being but six survivors. The most famous of these is Mr. Robert C. Winthrop; but the Rev. Charles F. Barnard, Thomas B. Fox, George S. Hillard, and Francis George Shaw were also men of usefulness and distinction, and there were, as in every class, men of promise who were cut off in their prime, such as Charles Chauncey Emerson, the brother of the poet. A brief biography of the members, with a bibliography, is given in No. 46 of the Bibliographical Contributions of the Library of Harvard University. Dr. Bowditch was his own bibliographer, in no vain sense, and his notes on the several pieces in his list are perfectly characteristic of this warm-hearted and delightful man. His abolition attitude and activity, as in the Garrison mob, the Latimer case, the "Anti-Man-Hunting League" of Fugitive-Slave Law times, the war of the rebellion, are indicated with joyful recollection. The plan of the League was "to run off the slave-agent in case he declined to give up his victim after we had made reasonable propositions to him to that effect." By a regular drill "we learned how to speedily lay a man down and to carry him, in spite of his utmost efforts, out of the room without injuring him," after which he was, not lynched, in Southern fashion, but "concealed at one of our country lodges" till the fugitive was set free. "We had 24 lodges in as many towns, and 469 members," oath bound. The memorials of this organization are preserved. Also noteworthy is correspondence in manuscript concerning the inquiry, "Did Ralph Waldo Emerson sympathize with the Abolitionists?"—Dr. Bowditch holding that he never cared for them, and "was not with us in hard times." In short, these archives of a physician must not be overlooked by the historian of the anti-slavery struggle. At the close of the long list of Mr. Winthrop's writings, we are told that a patriotic hymn written by him and printed anonymously during the civil war obtained a wide circulation, and that it was not a solitary effort in verse on his part.

—The appearance of a new and extensively revised edition of Max Müller's 'Lectures on the Science of Language' has reawakened Prof. W. D. Whitney's old-time interest in that book. This interest expresses itself now in a distinct publication, a pamphlet of seventy-nine pages, entitled 'Max Müller and the Science of Language: A Criticism.' That it has been rightly named a criticism, we think the reader will be convinced. It might, however, be also called an investigation—an investigation into the scientific progress of Prof. Müller during the past thirty years. Of the first edition, representing lectures delivered in 1861 and 1863, Prof. Whitney gave a spirited account in the *North American Review* for April, 1865. His estimate of the advance made by the present edition is frankly summarized in the pamphlet before us (p. 3):

"As to these questions [the great questions which underlie the study], our author's views seem to remain what they were thirty years ago; he has gained no new light upon them from the criticisms that have been made upon his work, nor from studying the discordant views of others, nor from his own review and comparison and coördination of his old opinions. . . . It might seem as if, having written with such popular effusion and miscellaneousness about so many matters bearing upon language, he would have gladly seized the opportunity of a final revision to ponder and recombine it all, establishing in his own mind a certain connected and clearly held body of opinions which should yield one another mutual support. . . . Of course it was for him to decide what he would and what he would not undertake to do; it is not for his readers to prescribe the scope and limits of his task. But it is ours, now that the work is done, to criticise it."

The critic proceeds hereupon to apply his tests upon the author's attitude to fundamental questions; *e. g.*, the relation of thought and language, origin of language, the study of language a physical or an historical science, the individual's power over language, language as a barrier between man and the brutes, the relation of dialects to languages, the nature of phonetic change and phonetic law, etc.

—The result of our critic's patient and, on the whole, candid inquiry will be, we think, for every one who follows it the conviction that Prof. Müller has not and never did have any clear or self-consistent views whatsoever upon any of these questions. The most charitable judgment of Müller's work can only adopt the statement of Whitney (p. 75): "The book is not science, but literature. Taken as literature, it is of high rank, as the admiration of the public sufficiently testifies; its author has a special gift for interesting statement and illustration, for lending a charm to the subjects he discusses; and he carries captive the judgment of his hearers and many of his readers." We cannot refrain from noticing that the *Nation*, by a note of July 16, 1891, giving in general the same estimate of this new edition, has delivered itself from the reproof of Whitney's opening sentence, which announces the appearance of the book "followed by the usual array of commendatory notices." Whitney's pamphlet can certainly be recommended as good reading; it is incisive, clear, and sometimes sharp, and is everywhere marked by that priceless good sense which characterizes all the products of his pen.

—On May 5, with public ceremony and official courtesy, the Trustees of the University of Pennsylvania formally declared its graduate department open to women. The exercises were conducted in the large Library Hall, which was filled with men and women interested in the higher education of that sex. The Dean of Bryn Mawr College, herself a Ph.D. of the University of Zurich, delivered the chief address, and Dr. McAllister, President of the Drexel Institute, urged less niggardly public support of girls' preparatory schools in a country where nearly 90 per cent. of the school-teachers are women; but the interest of the occasion centred around Provost Pepper's remarks. College women and their friends were assured "that co-education may be safely and effectually conducted," but that as each institution must be guided by its own organization, the Trustees of the University of Pennsylvania considered it inexpedient to admit women except to its post-graduate courses leading to the degree of Ph.D., for while undergraduate instruction can be procured at many places, "the facilities for advanced work are only adequately developed in a few great universities." Experience proves that this advanced work must be endowed even more fully than undergraduate work. When, therefore, women wished to share this instruction, special funds were required. In 1890 Col. Bennett offered the University two houses adjoining its property, to be used as a hall of residence for women graduate students. The Trustees accepted this gift of about $30,000, arranged for the Graduate Department of women, and ordered its formal opening so soon as eight fellowships were assured. Dr. Pepper announced that the requisite number of fellowships, each of an annual value of $375, and tenable for two years, are now offered in this department, and that he had just received from Col. Bennett $15,000 as his contribution to the endowment fund. The total amount of endowment required to develop this new department and to extend freely its advantages will be not less than $100,000. "The University of Pennsylvania leads the way in a new field of educational work of the highest importance and significance. It marks an epoch in the history of the higher education of women; it has already incited to similar action in other quarters; and it will enable us to feel that no longer can the reproach be made that the splendid facilities for original research and for advanced study in this great university—many of which are due to the generosity of women—are reserved exclusively for men." A student in this graduate department for women must pursue graduate studies for at least two years, and must present herself for examination in three of the twenty-one courses of the Department of Philosophy. The woman's school will be governed by a mixed Board of Managers, consisting of the Provost as President *ex-officio* and some twenty ladies and gentlemen. It is encouraging to know that practically the only limit to women enjoying all the advantages of a great university is the capacity to pay for them *en gros*. Indeed, the Trustees state, through the Provost, that they are willing to provide a separate *college* for women, provided the means can be found.

—On April 11, the Rev. A. C. Headlam of All Souls' College, Oxford, read before the Hellenic Society an account of the monastery and church at Koja Kalessi in the Byzantine province of Isauria, a part of Cilicia Trachea. Laborde visited the site in 1826, but the account of it in his 'Voyage en Orient,' under the name of Aladja Khan, is that of an artist rather than an archæologist. Messrs. Headlam, Ramsay, and Hogarth have therefore been the first to discover its unique archæological importance. At first sight it might appear to be a basilica of the older type, but it has a central tower and has not a continuous row of equal columns. It is not less removed from the later type of Byzantine church, and apparently represents a transition from the older oblong basilica to the later church with a central dome—the church of Justinian's day. It has no dome and no external apse; chambers are built on either side of the sanctuary. An earlier date than the fifth century B. C. would require the altar to be at the west end, as in the case of old St. Peter's at Rome and in San Paolo fuori le Mura, and would not agree with the Byzantine design and workmanship of its capitals. But it must have been built early in the fifth century, for there is an entire absence of distinctively Christian symbolism in its ornamentation, and the design of its doorways almost suggests that they were taken from a pagan temple. The date, 461 A. D., on an epitaph of the site may give some clue. The second paper was by Mr. Louis Dyer, on "The Intervention of Athena in Heroic Affairs." A sufficiently clear and consistent account of Athena might, he contended, be derived from the poets. Therefore the need of new light from investigations of ritual was not so pressing as in dealing with Zeus, Dionysus, or Artemis. The earliest Athena of various local cults had grown into the universal goddess of skill and quick resource before the era of the Homeric poems. She showed men how to be themselves—for good, if good was in them, but sometimes also for evil. Skill of all kinds was in her gift, and in the Homeric poems she both gives and guides the mind of war and adventure. In the first two books of the 'Odyssey' we have the *Lehrjahre*, in the third and fourth the *Wanderjahre*, of Telemachus. The Athena who guides him throughout is a spiritualized counterpart of Athena Kourotrophos as worshipped on the Athenian Acropolis. Her help in war is of the same purely spiritual quality, and when (as in the 22d 'Odyssey') this is incompatible with a congruous dramatic situation, the poet does not flinch from the truth. There Athena-Mentor summons Odysseus to stand by her and see what she can do, and then, unaccountably as some say, she disappears. It is only by grace of Athena that Odysseus is his own clever self. This is shown by the sorry figure which he cuts without her. From the moment of his departure from Troy to his shipwreck on Scheria, he has recourse to her only once, when he escapes from Polyphemus. Elsewhere he invariably falls far short of himself, showing bad generalship, bad seamanship, and finally incurring the just displeasure of Æolus as one under the ban of heaven. The battles of the 'Iliad' and the Labors of Heracles are full of the intervention of Athena, who is the voice of wisdom in practical affairs. Hence Eustathius identifies her with the virtue of φρόνησις, Practical Wisdom.

GARDINER'S HISTORY OF THE GREAT CIVIL WAR.—I.

History of the Great Civil War, 1642–1649. By Samuel R. Gardiner. Vol. III., 1647–1649. Longmans, Green & Co. 1891.

Mr. Gardiner has completed his annals of the Great Civil War; he has reached the third stage in his monumental history of the age of the Stuarts. The moment is opportune for forming an estimate of his position among investigators of the past. It is the more natural to do so because Mr. Gardiner, in his last volume, pronounces a verdict on the character of Cromwell; and the extent to which we accept Mr. Gardiner's conclusions on a most intricate question of fact and of ethics must depend on our opinion of our author's capacity for the discharge of an historian's judicial functions.

Two qualities preëminently fit him for filling the judgment-seat of history: they are thoroughness and impartiality. Of the thoroughness of Mr. Gardiner's work it is impossible to speak too highly. We have all heard the story of the historian who refused to read new documents because his history was written and his opinions made up. This anecdote, which is told of many writers, may after all be true of none. It certainly would lack not only truth but plausibility if told of Mr. Gardiner. A critic would be dull or malignant indeed who could read his pages without perceiving that his life had been one of continuous, laborious, thorough-going research. That any man should know everything that may ultimately be known about a great era is an impossibility. But it would hardly be rash to assume that our author has, up to the point at which he has arrived, collected as much information about the years in the annals of England of which he treats as the undaunted industry of one man could bring together. He is not a great narrator; he does not display that power, which seems in England to have died out with Macaulay, of marshalling together masses of facts in clear and orderly narrative so as to tell their own tale and of themselves impress on the reader their own natural and inevitable moral. He has nothing like the brilliancy as a painter of particular scenes displayed by Froude, and occasionally by Motley. He does not exhibit the analytical penetration of Tocqueville. But his very shortcomings as a writer, and even, if one may say so with the deepest respect, as a thinker, make the more visible his thoroughness as an inquirer. He does not possess the art of concealing his method of work. Hence any observant critic can perceive his conscientiousness as a workman.

Nor is it disrespectful to add a remark with which, we strongly suspect, Mr. Gardiner would himself agree, that since the day—now, we believe, at least thirty years distant—when he began his great historical work, both his knowledge and his powers have immensely increased. His method of treating his subject is the method, to a great extent, of an annalist. He goes calmly on from year to year from the beginning to now nearly the middle of the seventeenth century. Each year his research makes greater discoveries, both because of the use he can make of his immense accumulative knowledge, and because habits of observation strengthen his capacity to observe. The book produced becomes, in short, almost a perfect and complete chronicle of a past age. We can read in Mr. Gardiner's pages the annual register of the reigns of James I. and Charles I.

Mr. Gardiner's thoroughness is, if possible, surpassed by his impartiality. If it were in accordance with modern taste to appropriate particular epithets to particular authors, he would be referred to as the "impartial Gardiner," just as the author of the 'Ecclesiastical Polity' is designated as the judicious Hooker. For Mr. Gardiner's impartiality is a virtue, or a quality, different not only in degree but in kind from the fairness of any honest writer. A narrator is generally counted fair if he takes due pains to ascertain his facts; if he sets down nothing in reference to men or

events which he does not, on good, solid, rational ground, believe to be true; if he suppresses no fact, whether it tell for or against his views or opinions, which has a material bearing on the matter with which he is concerned, and if he does not attempt, by rhetoric or other means, to bias the minds of his readers—that is, to lead them to conclusions beyond the inferences which the evidence, when fairly stated, supports. A writer, further, who pretends to real fairness will, especially in estimating the moral character of men's actions, try to distinguish between inferences which seem to him to possess moral certainty, and conclusions which at best are only probable. Few indeed are the historians who attain to this degree of fairness, but Mr. Gardiner seeks to reach, and often does reach, a higher, certainly a different, kind of impartiality. He wishes, where he judges at all, to pronounce a sympathetic, and therefore, in most cases, a lenient judgment on the men of past ages. He will not hand them over to the penalties of posthumous blame without bringing before the tribunal of opinion all the possible considerations which may turn, or sway, or lighten our judgment.

The kind of difference which marks off Mr. Gardiner from every historian with whom we are acquainted may be seen if we set side by side with his history Dr. Arnold's 'History of Rome.' No one but a fool or a fanatic ever accused Dr. Arnold of unfairness. A certain stern sense of justice was a marked trait of a character which, even in his writings, appears more admirable than amiable. That he never made a statement which he believed or suspected to be false, or suppressed a statement which he believed to be true, may be taken as certain. But though Arnold acted and wrote with the utmost fairness, no sagacious critic will ever maintain that Dr. Arnold's judgments were invariably fair. Still less are they marked by intellectual impartiality. Certain types of character excited his distaste no less than his moral reprobation; he viewed them in the light of a censor, and the sternness of censure is inconsistent with the indifference of criticism. To a man, for example, of the priestly type, it was hardly possible for Arnold to do complete justice; it would have been impossible for him to weigh in the same scales the feelings of Laud and of Baxter. With Mr. Gardiner it is otherwise. It is his conscientious endeavor (and often the attempt is successful) to look at the politicians or theologians of the past as they might, he conceives, have looked at themselves—to urge, for example, in mitigation of any harsh judgment on Charles or on Cromwell, all that the King or the Protector might by possibility have pleaded on his own behalf. Mr. Gardiner also exercises a kind of charity in judging the acts of his fellow-men, which, when applied to the conduct either of contemporaries or of the actors in the history of the past, is, to say the least, rare. He considers, in effect, what is the most favorable interpretation which can by possibility be placed upon their words or actions; and this interpretation is practically the explanation of their career which he adopts.

That this gift of impartiality, this capacity for preserving the attitude of a lenient judge, is a very singular and in many respects admirable endowment for an historian, is past dispute. The possession thereof, combined, of course, with the habit of studious research, enables Mr. Gardiner in many cases to place the character of individuals in a new and favorable light. We are inclined to think that, speaking generally, nothing but good results from this talent for impartiality as regards Mr. Gardiner's treatment of the secondary characters of the age with which he deals. We have not the least doubt that, on the whole, we get from him a fairer and truer view of English High Churchmen who lived during the reign of James and of Charles than is obtainable from any other writer, whether Whig or Tory. He puts in a strong light the liberal side of Anglicanism; he makes his readers perceive that Laud, for example, may have appeared to his friends no less than to himself the opponent of Calvinistic intolerance; and though we may perhaps suspect that a combination of churchmanship and liberality is the form of religion which preëminently commends itself to Mr. Gardiner's own sympathies, it would be the highest injustice to hint or imply that he did not embrace in his intellectual charity teachers of a class for whom churchmen have not much tolerance. From one of the accidents of history, Hugh Peters is the traditional representative of vulgar and truculent Puritanism. Mr. Gardiner happily shows that the received picture of Peters is a mere caricature. He seems to have been exactly what would now be called a man of genial nature.

"His letters show him," writes Gardiner, "as he really was, fond of a jest, much concerned in the price of corn and butter, and taking the opportunity of a sermon to recommend the settlers [in New England] to raise a stock for fishing, but anxious withal for the righteousness as well as for the material prosperity of the colony. . . . Peters's love of liberty was not a high intellectual persuasion like that of Vane. . . . It sprang from the kindliness of a man of genial temper, to whom minute theological study was repulsive, and who, without disguising his own opinions, preferred goodness of heart to rigidity of doctrine."

In his description of Hugh Peters Mr. Gardiner is at his best. He understands his man and makes his reader understand him too. He shows us both the virtues and defects of the Puritan minister, and also explains how it happened that comparatively superficial faults have concealed from Hugh Peters's adversaries, as they have concealed from posterity, the sterling excellence of a teacher who in some ways was in advance of his age. The admirable results of our author's sympathetic equity are never more apparent than when he deals with classes. The attitude of Cavaliers, of Puritans, of lawyers, of soldiers, of statesmen, and of zealots during the most critical period of English history, becomes, as we read his pages, thoroughly intelligible. We see that England was divided into hostile camps because there was real cause for division. We are led not to think that there was nothing to choose between Roundheads and Cavaliers, but to perceive that when the Civil War broke out, it was a difficult thing enough for a man of sense and honor to decide whether he would stand by the Parliament or by the Crown. Mr. Gardiner puts an end for ever to the delusion that a man could not be a Parliamentarian unless he were a fanatic, or a Royalist unless he were a courtier.

Is it, however, the case that Mr. Gardiner's knowledge and fairness make him a thoroughly satisfactory critic of character and conduct? We cannot answer this question with an unhesitating affirmative. Leniency and charitableness keep a judge from committing one class of mistakes, but they do not of themselves supply insight into human nature, or bestow the faculty for forcing truth out of the mouths of mendacious witnesses. Mr. Gardiner fails sometimes to realize the possibilities of human vice or wickedness. He has devoted much thought and trouble to the study of James the First. We have the advantage in this particular instance of possessing, in the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' our author's final estimate of the first of the Stuarts who reigned over England. It is on the whole a very favorable one, compared with the judgment which is passed on the King by men who look mainly at his weaknesses and his vices. Mr. Gardiner perceives that James was endowed with more than average intellectual power, and keeps constantly before the minds of his readers the consideration that James's difficulties arose in part from the King being in some points in advance of his age. James desired and planned the union of Scotland and England. He wished to maintain a policy, if not of toleration, yet of ecclesiastical moderation. He perceived the gigantic evils of foreign war; he was, in an age of warfare, a man of peace. In spite of his weaknesses, he achieved in Scotland considerable political success, and in England, after all, avoided the errors which led his son to ruin. He was, in short, a monarch whom from one point of view it was possible, if not to respect, yet to admire; and Mr. Gardiner, if he does nothing more, explains to us how a man like Casaubon or Bacon might flatter James without conscious hypocrisy or servility.

What Mr. Gardiner does not bring into view is the possibility—or the probability—that James's life was disgraced by sins which more than justified popular distrust. The darker side of the transactions which led to the trial and imprisonment of Somerset hardly arrests Mr. Gardiner's attention. The interpretation which he places on James's fear lest Somerset should reveal some dangerous secret is possibly the right one; it is not, we think, the explanation which most naturally commends itself to any one who reflects upon the strangeness of James's conduct, and the high probability of his holding and carrying into practice the doctrine that kings were not tied by the moral rules which ought to govern ordinary men. Whatever be the true solution of the King's conduct—and at least two or three are possible—there is something singularly feeble in the conclusion that James's anxiety arose from the knowledge that Somerset knew more about the King's dealings with Spain than James cared to have openly known. Yet this is, in effect, Mr. Gardiner's final judgment on the whole matter.

Why is it that a writer so judicious comes to so impotent a conclusion? The question suggests to us the real defects in Mr. Gardiner's mode of judging men. The first is, that he brings to the task of historical judgment very little of what we may call worldly knowledge. There never was an historian of sense and ability who was less of a man of the world. It is quite impossible that either Gibbon or Hallam or Macaulay—writers as different from one another as well can be found—could have passed so lightly as has Mr. Gardiner over the effect on our judgment of James of his admitted faults and weaknesses, such as his cowardice, his grossness, and his tolerance for grossness and viciousness in others. Mr. Gardiner's second defect—and it is a far deeper and subtler fault than want of worldly knowledge—is that he has formed a false conception of the kind of impartiality that should be practised by an historian. An inquirer into the history of the past is neither a moralist nor a judge. The distinction between their respective duties is of the highest importance. A moralist man rightly, as a precept for the conduct

of life, enjoin upon others, and himself practise, the virtue of charity. He may tell us, and with truth, that we best avoid the risk of injustice and unkindness to our neighbors by forming a charitable judgment of their conduct—that is to say, by putting on the acts of our fellow-men the very best construction of which they by any possibility admit. The duty of a judge is not the discovery of truth, but the determination of the question whether a given person is proved to be guilty of crime. A judge, therefore, wisely acts on the principle that no man is to be found guilty of an offence if his innocence is even a possibility. But the whole aim of an historian is the discovery and the statement of truth. With the charity which thinks no evil, with the judicial principle that it is more important that ten criminals escape punishment than that one innocent man be unjustly punished, he has no concern whatever. He must constantly deal not with certainties, but with probabilities. Undue leniency in judging men's actions is in him as distinct a vice as undue severity. This is a truth which Mr. Gardiner forgets. The impartiality of the judgment-seat is not the impartiality needed for the discharge of an historian's judicial functions. His aim is knowledge; he should practise not only the open-mindedness, but also the severity, of the scientific inquirer.

MORE NOVELS.

The Deluge. By Henryk Sienkiewicz. Translated from the Polish by Jeremiah Curtin. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Roweny in Boston. By Maria Louise Pool. Harper & Bros.

A Member of the Third House. By Hamlin Garland. Chicago: F. J. Schulte & Co.

The Governor, and Other Stories. By George A. Hibbard. Charles Scribner's Sons.

'THE DELUGE,' a booklet of 1,258 pages, is a sequel to the 800 pages of 'Fire and Sword,' so that we are now in a position to know all about it, provided Mr. Sienkiewicz and Mr. Curtin have dealt honestly by us as to truths of history and of translation, and we cannot entertain a doubt on either point. The adventures which are set forth in these narrow limits are not only enacted upon the page, but related and re-related to different characters in the book, until the reader finds himself in the position of the musical critic at Bayreuth who wondered that Wagner had not spared himself the trouble of repeated explanations on the stage, by allowing the persons of the drama to go out between the acts and purchase a book of the play. Condensation in the present case would have been easy, and would have lessened the impending danger that the readers of this novel will be limited to the patient reviewers and to Mr. Charles A. Dana, to whom the translation is dedicated. But there is no cloud without its silver lining: it is hardly possible that the editor of the *Sun* should have time in one season to read 'The Deluge' and to elect his candidate, and we may therefore reasonably hope that in *reading* history he will be precluded from making it.

The rising of Cossacks and Tartars in 1648 against the commonwealth of Poland, Lithuania, and Russia, having been disposed of in 'Fire and Sword,' there follows in 'The Deluge' the history of the wars of the commonwealth a few years later against the Swedes, under Charles Gustavus, when Poland enlisted on her side the terrible Tartars, and never knew from day to day if her sister States would stand by her or join the invading Swedes. The heads of the confederate principalities desired more or less to be true to the commonwealth, and desired as well to keep in sight the elective office of King of Poland. This portion of Poland's history, while hardly less bloody than the preceding period, is varied by the stories of a hundred treasons, plots, and stratagems, and, though only a little later in date, comes nearer to the modern idea than the history of a war with barbarians. Kmita, the hero of 'The Deluge,' is a wild flaming firebrand, who thinks to serve his country by fighting under the banner of the Lithuanian Prince Radziwill. Soon convinced that though Radziwill may have one eye on his country, he certainly has both upon the crown of Poland, Kmita, in flaming wrath, turns his back upon the traitor, and hews his way, through countless perils, to his King, John Casimir. Naturally suspected by all patriots, and especially by his lady-love, Kmita has a bitter experience of the difficulty of getting rid of a bad name. He flings himself into the cause of his church and his country, endures peril and torment, saves, by unheard-of daring, the fortified Convent of Czenstochowa, abducts a prince of the house of Radziwill, rescues the King from deadly danger, and then, gathering and training a horde of Tartars, blazes through the land in a hundred frightful battles, and so to days of peace for the commonwealth and to his own reward. His friends are our old ones of 'Fire and Sword'—the little game-cock, Wolodiowski, twitching his moustaches, sputtering gallantry and patriotism, supreme with the sabre; Zagloba, still shirking, scheming, bragging, guzzling, and beloved; Skszetuski and his beautiful Helena, whose fortunes made the love story of the earlier book, and who have now subsided into a seemly wedded unimportance. Kmita and his Minerva-like Alexandra take their places as lovers, and never had lovers more storm and stress to separate them. The book closes with the dearly-bought peace that at last followed the deluge of war, thanks mainly to the sword of the great general, Czarnietcki. Radziwill and the other interlopers being balked of their election, the crown remains upon the head of the rightful owner, and the subsequent abdication of John Casimir is probably postponed to the next novel.

There are scenes of thrilling interest in the history of this war. Most impressive, perhaps, is the siege of Czenstochowa, already referred to, where the friars defended their convent against the daily attacks of the godless foe, smiling at the pangs of famine, and singing hymns nightly upon their beleaguered walls. At last a great gun takes effect, making a breach too great to be filled, and ruin is only a question of time. Says Kmita to the prior: "Beloved father, there is a great heart in you, heroic and holy, but you do not understand cannon." Whereupon, by a dashing expedient, he blows up the gun, the convent is saved, and the country is thrilled from torpor into a united resistance against the foe who had dared threaten a sacred retreat. Kmita is, throughout, a figure to appeal to the coldest imagination, with his rages, his hates, his furies of vengeance and of loyalty, while his submission to all that separates him from his happiness, and makes him worthy of it in the end, is full of pathos. The austere figure of Alexandra has for foil that of Anusia, as modern a little flirt as can be found in fiction. The many kings, princes, and hetmans are remarkably well differentiated, considering their number; with a like modifying clause, the same may be said of the battles, the sieges, the forays, the tortures, and the ingenuities of brutality of a brutal age; but this does not save them from the charge of an intemperate overplus of being, which in art is a misdemeanor unless it be a crime.

Once, in speaking on the art of fiction, Mr. Walter Besant advised the young novelist to remember that in story-telling, as in almsgiving, a cheerful countenance works wonders. Consciously or not, the author of 'Roweny in Boston' has carried out this advice to the letter. From the first page to the last the story is told with a smile—though it must be confessed that, as regards the too recurrent terrier Marmaduke, the smile grows a trifle stereotyped. The heroine, it is true, mingles some nostalgic tears with her "light-housekeeping" in the attic-room on Hudson Street; the art student's inevitable moments of despair are hers, and she knows the craven thought, "I can go home. If I can't get a school, I can do slop-work." But she is really too clever and charming a maiden—a sort of *fin de siècle* cousin to Phœbe Pyncheon—not to win her way at the "Hub," and not to find that romance can send up some healthy shoots through the crevices left by psychical research, Christian science, theosophy, and the Browning Club.

Like Rowena at her brush, Miss Pool may be said to have the "touch." By a few lively strokes of her pen, her characters are made clear in outline, and are then left to explain themselves by their own words and actions. This they do with sufficient definiteness to prove that neither a talent for psychological analysis nor a gift of word-painting is essential to success as a novelist. Miss Pool has evidently had her eyes about her in more than one corner of Boston, but it is nevertheless her provincials that she understands to the ground. In these days, when realism, as applied to American fiction, is too nearly a synonymous term for vulgarity, it is refreshing to come across an author who is realistic without commonness and humorous without vulgarity. Rowena never blushed for her kith and kin in Middle Village, nor need the reader.

Those who insist on extracting a moral from every story will find one here made to their hand. If slight in fibre, it is at least a new motive in fiction, and has perhaps the merit of timeliness. It is that when a fascinating woman and a man are each contending for the first place in the affections of any young woman, it is always in the end, no matter what the first fancy of the young woman may be, "the masculine element which prevails." Beside this moral, there is an explicit lesson in charity. It is this: though a young man wear a monocle, have difficulty in pronouncing the letter *r*, and belong to "the very best set in Boston," he may yet, if very much in earnest, behave like a good fellow. The improvement in construction of this book upon the author's last, 'Dally,' warrants the hope that she can accomplish still better things.

Mr. Garland's latest venture in holding up the mirror to his compatriots is charged with high moral indignation. A righteous effort to bring to judgment the political trickster and all his works is so laudable, whatsoever its form, that the pity is all the greater when a story with this purpose in view turns the sharp edge of its weapons against itself. The cause, here, of this mischance, is not that the society revolving around "the Capitol" in an unnamed city and State is drawn as hopelessly vulgar. It would be wide of the mark to insist that the average member of a "House"—

whether second or first—at ease with himself and the rest of the world, in the ornamental bar-room of his favorite hotel, should be held up as a spectacle edifying to gods and men; neither is an "Iron Duke," his confidential secretary, who is at the same time a "King of the lobby," nor even his only daughter (though the American girl is proverbially quick to learn), of necessity a model of good breeding and a well of English undefiled. But even where the dramatis personæ are such as these, there are certain points of style and manner which the writer of realistic fiction must bear in mind if, when he is picturing common people, his book is not to be on a level with his people.

In addition, for instance, to the vocabulary he must use in furnishing forth the speech of his characters, he needs also to have at command, on his own proper behalf, a vocabulary and diction conformable to the requirements of polite English. By some means or other, moreover, he must succeed in creating the impression that between himself and his reader there exists a clear, though tacit, understanding in regard to a standard of mind and manners separate and apart from that of his underbred personages. Otherwise vulgarity will stamp not alone his characters, but also his story. Every story, according to a clever critic of to-day, must consist of an idea and a picture. To the idea of 'A Member of the Third House' there are few or no objections to be raised. Its author, if he means to produce pictures instead of travesties of American manners, has still to learn to paint, not with the brush that furnishes the glaring figures of the advertiser, but with the touch and tone of the artist.

Mr. Hibbard's sins against the canons of fiction are so many that it would be difficult to enumerate them briefly. To sum them up in a general confession, not one of the six stories reprinted under the title of the first in order, "The Governor," succeeds in carrying conviction to the mind of the reader. The air of reality, which is, after all, the supreme merit of a story, and which should be complete enough wholly to conceal the shifts and contrivances of the story-teller at work, is wanting, not less in the sensational attempt at portraying the emotions of a self-supposed murderer, who is rescued by an easy device from the consequences of a "mad, bad" hour, than in the highly unpsychological study of the interior transformation of a worldly old gentleman at the sight of his old home, his old rival, and his old love. Mr. Hibbard makes spirited dashes at difficult motives for short stories, and his failures are all in the line of ambition. He has fortunately—although he still leaves much to be desired in simplicity of expression—already emerged head and shoulders from the inept verbiage of a recent volume; and where there are so many signs of promise as in these latest stories, the hopeful reader is justified in expecting good things yet to come.

ROBERT TOOMBS.

Robert Toombs: Statesman, Speaker, Soldier, Sage. His Career in Congress and on the Hustings—His Work in the Courts—His Record with the Army—His Life at Home. By Pleasant A. Stovall. Cassell Publishing Co. 1892.

THE old-fashioned title-page of Mr. Stovall's book is like an old-time feast—everything is spread out at once. Of the four items of its sibillant alliteration, however, "Statesman, Speaker, Soldier, Sage," only two are made fairly good in the subsequent delineation. The attempt to represent Toombs as a statesman fails conspicuously, and there is no attempt to represent him as a sage—which is well, for such an attempt could have been only ridiculous. Whatever the virtues of the man (and virtues were not wanting), and whatever the defects (and they were many and have not been disguised), no man was ever less a sage.

When we consider the prominence that Toombs enjoyed in the great debate which led up to the Civil War, in the proximate circumstances of secession, and in the following strife, it cannot be charged upon our author that he has unduly magnified his task. His book has only 396 pages, and there is little on a page, the margins are so generous and the type is so big. As little can it be charged that he has written his biography with any desire to prolong the animosities of a most miserable and hateful time. He is undisguisedly in sympathy with Toombs, and generally speaks of him in an exaggerated tone, but he has no recriminations for the North and no disparagement of the Union party. Indeed, there is something pathetic in his imperfect characterization of Lincoln, the intention is so manifestly kind. It prophesies a time when the name of Lincoln will be, with that of Washington, a bond of sympathy between all parts of the country which he loved with undivided heart. Mr. Stovall has chosen one of Toombs's most conciliatory sentences for the motto of his title-page, and a passage of like import for a fuller motto following the dedication.

The most obvious defect of the book is its superficiality. It is no memoir to serve the uses of the historian, so little does it give us of the "true inwardness" of Toombs and others in their correspondence antecedent to the war. It may be said that Toombs had nothing to conceal. He was a man who always wore his heart upon his sleeve; whose sword was never in its sheath. Nevertheless he passed from one position to another, and his letters must, it would seem, have indicated the steps by which he did so. They are not indicated here. The lack is particularly noticeable in the years corresponding to his passage from the Whig party to the Democratic, for he was not "a life-long Democrat," as one of the most copious reviewers of this book has represented him, with astonishing inattention to its representations, which on this head are as clear as possible. He was a Whig until the campaign of 1852; an independent, bolting Whig in that campaign, refusing to vote for Gen. Scott, and supporting Webster heartily and hopelessly; and, Webster dying just before the election, Toombs swept his Georgia contingent into the Democratic ranks. In 1844, advocating the claims of Henry Clay, he made one of the first speeches that brought him into general recognition. It was delivered in New York. It was sharply critical of Calhoun's protection for slave labor as the *summum bonum*. If any discrimination was made, he declared that it should be made in favor of free labor. Paradoxical as it may seem, "Mr. Toombs was actually charged in this campaign with being an abolitionist," and was obliged to defend himself. He opposed the acquisition of Texas, preferring "the Union without Texas to Texas without the Union," and describing the Mexican war in terms hardly more flattering than those of Hosea Biglow.

But Toombs was not a strong, self-centred man. He was an ardent demagogue, and, as such, extremely sensitive to the influence of popular opinion. As this tended more and more, midway of the century, to make slavery the great Diana of the Ephesians, he grovelled with the rest, and, in the memorable contest for the Speakership in 1849, demanding from the Northern Whigs that there should be no restriction of slavery in the Territories, and, failing to obtain the concession, he split the caucus and led off the Southern faction to the support of Howell Cobb, a Georgia Democrat. Threats of disunion foamed upon his lips, and were from that time on his first resort whenever he sought to force the North to do the bidding of the South, though it was as a warm Unionist that he went back to his constituents after the compromise measures of 1850 had been passed. That he was again suspected of "unsoundness on the slavery question" only shows that in some minds slavery without disunion already seemed impossible.

Entering the Senate in 1853, Toombs's most interesting aspect there is in the fascination which Stephen A. Douglas exercised upon his mind. The picture of his face at this time is full of glowing sensuousness and arrogant self-confidence—a handsome face, in striking contrast with the frontispiece, which shows the ravages of age and evil habits. In the Kansas-Nebraska controversy he was for the most vigorous and rigorous application of the pro-slavery doctrines at every stage. If Frémont was elected, he would "call upon his countrymen to take that to which they would be driven—the sword." The attraction of Douglas for him was more personal than political. He acknowledged "but one greater, and he the Apostle Paul"; but Douglas's squatter sovereignty did not meet with his approval, and he declared that if he had not been called away from Washington in 1856, Douglas would never have "gone off on that tangent." He was not in Charleston at the Convention of 1860, but he approved the action of Yancey and the seceding minority, and, when the anti-Douglas Convention at Baltimore nominated Breckinridge, Toombs gave him his unqualified support. In Georgia he did not secure for him a majority of the popular vote. When Toombs became a Democrat, it was not in any half-way fashion. He opposed internal improvements at the national expense, and went so far as to preach the doctrine of Herbert Spencer, that the postal service should not be a Government affair.

After Lincoln's election, Toombs bent all his energies toward hastening secession, while in his last speech in the Senate, January 7, 1861, he named impossible concessions to the South which would keep her in the Union. Mr. Stovall contends that it was the ghost of Toombs's Whiggery that lost him the Presidency of the Confederacy; but he allows that there is another explanation—his conduct at a convivial party on the eve of the election in Montgomery. There is nothing in his previous or subsequent history to suggest that he would have made a better President than Davis. Their temperaments were antipodal. Davis had that coldness which the politicians never like. Toombs was far enough from this unpardonable sin: he was nothing if not aflame. Made Secretary of State, he soon came into collision with Davis, whom previous encounters had prepared him to dislike. He opposed the attack on Fort Sumter with clear prescience of its effect upon the North. In a few months his relations with Davis were so much strained that he left the Cabinet and took a commission as brigadier-general. That he was never advanced to a higher rank galled his proud spirit, and in

March, 1863, he resigned his command. His later contributions to the war were made as an adjutant and inspector-general of Georgia militia. It is agreed that to command soldiers one must first learn obedience—for Toombs, an impossible acquisition. The "instinct of personal freedom" was too strong in him. He was incapable of discipline or subordination. Moreover, his drinking habits were fatal to his advancement. It is not often that a biographer, especially one so eulogistic as Mr. Stovall, is so frank in his disclosures of his hero's weakness. He has a chapter named "His Great Fault," which, though it gives few particulars, makes it plain enough that Toombs's intemperance was very gross; that it increased during his army life, and excited constant apprehension; that in the last years of his life it quite overmastered him. His personal integrity and purity were in remarkable and happy contrast with his darling sin.

How complete the alienation between Toombs and Davis was at last is shown by the fact that in Washington, Ga., where Davis, fleeing from Richmond, and his Cabinet had their last meeting, though Toombs's own house was close at hand, and he sent a message to Davis, offering help if needed, the two men did not meet. Shortly they were united, together with Alexander Stephens, in Stanton's order for their arrest, and the dullest pages of Mr. Stovall's book are those detailing Toombs's remarkable escape—truly miraculous, he hung about so long and exposed himself so frequently. He remained abroad from November, 1865, until the spring of 1867. Returning to his native State, he resumed the practice of the law with great material success. He remained wholly unreconstructed to the last. The new South had for him no charms; his days were wholly with the dead. Taking a hand in framing the new Constitution of Georgia, he opposed the provision against duelling, in a manner consonant with the uncivilized habit of his life. All of his instincts were those of the barbarian or the semi-civilized man. He would have had no restrictions against bearing arms. Late in life he joined the Methodist Church. But he had nothing to repent of in so doing; with his last breath he said, "I would not blot out a single act of my life."

There are some interesting anecdotes, but not so many as we should expect a life so fashioned and so circumstanced to afford. Toombs met Lincoln when they were both in Congress, and Lincoln objected to sitting at a table of thirteen. Toombs told him he would rather die than be so superstitious. Daniel Webster's readiness to pay the national debt finds a companion story in Toombs's "Georgia shall pay her debts; if she does not, I will pay them for her!" And on two occasions he brought his private purse to the rescue of the public credit. When a Federal officer said to him, "We whipped you, anyhow," he answered, "No; we just wore ourselves out whipping you." His rhetoric was extremely florid, and his biographer's is of the same quality. There is a suggestion of throwing dirt in his metaphor describing Toombs: "He grasped only the great hillocks of thought, and left the intervening ground to be filled by the listener." And, in truth, he had a great gift for throwing dirt; he was a master of vituperation. Thinking with his prejudices and speaking with his passions, he is a capital example of the turbulent, irrational, immoral temper which hurried the South into the Civil War against the judgment of her saner part.

There are some mistakes in the book which the author would do well to correct before it fairly enters on the course of popularity it is likely to enjoy, especially in the Southern States. It should be Dr. Eliphalet Nott on page 13, not "Dr. Eliphalet Knott." On page 309, the date of Mrs. Toombs's joining her husband in Paris should be 1866, not 1865. On the same page Mr. Stovall's valor in comparing Toombs to Mirabeau gets the better of his discretion. The crime which made Toombs a fugitive was treason, and not gross personal immorality.

Latest Literary Essays and Addresses. By James Russell Lowell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892.

THE volume in which Lowell's last essays are garnered is almost exclusively of literary interest. To an unusual degree it is a students' book. The occasion of several of the essays, meant as prefatory to other matter, limited their scope and kept the discursive habit of the critic somewhat in check. Lowell required a large field to give him the natural freedom of movement that secured the best results. He was not analytic in method, but intuitive: he illuminates the subject, but does not organize knowledge about it; and consequently the brief monograph, which most demands self-restraint, afforded poor facilities for his genius. The meagreness of some of these pages, in contrast to the common abundant overflow of his mind in discourse, is thus accounted for. The essay upon "Richard III.," for instance, took up the single question of the authorship of the play, and while the topic permitted the author to write of Shakspere's general characteristics, he wrote fluently and delightfully, with equal penetration of thought and breadth of treatment; but there he stopped, and, having stated the point of view and suggested a general argument by naming the tests of authenticity, he leaves the main question at loose ends. For completeness, for conviction, it was neces ary to develop the argument and apply the tests in detail, but to do this was not consonant with his habit of mind. The result is, that one learns Lowell's doubt whether Shakspere wrote the play, but has no opportunity to judge the merits of the case without private study.

The essay on Landor, in the same way, is hardly more than a sketch and a reminiscence. He had written on the main subject before. His immediate task was to furnish an introduction to certain letters of Landor published in a magazine. The slightness of the occasion explains the character of the paper, which was of a temporary interest. The essay upon Milton's 'Areopagitica' was similarly a preface to a reprint of that work, and the one upon "The World's Progress" served a like purpose. Interesting as each is—one for the characterization of Milton as a man alien from his age even in dealing with contemporary politics, the other for the view it gives of what impression science made on Lowell's mind—neither of them is written or conceived in the large manner which we associate with their author's ordinary prose. All these papers reflect the lettered ease of a mind no longer strenuous except on great occasion; they show the scholar among his books, handling his thoughts with a certain unconcernment, content to let them go as they come.

In the three remaining essays there is a more marked engagement of the mind with the subject. Walton is treated with the touch that one gives only to a favorite author. The old angler's personality, his times and friends, interested Lowell, and what we had almost called the unliterary charm of Walton's phrase and moods, his freshness, felicity that seems unsought, his generous share of "nature," stimulated the pleased senses of the critic and drew out his sympathies; so that, in this instance, though the essay was also originally a preface, it takes a place of its own with the other studies in literature which make up the body of Lowell's work.

Gray, however, is the author of whom the best essay is made in this collection. The poet, both in his personality and his fame, gave "ample room and verge enough" for Lowell's distinctive powers. As is so often the case in the long-familiar essays on the older poets, the critic cannot confine himself in any definite limits. He must make his entry through a large portal and discuss the whole century before he has time to remember the particular poet he is to meet at the bar of criticism. Gray is out of sight at the opening, and remains recluse for a considerable waiting-spell. Meanwhile the eighteenth century is surveyed, its great names recalled, its traits singled out with much regretful contrast of past and present humorously thought, and from paragraph to paragraph the page is studded with those brilliant *sententiæ*, compact condensations of taste and judgment, which give to Lowell's best prose its air of world-wisdom. A more just characterization of the century which is the puzzle of our own, and which, by our ineptitude to understand its ways, almost convicts us of that illiberality we most zealously shun, is not to be found; it is worth chapters of literary history as such history is written when that period is treated of. It is brief, but complete and exact, though broad. Of course the figure of Dryden is large on the page, since Lowell never resisted the desire he had to speak of him, just as he always brings in Ben Jonson on the least provocation; but when Gray is finally reached, the special study of his life and genius is conducted with the acuteness, the light revealing touch, the disinterested self-possession, which inevitably force the spirit, whoever he may be, to render up the tale of what he was.

Gray needs to be treated with considerateness, with excellent breeding, for otherwise the most personal phases of his aristocratic and retiring nature would fail of their effect. Lowell's literary manner on this occasion is as perfect as an actor's. He illustrates Gray's character by the way he behaves towards him. We do not undertake to say that this is conscious art; it is probably only literary instinct. But the issue is most happy. We learn the truth about Gray, and our poet is not discomposed by the inquisition. There was a kind of felicity in this that Lowell was master of in all his subtler work, but the secret of it was constitutional, or, as we now say, temperamental.

Akin to this, so well illustrated in the paper on Gray, is the indefinable quality that escapes definition but not perception in the address on the Study of the Modern Languages, by virtue of which, while defending his thesis loyally and better than a more partisan supporter could have done, Lowell yet conveys the impression that he has half the truth in his other hand, and even playfully lets you see it from time to time. The modern languages have the field, it is true, but if courtesy stands in the foreground, honesty looks out behind, and will have to be reckoned with, amicably, of course, but justly. The orator turns the silver side of the shield, and makes it glitter in the light, but his hand is on the dark gold behind, and

he can't quite keep his eyes off it; or, to drop metaphor, let us say that here, too, Lowell makes his attitude of mind express a large part of his story. In this address, next to the essay on Gray, is the largest portion of that thought, now practical, now profound, which especially distinguishes his last words; and if the entire volume is less rich in this value than preceding ones, it is their light that casts the shade.

European Reminiscences, Musical and Otherwise. By Louis C. Elson. Chicago: Manual Publishing Co. Pp. 301.

MR. ELSON, who is already favorably known to readers of musical literature by his 'History of German Song,' 'Curiosities of Music,' and 'Theory of Music,' has added to his list a new work which combines travel sketches with a narrative of musical encounters—a perfectly "concordant" combination, inasmuch as music is the most peripatetic of all professions. In the course of several visits to Europe Mr. Elson made it a point to arm himself with letters of introduction, hunt up famous musicians, and have a brief chat with them. He was always hospitably received, and consequently has a good deal to report about the appearance and opinions of famous French and German composers, which appeals to the present taste for personal information and includes some details of biographic value.

Among the composers he met were Hiller, Reinecke, Jadassohn, Gade, Svendsen, Lachner, Rheinberger, Massenet, and A. Thomas. Robert Franz Mr. Elson did not meet personally, but received several valuable æsthetic letters from him, which are printed both in the original and in an English version.

Mr. Elson found that Dr. F. Hiller of Cologne "was not acquainted with the works of any of our American composers," but this was hardly a cause for surprise, as that narrow-minded person never even discovered that Germany had produced great composers after Mendelssohn and Schumann. Rheinberger, in Munich, on the other hand, was found "full of interest in American musical matters, and thoroughly conversant with what is going on among us." He and others spoke in the highest terms of their American pupils. In Munich Mr. Elson also met old Lachner, who spoke to him of his *contemporaries*, Beethoven and Schubert. "It was like turning back the hands of the clock half a century or more, to converse with this man. He had been an orchestral leader in Vienna when Schubert was alive! He had composed songs in friendly rivalry with him." Alas and alack! it was not a case of survival of the fittest. One more year added to Schubert's thirty-one would have been infinitely more valuable to the musical world than a hundred years added to Lachner's life.

All these old German musicians naturally proved to be very conservative in their opinions. Thus, Reinecke of Leipzig expressed his fears for new countries and their musical life: "The chief trouble is that they inherit too soon the wealth of the older countries. They receive at once the most highly-spiced and richly developed music of the modern masters, instead of growing up to them as we had to do." But there is another side to this question. There are a good many cobwebs in the brains of those who were thus brought up in Germany on the "old masters"—cobwebs which it is often impossible to dislodge to make room for new impressions. Americans have no cobwebs to brush away, and new composers are appreciated here sooner than in Germany, as our programmes and current criticisms demonstrate. The Germans, of course, consider this a mistake, as their idea is that no man has a right to any appreciation before he is dead.

At Copenhagen Mr. Elson met Gade, who had "fairly outlived those who used to call him 'Mrs. Mendelssohn.'" "He was old and portly, and his appearance would not give a clue to the genius within. Short of stature, round eyes, ruddy face, and bushy gray hair, with a manner in which joviality and impetuosity were combined, Gade impressed one as a professor of the old school, wrapped up entirely in his work and his art."

In a chapter on French music and musicians, Mr. Elson pleads for the introduction in America of certain French laws relating to amusements, especially the law which relates to the payment of a *tantième* to composers, thus protecting them against grasping publishers and managers. In another place he shows how American example has benefited Europeans: "It is no longer a combination of poverty and honor for the musicians in Germany. Mozart's day of suffering is past. An eminent professor at Leipzig told me that the high prices paid in America are having their influence in Germany. The great institutions find that if they wish to keep the musicians from starting for the New World, they must give pecuniary inducements to stay in the Old."

A very graphic account is given in one chapter of a Bayreuth Festival, in which the social side is especially emphasized; in another there is the only description (in a book) that we know of, of Wagner's early opera, "The Fairies," as brought out in Munich. The letters by Franz in chapter xvi. should be read and pondered by all who are lovers of lyric song. Franz, ignored at present, will be honored in the next century as the greatest of all song-writers, with the exception of Schubert.

The greater part of Mr. Elson's book is devoted to rapid sketches of travel in all European countries except Spain and Russia. He finds something new and entertaining to say about every city, and if some of the jokes and anecdotes are rather journalistic than literary, they are readily forgiven because they are so American. In general, Mr. Elson is an unusually optimistic traveller; and even when he has ground for complaint, as in regard to table-d'hôte dinners and German beds, he chooses the humorous form of exaggerated invective. He had the good (or bad) luck to be in Naples at the time of the great earthquake in Ischia, which is graphically described in chapter xi. The absence of an index to these 'Reminiscences' is to be regretted.

The Hell of Dante Alighieri. Edited, with translation and notes by Arthur John Butler. Macmillan. 1892. Pp. xvi., 435.

RECENTLY, in reviewing Prof. Norton's translation of 'Purgatory,' we had occasion to speak of Mr. Butler's work, which, we said, is the only serious competitor of Prof. Norton's. But we pointed out that, despite a certain virile and straightforward style and, frequently, apt renderings of particular passages, Mr. Butler is, in the long run, inferior to Prof. Norton. This conclusion is confirmed by a comparison of his just-issued translation of 'Hell' with Prof. Norton's translation. Mr. Butler states in his preface that he would not have undertaken to make a version of 'Hell' but for the fact that Dr. Carlyle's work is still in copyright. His purpose, as he remarked in an earlier preface, has been not to make his translation an addition to English literature, but a "crib" whereby English readers can get acquainted with the masterpiece of Italian literature. And in this he has succeeded more than fairly well. His edition is eminently one to be recommended to those who are beginning the study of Dante; for, on the same page, they will find translation, text, and notes.

Of the translation, we may say, in brief, that it has the same qualities which distinguish its predecessors—clearness, straightforwardness, and generally a very literal following of the original. Here and there, we are surprised, however, to see Mr. Butler strain at remote interpretations. Thus, at the very start, he translates *mi ritrovai* (i, 2), "I came to myself," justifying this version by the emphatic prefix *ri*. But surely there is nothing to indicate that Dante had lost consciousness just before the opening of the 'Divine Comedy'; the simplest meaning, "I found myself," is doubtless the best, since in colloquial Italian to-day *mi ritrovai* means just that, and not "I came out of a swoon." So he translates *chiavar l'uscio* (xxxiii, 46), "nail up the door," though the first meaning, "lock the door," is sufficient. Certainly, when Count Ugolino and his sons heard the outer entrance of their dungeon locked, and the jailers go away, they had a sufficiently horrible premonition of the doom awaiting them. There is absolutely no reason for nailing up a prisoner's door which has already been strongly locked and bolted. We cite these two instances merely to show how Mr. Butler, like almost all Dante students, occasionally goes afield for a recondite interpretation where it would be wiser to stick to the letter of the original; for no poet more often than Dante uses words in their primal sense. But in the main this translation is trustworthy, and it cannot fail to be of great service to those who read it side by side with the text. For more intimate and felicitous renderings, and for a more thoroughly Dantesque spirit, we recommend them, after they have mastered this, to turn to Mr. Norton's version.

The text has been carefully collated, and in those cases where there are important variations, they are given in a foot-note. The notes themselves are quite copious enough, without going into the intricacies in which so many Dante commentators have lost themselves and their readers. Mr. Butler gives sufficient attention to the historical allusions, and quotes liberally from the earlier glosses, especially from that of Benvenuto da Imola. He says wisely, in his preface, that students will do well to eschew all commentators between 1400 and 1800. Indeed, the time has come when a scholar who should produce a *variorum* edition of the 'Divine Comedy' similar to that which Mr. H. H. Furness is producing for Shakspere's plays, would earn the permanent gratitude of other scholars throughout the world. The notes to Mr. Butler's volume show that he has taste and common sense, qualities which are too often undeveloped in the German and Italian students of Dante. In a glossary at the end, he furnishes philological information concerning the more important words of the text. In conclusion, we repeat that beginners will find Mr. Butler's edition the best in English for prosecuting the study of Dante up to that point when no translation satisfies, because the original has become sufficiently familiar to require none.

The House Comfortable. By Agnes Bailey Ormsbee. Harper & Bros.

IT is a somewhat thankless task to attempt to teach the rudiments of common sense and to

give an acceptable outline of the details of domestic economy in the same breath. Those who have the former will be disposed to resent as superfluous many of the directions in 'The House Comfortable,' while those who unfortunately have it not, will not be likely to imbibe it from the printed page, but will in all probability have to work out their own salvation by actual experience with "the butcher, the baker, the candlestick-maker." There are, however, no doubt, a number of housekeepers who take their vocation seriously enough to make it worth their while to pick out the plums of information from the homely mixture of things that need to be said and things that go without saying, offered in these pages. They give a fair share of attention to the ornamentation of the home as well as to the equipment of cellar, kitchen, nursery, and sewing-room. The love of ornamentation and a certain amount of skill in it are not what the average young woman of the present generation is most apt to lack. What she lacks to a serious and almost alarming degree is the opportunity, or the ability, or both, to provide herself with suitable and permanent domestic service. Any advice that would help her to solve the problem of getting her home kept in order without the risk of nervous prostration, or the necessity for querulous complaints of cooks and housemaids, ought to be hailed as a boon. The preparations for making a home, manifold as Mrs. Ormsbee shows them to be, are but a skirmish compared with the steady engagement that is to follow. Until the question of responsible service for the housekeeper of moderate means has moved a stage or two nearer solution, the literature that treats of the acquirement of cut glass and decorated porcelain must have an ironical as well as melancholy side.

'The House Comfortable' is, however, on the whole, a creditable contribution towards a right theory of the disbursement of the family means. It treats of already copiously expounded themes, but it is simple and direct in expression and thoroughly honest in tone. Its author has no sympathy with shams or pretensions. A novice in household ways may with advantage keep it on her shelf to consult from time to time as she does those other friends and philosophers, the cook-book and the family journal.

Regards Historiques et Littéraires. Par Vte. E. Melchior de Vogüé. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

THE most interesting and successful of the critical papers, reprinted from periodical publications, in this volume are those which concern Russia. M. de Vogüé's special talent lies in happy insight, in felicitous characterization. These are well illustrated in the studies on the poets Neskrasof and Tutchef, and those entitled "Socialist Poetry in Russia" and "Idealist Poetry in Russia." Of the latter poet, who is little known outside his native country, several specimens, in French prose translation, are given. The study upon "Idealist Poetry in France," as represented by Alfred de Vigny, forms the proper complement to this delicately appreciative sketch of Tutchef. The writer also renders the justice of almost unqualified praise to M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu's great work, 'L'Empire des Tsars et les Russes.' The most vitally important article relating to France which the volume contains, however, is the opening address, originally written as a New Year's article for January 1, 1892. It displays M. de Vogüé in a field where he is coming to be acknowledged as an authority—the difficult field of adequately describing the great moral and intellectual tendencies of modern France, both in the present and (tentatively) in the future. In "To Those who are Twenty Years of Age," the author sets forth the difference between the Frenchmen of 1870 and those who, called to present themselves for military service in 1890, were lying in their cradles during the last war. "They accept their country as they find it," he says of the rising generation, "taking their place in it without enthusiasm, without impatience, as we inhabit in the most natural manner the city where fate has given us a shelter. The idea of razing it to the earth in order to reconstruct it on a new plan—an idea which constituted the delight of every intelligent Frenchman in former days—has lost ground to an infinite extent in the rising generation." If this be true, and if his other statement be true, that a schcol-boy is no longer thumped and thrashed by his fellows for "being nothing at all," and not holding set political convictions at a very tender age, the political future of France is not without some guarantee of stability, which will enable the young men to devote themselves with profit to their new passion for studying social problems.

Reviews of French books of travel, history, and social subjects fill up the volume: 'Au Pays du Rein,' by that clever observer, M. J.-J. Weiss; 'Lettres Athéniennes,' by the Comte de Moüy; M. Gabriel Bonvalot's famous 'Les Français au Pamir'; 'Dans l'Inde,' by M. André Chevrillon; 'L'Europe et la Révolution Française,' by M. Albert Sorel; 'Un Regard sur Notre Temps,' by M. le Duc d'Harcourt; 'Essais sur l'Allemagne Impériale,' by M. Ernest Lavisse; 'L'Empire Byzantin,' by Gustave Schlumberger; 'Le Roi Mithridate,' by Théodore Reinach; 'Napoléon et Alexandre Ier,' by M. Albert Vandal, and in another form by the Russian, Sergius Tatishef; 'Le Prince Talleyrand.' 'The Holy Roman Empire,' by Mr. James Bryce, also finds a place. These studies and two sketches, "Au Couvent de Resnoïe" and "Devant 'l'Été' [of M. Puvis de Chavannes]" range in date from 1886 to 1891, and furnish an unequal but, on the whole, a fair example of M. de Vogüé's capacity as a critic of serious books.

Mathematical Recreations, and Problems of Past and Present Times. By W. W. Rouse Ball. Macmillan. 1892.

MR. BALL, whose sketch of the history of mathematics has been noticed in these columns, now selects a subject in which a flimsy treatment is excusable and almost expected; and as his book is decidedly entertaining, perhaps no fault ought to be found with it. On page 33 he gives an amusing example of a fallacy in geometry. The reasoning is of precisely the same nature as that of Euclid i. 16, and of several other theorems which are found in most of the elementary treatises. The only difference is that those propositions are true, or very nearly so, while this amounts to saying that any one line has the same length as any other. If the reasoning were thrown into the form of a *reductio ad absurdum*, it would appear somewhat more deceptive.

The expression "mathematical recreation" has acquired a pretty definite meaning. It signifies a puzzle amusing to any person of average capacity, and involving a mathematical question that does not readily yield to well-known methods. Such, for example, are Solitaire, the Knight's Tour, the arrangement of dominoes so that each number occurs in squares of four. A tolerably complete and accurate account of all such problems hitherto proposed is a desideratum; but the want is hardly filled by a work in which the author ingenuously says of one of his chief topics, "I know nothing of recent Continental works on the subject." This remark, extended to other subjects and other works, would very well describe the method of Mr. Ball's exposition.

Having disposed of mathematical recreations, in 149 pages, Mr. Ball ekes out his volume with five chapters upon miscellaneous subjects, treated in the same scrappy manner, to which copious and obvious references in footnotes impart an air of erudition. There is a chapter upon astrology in which the 'Tetrabiblon' is said to be "ascribed" to Ptolemy. This is not accurate, since the 'Tetrabiblon' *purports* to be by Ptolemy, and is addressed to his brother Syrus, like genuine productions of his pen. There is a chapter upon hyper-space, in which perhaps as good a notion of a fourth dimension is given as could be acquired without serious study; but the sketch of the non-Euclidian geometry is not good, and the results of the "Continental" Klein and Riemann are misstated. There is a chapter upon time and its measurement in which we are informed that the earliest pendulum clock was made by Harris of Covent Garden, some "Continental work" being overlooked. The book concludes with a brief account of some theories, mostly British, of the constitution of matter.

Relation des Missions Scientifiques de MM. H. Hyvernat et P. Müller-Simonis (1888–1889) du Caucase au Golfe Persique à travers l'Arménie, le Kurdistan, et la Mésopotamie. Par P. Müller-Simonis, suivie de notices sur la géographie et l'histoire ancienne de l'Arménie et les inscriptions cunéiformes du bassin de Van par H. Hyvernat. Washington, D. C.: Université Catholique d'Amérique; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1892.

OUR travellers left Constantinople about the middle of August, 1888, by steamer for Batum. Thence, after being hurried through the Caucasus as soon as their priestly character was discovered, they traversed a small corner of Persia, and entered Turkish territory, involuntarily lingering for a month at Van. Oddly enough, these gentlemen, who had just been expelled from Russia, found it wise to have themselves placed under Russian protection at Van. The English consuls in Armenia M. Simonis characterizes as mere valets of the Turkish authorities. Journeying around Lake Van, they visited Bitlis, Sert, and Mosul, dropping down the Tigris by *kellek* to Bagdad. From here they made a flying trip to the ruins of Babylon, and then, in the latter part of January, 1889, took ship for India on their way back to Europe.

The scientific part of the mission seems to have consisted in the attempt to find and copy more of the ancient Vannic cuneiform inscriptions, of which sixty-eight had already been published. They found a few, which Prof. Hyvernat succeeded in copying, and saw and heard of a number of others, thirty in all, several of which had been reported before. Neither texts nor contents of these inscriptions are published in this volume, but only two lists of the edited and inedited inscriptions respectively. Besides these lists, M. Hyvernat furnishes a brief résumé of the history of ancient Armenia as ascertained from the Assyrian and Vannic inscriptions. A memoir which he prepared

on the ancient geography of Armenia, and which is announced on the title-page as among the contents of the volume, was lost in transmission through the mails.

The remaining contents of the 628 pages are a narrative of the journey, with occasional historical allusions, a review of the condition of the Roman Catholic missions in the region visited, and reflections on the social and political conditions. M. Simonis was obliged to depend entirely on Roman Catholic missionaries and converts for his information, and hence naturally writes from the point of view of those missions. Otherwise he seems to be fair-minded and impartial. He is rather bitter against the American Presbyterian missionaries in Persia, regarding their religious influence as very bad, and insinuating that in the past, at least, they have intrigued against the Roman Catholics; but their philanthropic labors he estimates highly, especially the reform they have wrought in the drinking habits of the people about Urumia. The English mission to the Nestorians he appears to regard as Roman in all but the name.

From the political point of view Russia is his *bête noire*, for Russian conquest would mean death to Roman Catholic missions. He draws a comparison between Russian administration of the Caucasus and English administration of India, altogether in favor of the latter. But, on the other hand, he frankly shows that Russian rule is to be preferred to either Turkish or Persian. Again, his sympathies are with the Russian methods of handling the Turks, and he strongly condemns the present English policy. The travellers experienced more than the ordinary difficulties with the Turkish officials at Van, and much of the narrative is a recital of those difficulties, and the stupidity, rascality, and corruption of Turkish administration. Of the life of the people they could, of course, obtain but a cursory glimpse. M. Simonis never feels himself bound by obligations of hospitality, and relates all he sees and hears among the European residents. Somewhat inconsequentially he reproaches the English consulate at Bagdad with smuggling antiquities out of the country, and relates a rather improbable story of the use of the English gunboat in that service; and then almost in the same breath he narrates how his party secured and smuggled out antiquities by the help of the French Consul. He is occasionally careless about names, and not sufficiently careful about his sources; but in general, making allowance for the bias referred to above, he is accurate and trustworthy.

M. Simonis furnishes a good map of their route through Caucasus, Persia, and Armenia, being Kiepert's map with a few corrections from their own observations. The map of the lower part of the Euphrates and Tigris valleys, however, had better never have been published. It is an inaccurate and poor copy of earlier maps, with no corrections. Some of the most important ruin sites of the country, rendered famous by recent English, French, and German excavations, such as Abu Habbah, Deir, Tello, Zerghul, Hibbah, and Abu Shahrein, are not indicated, while mythical or unimportant sites, like Serasovbli and Khirfan, are prominent. The ancient Assyrian Stagnum by Nejef, which was drained some years since, is represented here as a great lake. Nasriyeh, one of the most important towns of the whole country, is omitted altogether; so is Shatra, another town of consequence, while Samawa, following former errors, is located on Shatt 'Ateshan, instead of on the Euphrates. These are but a few errors out of many.

The volume is a quarto, printed in large, very loosely spaced type, with beautiful margins. It bears the mark of the Imprimerie Alsacienne, Strassburg. It is profusely illustrated; and many of the cuts and phototypes representing Armenian architecture and racial types are of permanent value. The full-page phototypes were executed from M. Müller-Simonis's photographs by Obernetter of Munich. One of these, representing Ctesiphon, has been reversed, so that the façade is represented on the right instead of on the left side of the great arch. Any book about Armenia and the Caucasus is timely at the present moment, and not least this present work; but, while edifying and instructive, the text scarcely justifies the size and magnificence of the volume.

Histoire des États-Unis de l'Amérique du Nord depuis la Découverte du Nouveau Continent jusqu'à nos jours. Par Auguste Moireau. I. La Période Coloniale, pp. 584. II. Les États-Unis de 1776 à 1800, pp. 504. Paris: Hachette & Co. 1892.

M. Moireau's history of the United States is laid out on an ample scale: the two volumes so far published come down only to the election of Thomas Jefferson, and it is to be expected that the complete work will fill at least eight volumes of more than 500 large octavo pages each. This is even more voluminous than the work of M. Carlier, which we reviewed last year, and which is not primarily historical, but rather expository and descriptive, like Prof. Bryce's book.

The only foreign work concerning our country which can compare in bulk with the one before us is Von Holst's History, but that does not undertake to cover the whole ground, as Moireau has set out to do. Although the French historian makes no pretence of having gone to original sources, but seems to have consulted only the printed authorities accessible to everybody, it by no means follows that his work is one of supererogation, or that there is no field for it to occupy. It will not only form a convenient and attractive manual for French readers, who can nowhere else find so full and accurate an account, but may even prove valuable to Americans inasmuch as, strange to say, we have no work by a single author covering our whole history. In history, as in all science, the prevailing tendency is to specialism: each writer devotes himself to a special period or to a special aspect of history, such as constitutional development, and the like. The recent work of Mr. Henry Adams is a case in point; its great value has been universally recognized, but if the whole history of the United States were to be developed on the scale laid down by Bancroft and by Adams, very few of us could hope to become acquainted with it in the course of a lifetime, even without attempting the history of any European country. What we still lack is a continuous history of our country from the beginning to the present day, written in a readable style, observing a due proportion in the relative space accorded to the various periods, not too bulky to warn away the general reader, but not so condensed as to crowd the incidents or the actors in them, and forming a harmonious whole such as can be expected only in a work emanating from a single mind devoted to its subject and saturated with it. Such a book we may never get, but, in the meantime, we must be glad to put up with what M. Moireau offers us. He would seem to have had some such ideal aim before him as is hinted at above, and he is certainly entitled to all the encouragement Americans can give him.

He has undoubtedly made a diligent study of everything that has appeared in print concerning the United States; he has his reading well in hand, and presents the results of it in a smooth and attractive style. He not only describes effectively the military and political incidents, but gives us sketches of character and chapters on social and literary conditions such as Macaulay used with such striking effect. It is true that he does not bring out anything new; but that is not to be expected after the microscopic survey to which the various detached portions of the field have been subjected by our specialists. He has taken pains, however, to keep himself informed of the most recent researches even concerning minor points, as, for instance, the controversy in regard to the authorship of the Kentucky Resolutions. One reproach to which he is open is that he does not always manage very skilfully the difficult task of synchronous narration. He will bring one part of the story down to a certain year in one chapter, and in the next will hark back ten or fifteen years to take up another thread and carry that forward. This is more particularly noticeable in the accounts of the separate colonies, which could perhaps have been arranged somewhat differently and less confusingly. The real test of his ability as an historian will have to be applied to the later volumes, when he will be relegated to the conflicting contemporaneous accounts to be found only in partisan newspapers, and will have to be guided in his selection of facts by the intuitive insight which is as necessary an outfit for the great historian as it is for the poet. What he has done so far warrants the expectation that he will acquit himself at least creditably of the task he has undertaken.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Acland, A. H. D., and Smith, H. L. Studies in Secondary Education. Macmillan. $1.75.
Barrie, J. M. A Window in Thrums. Cassell. 25 cents.
Bayfield, M. A. The Medea of Euripides. Macmillan. 40 cents.
Bernard, H. M. The Apodidæ: A Morphological Study. Macmillan. $2.
Bowen, C. W. The Centennial of Washington's Inauguration. Appletons.
Crawford, F. M. A Tale of a Lonely Parish. Macmillan. $1.
Dawes, Miss A. L. Charles Sumner. [Makers of America.] Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Dickens, Charles. Oliver Twist. Macmillan. $1.
Du Bois, Constance G. Columbus and Beatriz. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Du Bose, Prof. W. P. The Soteriology of the New Testament. Macmillan. $1.50.
Earle, Alice M. China Collecting in America. Scribners. $3.
Edwards, Joseph. An Elementary Treatise on the Differential Calculus. 2d ed. Macmillan. $3.50.
Evans, Taliesin. American Citizenship; and the Right of Suffrage in the United States. Oakland, Cal.: *Tribune* Print.
Fisher, Prof. G. P. The Colonial Era. Scribners. $1.25.
Freeman, Prof. E. A. The History of Sicily. Vol. III. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $6.
Froude, J. A. The Spanish Story of the Armada, and Other Essays. Scribners. $1.50.
Fullerton, Prof. G. S. The Philosophy of Spinoza. Henry Holt & Co. $1.20.
Gardener, Helen H. Pushed by Unseen Hands. Commonwealth Co. $1.
Gauthérot, A. A Rational French Method. W. R. Jenkins.
Gell, Mrs. Lyttelton. The Cloud of Witness. Oxford: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Glyn, A. L. Fifty Pounds for a Wife. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Greswell, Rev. W. P. Geography of Africa South of the Zambesi. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Grey, Earl. The Commercial Policy of the British Colonies and the McKinley Tariff. Macmillan. 30 cents.
Güntter, Prof. Otto. Walther von der Vogelweide. Stuttgart: G. J. Göschen; New York: International News Co.
Haggard, H. Rider. Nada the Lily. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.

Hale, Rev. E. E., and Lucretia P. The New Harry and Lucy. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Halévy, Ludovic. Karikari, etc. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Westermann.
Hall, Prof. J. L. Beowulf: An Anglo-Saxon Epic Poem. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. A Daughter of the South, and Shorter Stories. Cassell. $1.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. III. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Hatch, Edwin, and Redpath, H. A. A Concordance to the Septuagint, etc. Part I. A—ΒΩΡΙΘ. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $5.
Hazlitt, William. Lectures on the English Poets. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Heimburg, W. A Poor Girl. Worthington Co.
Henley, W. E. The Song of the Sword, and Other Verses. Scribners. $1.
Hibbard, George A. The Governor, and Other Stories. Scribners. $1.
Hill, G. B. Letters of Dr. Samuel Johnson. 2 vols. Harpers.
Hughes, Rev. Thomas. Loyola, and the Educational System of the Jesuits. [The Great Educators.] Scribners. $1.
Hunt, Prof. T. W. Ethical Teachings in Old English Literature. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.25.
Hurst, G. H. Silk Dyeing, Printing, and Finishing. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Hutton, A. W. Cardinal Manning. London: Methuen & Co.
Johns, Rev. B. G. Among the Butterflies: A Book for Young Collectors. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Johnson, E. G. The Best Letters of Charles Lamb. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Jousselin, Stéphanie. Yankees Fin de Siècle. Paris: P. Ollendorf.
Julian, George W. The Life of Joshua R. Giddings. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.50.
Kipling, R. Ballads, and Barrack-Room Ballads. Macmillan. $1.25.
Landauer, J. Blowpipe Analysis. Macmillan. $1.10.
Lathrop, G. P. Dreams and Days. Scribners. $1.75.
L'Estrange, Miles. What We are Coming to. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Lewis, Mrs. Harriet. Edith Trevor's Secret. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Lewis, Mrs. Harriet. Cecil Rosse: A Sequel to Edith Trevor's Secret. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Lhomme, F. Les Femmes Ecrivains. Œuvres choisies. [Bibliothèque Littéraire de la Famille.] Paris; Librairie de L'Art; New York: Macmillan.
Lhomme, F. Raffet. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: Librairie de L'Art; New York: Macmillan.
Lias, Rev. J. J. II. Corinthians. [Cambridge Greek Testament.] Cambridge, Eng.: University Press: New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Linton, W. J. The Masters of Wood Engraving. New Haven: W. J. Linton; London: B. F. Stevens. $50.
Mahaffy, J. P. The Principles of the Art of Conversation. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Marold, K. Hartmann von Aue, Wolfram von Eschenbach und Gottfried von Strassburg. Stuttgart: G. J. Göschen; New York: International News Co.
Marshall, Prof. Alfred. Elements of Economics of Industry. Macmillan. $1.
Meserole, A. Selections from the *Spectator*. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Mivart, St. George. Essays and Criticisms. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $8.
Morris, R. Anna. Physical Education in the Public Schools. American Book Co. $1.
Morton, Agnes H. Correspondence. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Moulton, Louise Chandler. Swallow Flights. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Munnell, Rev. W. H. Glimpses of Heaven. Philadelphia: J. Y. Huber Co. $1.
Nall, G. H. Easy Exercises on First Greek Syntax. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Nasmith, David. Makers of Modern Thought. 2 vols. London: George Philip & Son.
Otis, James. The Braganza Diamond. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co. $1.25.
Parry, Major G. The Story of Dick. Macmillan. $1.
Pascoe, Charles E. London of To-Day. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Peacock, T. L. Crotchet Castle. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Phyfe, W. H. P. The Test-Pronouncer. Putnams. 75 cents.
Pittenger, William. The Debater's Treasury. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Pollock, Sir F. Leading Cases Done into English, and Other Diversions. Macmillan. $1.
Poor, Laura E. The First International Railway, etc. Life and Writings of John Alfred Poor. Putnams. $3.
Porter, L. H. Wheels and Wheeling. Boston: Wheelman Co. 75 cents.
Puttner, Bertha von. Ground Arms: the Story of a Life. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Reade, Amye. Slaves of the Sawdust. Hovenden Co. $1.
Robertson, J. M. The Fallacy of Saving. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Rowland, Kate Mason. The Life of George Mason. 1725–1792. 2 vols. Putnams. $8.
Ruskin, J. Stones of Venice. 2 vols. [Brantwood Edition.] Charles E. Merrill & Co. $3.
Sherwood, Mrs. M. E. W. The Art of Entertaining. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Villars, P. The Escapes of Casanova and Latude from Prison. [The Adventure Series.] Macmillan. $1.50.
Wallace, Prof. P. M. Tennyson's Princess. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Waterloo, Stanley. A Man and a Woman. Chicago: F. J. Shulte & Co.
Weed, Clarence M. Spraying Crops: Why, When and How. New York: Rural Publishing Co.
Whitehouse, W. F. The Redemption of the Body. London: Elliot Stock.
Winter, W. Shakspere's England, New ed. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Yonge, Charlotte M. That Stick. Macmillan. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 19, 1892.

The Week.

THE House Committee on Civil-Service Reform has agreed, with only the dissenting vote of one Republican among all its members of both parties, to report a bill designed to exclude political influence from the 61,000 fourth-class post-offices of the country. The bill provides that the country shall be divided into postal districts, and that, when vacancies occur, open competition shall be announced by Post-office inspectors, who shall recommend the best man to the Postmaster-General, after receiving the applications and examining the facts. In the 27,000 offices where the compensation exceeds $100 a year, inspectors are to make personal visits before reporting, except in cases where there is only one applicant, when the inspector may, if he thinks best, recommend the applicant for appointment, without visiting the locality. The bill forbids Congressmen and other Federal officers to make recommendations or interfere in any way with appointments, and prohibits appointments or removals upon political grounds. These latter provisions, of course, apply equally to the 34,000 offices exempt from personal visits by the inspectors in choosing postmasters, the reasonable expectation being that, if politics is excluded from the more important places, there will be little attempt to evade the law in filling the smaller ones. The Committee estimate that the extreme cost of the proposed system would be only $60,000, and that probably the present force of inspectors would need but a slight increase in numbers to carry out the provisions of the bill in connection with their other duties.

Secretary Blaine's method of getting rid of Mr. Frederic Bancroft, the Librarian of the Sta e Department, in order to secure his place for a personal follower, is eminently characteristic. Mr. Bancroft's abilities and capacity being beyond question, and his conduct of his office having been such as to make his removal on charges of any kind impossible, Mr. Blaine does by trick what he does not venture to do directly. Without consulting Mr. Bancroft's wishes or inclinations—in fact, without consulting him at all—he sends his name to the Senate as a nominee for United States Consul at Brunswick, Germany, knowing perfectly well that he will not consent to accept the place, but knowing also that the nomination will practically dismiss Mr. Bancroft from the service, and at the same time trick him into silence about the manner in which his dismissal was accomplished. While this performance, so glaringly unjust to a faithful and efficient public servant, may not be a violation of the letter of the Civil-Service Law, it is a plain violation of its spirit. If Mr. Blaine, as the head of the State Department, is capable of such treatment of a subordinate in one instance, it is more than likely that he has been guilty of similar conduct in other instances; and we trust that Congress, taking the Bancroft case as a starting-point, will institute a thorough inquiry into the methods which have been pursued in the Department during Mr. Blaine's incumbency.

A new Corrupt Practices Act has been reported from the Committee on Election Laws of the Massachusetts Senate, and its advocates are sanguine of its passage by both houses. It has been drawn by the same group of reformers who gave the State its Civil-Service Reform and Ballot-Reform Laws, and is somewhat similar to its predecessors which failed of passage through the Legislatures of 1889 and 1891. The measure requires sworn publication after election, by both candidates and committees, of detailed accounts of all money received and expended. Any person other than a candidate or committee-treasurer, who, acting under authority from a committee, receives or expends money or its equivalent, must also file similar sworn accounts. In addition to giving the amount received, the name of the person or committee from whom it is received, and the name of the person or committee to whom the disbursement is made, the sworn returns must "give the date and amount of every existing unfulfilled promise or liability, both to and from such committee remaining uncancelled and in force at the time the statement is made, with the name of the person or committee to or from whom the unfulfilled promise or liability exists, and clearly state the purpose for which the liability was made or incurred." Voluntary contributions from candidates are permitted, but committees are forbidden to demand or solicit them, and candidates are permitted to defray travelling expenses and other personal expenditures without including the money so expended in their sworn returns. The courts are given full equity powers to compel the filing of statements after election, or the correction of defective returns, on petition of a candidate or of five qualified voters. Violation of the provisions of the act which forbid a candidate to offer money in return for a nomination or a vote, and which forbid the soliciting or demanding of contributions, is punishable with a fine of $1,000, and failure to file statements is punishable with a fine of not less than $1,000, or imprisonment for not more than one year, or both fine and imprisonment. The bill is novel in some respects, but on the whole seems to us to be a less stringent measure than its predecessors.

Prof. McCook, in his talk on tramps in the Hartford Board of Trade rooms, took up the venal vote of Connecticut. Taking for thorough investigation fourteen representative towns, he stated these as his conclusions:

> "The average percentage of venal voters is 16.1, taking the first four towns at their minimum figure. The range in prices is from $2 to $20, and higher figures are commanded here and there in exceptional cases. These towns are in two counties. None of them is very small, none very large. Their average population is within twenty-eight of the average of the towns in the State outside our four largest cities. In short, I know not why they may not be said to be fairly representative in every respect. On which account I am convinced that if any one were to say that 25,000 of our 166,000 Connecticut voters are purchasable, he would not be very far from the truth, whi e 12 per cent., or 20,000, would probably be a conservative estimate, and 17,000, or 10 per cent., a very safe one. There are towns in which more than 50 per cent. of the voters have been for sale."

Prof. McCook denied that all these venal voters are "either drunkards, or reprobates, or foreigners." In some sections he found that the purchasable vote "is of pure Connecticut stock, though of that stoop-shouldered, shambling, seedy, shiftless stratum which seems to be the outcome of constant intermarriage for generations, together with addiction to hard cider, or worse." In fact, Prof. McCook found reason to believe that corruption is worse in some of the decayed country towns than it is in the cities. This is a conclusion which the observation of others more than bears out. "Practical politicians" of Connecticut—of both parties—have more than once confessed that when it was the purpose to "buy up" the State, the greater part of the money was "placed" in the back-country towns. Prof. McCook states that where there is "small appeal to enterprise or ambition, where the soul is hardest, money most rare, cities most remote," there the percentage of corruption "seems to be the highest." While a part of this venal element is composed of persons "otherwise respectable and even exemplary," it is principally drawn from the "hoodlum" class—the same class which furnishes a large proportion of tramps.

Prof. McCook's remedy is a radical one—more radical than any scheme of ballot reform, however perfect. It is the disfranchisement of the criminal class. He added that he did not want to know which political party would be the more benefited, for "it would relieve them both." He thought it "barbarous" to allow physical disease to spread by allowing contaminated tramps to roam at large; yet the nation could stand that. But it could not continue to prosper "if we allow the balance of political power to repose permanently in

the hands of the degraded and unhappy beings who now hold it." Those who think that Democrats are invariably in favor of giving the ballot to the degraded will be interested to learn that no one present more strongly approved Prof. McCook's position than did A. E. Burr, editor of the Hartford *Times*. He declared that he had been advocating for twenty years the disfranchisement of the buyer and seller of votes. Mr. Burr has long been one of the most prominent Democratic leaders in Connecticut.

The Bellamy party in Massachusetts have been petitioning the Legislature to allow municipalities to establish coal-yards and sell fuel at cost. The Legislature referred the question of its constitutional power to grant such permission to the Supreme Court, and that tribunal, by a vote of five to two, decides against the scheme. The decision says that the fundamental question is whether the carrying on of such a business can be regarded as "a public service," and holds that there is no necessity for municipalities to undertake this form of business any more than many others which have always been conducted by private enterprise. "If," the opinion concludes, "there be any advantage to the inhabitants in buying and selling coal and wood for fuel at the risk of the community, on a large sale, and on what has been called the coöperative plan, we are of the opinion that the Constitution does not contemplate this as one of the ends for which the Government was established, or as a public service for which cities and towns may be authorized to tax their inhabitants." Under this decision the Bellamyites must turn their attention to securing an amendment of the Constitution, which is a good deal slower and harder than getting a bill through the Legislature.

A Mexican citizen was on Monday arrested in San Antonio, Texas, for having entered this country. The reason was that he was a "Chinese person or person of Chinese descent." Under the terms of our latest Chinese Exclusion Law, such persons, even when they are "subjects or citizens of some other country" than China, are at once to be removed from our sacred soil of liberty. They are to be deported to their adopted country, "Provided, that in any case where such other country of which such Chinese person shall claim to be a citizen or subject, shall demand any tax as a condition of the removal of such person to that country, he or she shall be removed to China." When this enlightened measure was debated in Congress, much was said about its being in violation of our treaties with China, as it undoubtedly is. This case shows how it also may involve us in violation of treaties with other countries. We have a treaty with Mexico guaranteeing Mexican citizens the same protection in this country as that given our own. Yet we proceed to arrest a Mexican citizen upon no ground but the fact that we do not like his ancestry. Suppose Mexico were to pass a law putting a like stigma upon an Irish person or person of Irish descent, and ignore the fact that he might be an American citizen nevertheless. We fancy there would be a good deal of foaming at Washington. The Mexican Government has been appealed to by the Mexican Consul at San Antonio, and we should think it might have something forcible to say.

The refusal of the English Government to allow Newfoundland, apart from Canada, to negotiate a trade convention with the United States is but an added embarrassment in what was already a complicated and difficult question. That the Canadian Government is in a perplexing situation is shown by the attempts it has made to extricate itself. Some form of commercial understanding with our country it undoubtedly desires, but its road seems blocked at all points. Unrestricted reciprocity would be impossible unless the Canadian tariff as against all other countries were to be made the same as ours, and that is out of the question. The Canadian proposals for a limited reciprocity have been very coldly received at Washington, and promise no present relief. As little hope lies in the direction of the resolution adopted by the Canadian House of Commons the last week in April, by a vote of 98 to 64, that whenever "the products of the Dominion are admitted to British markets on more favorable terms than those of foreign countries, Canada will be prepared to grant corresponding advantages in the shape of reductions of duties upon British goods." The London *Economist* makes a destructive analysis of this proposition. Canadian goods are already free of duty in England, so that the proposal is for Great Britain to tax the corresponding imports from other nations. In 1890 England took £10,305,900 of the chief articles of Canadian export, but in the same year imported £78,756,600 of the same classes of goods from other countries. Thus the proposition is that England tax her subjects on seven-eighths of their purchases of the goods in question, for the sake of getting a reduction on British exports to Canada. But the latter, all told, were under £7,000,000 in 1890, and to put a tax on £78,000,000 of goods bought in order to get rid of a tax on £7,000,000 of goods sold is a losing business. Moreover, as the *Economist* points out, for England to levy such discriminating duties would be infallibly to provoke retaliatory legislation in other countries where the resulting losses of British trade would several times outweigh all that could be gained in Canada. Unless, therefore, John Bull loses his business sense, this "message of good will to the mother land," as Minister Foster called it, will not meet with the desired response.

The "no-thoroughfare" which thus confronts the Canadians in every direction in which they have tried to go, may induce them to give more attention than they otherwise would to the advice which Earl Grey offers them in his lately published pamphlet on the 'Commercial Policy of the British Colonies and the McKinley Tariff.' The veteran statesman maintains that the same arguments which induced England to adopt the policy of free trade in 1846 ought to lead Canada to adopt the same policy now. He reasons that such a step would be the very finest stroke of retaliation for the McKinley Bill. It would so reduce the cost of living and of production in Canada that it would greatly increase the power of Canadians to compete with Americans. Indeed, the theory of the latter is, of course, that the Canadians are already too strong for us and must be shut out of our markets. Earl Grey would have due notice given of such a change of fiscal policy, so that the protected manufacturers might have time to adjust their business to the new conditions. He also argues that the presence of a large body of English-speaking people just across the American border, able to obtain all the necessaries of life at a greatly reduced cost, would be so powerful an object-lesson to the American people that it would contribute mightily to the movement for a reform of the American tariff.

Nothing shows more plainly the drift of opinion in the Democratic party on the silver question than the resolution adopted by the Democrats of Missouri on Wednesday week. We put it in parallel columns with their platform of two years ago:

MISSOURI, 1890.	MISSOURI, 1892.
We are in favor of the free and unrestricted coinage of silver and the increase of currency to meet the legitimate demands of trade; and we believe that the power to issue and control the volume of such circulation should be assumed by the Government.	We hold that it is the duty of the Government to *readjust the coinage ratio* and keep its mints open for the free coinage of both metals, instead of discontinuing the coinage of either for the derangement of commodity values and the contraction of the currency below the natural basis of supply.

To "readjust the coinage ratio" evidently means to make the silver dollar equal to the gold dollar in intrinsic value, for the time being at all events; because if we are to break loose from the dollar of the fathers (16 to 1), it would be mere child's play to adopt any other than the true commercial ratio. We do not know what Mr. Bland may think about this resolution, but it strikes us that it makes the ground rather shaky under his feet. There is some improvement in the Iowa Democratic platform, but not much. Last year the Iowa Democrats not only demanded the free coinage of silver, but also a law forbidding the making of gold contracts. They have dropped

the latter out of their collection of curiosities, and they have adopted the phrase "free bimetallic coinage" in place of "free coinage of silver," which they used last year. There is supposed to be a difference between free bimetallic coinage and free coinage of silver, but David B. Hill is the only man who knows what it is, and he will not tell.

The Western Democrats are practically solid in favor of Cleveland, and it is already evident that the Southern Democrats will be about as nearly unanimous. There are only two States in which the Bourbon element has ever seemed likely to show much strength—Virginia and Georgia—and in both of them it has now collapsed. Richmond was the stronghold of the reactionaries, and the primaries in Richmond on Thursday resulted in the choice of sixty-three Cleveland delegates out of ninety-eight. In Georgia the Atlanta *Constitution*, which has made an unseemly spectacle of itself most of the time since Grady's death, set out to carry the Democratic State Convention for Hill; but enough delegates have now been elected to show that Cleveland will have two-thirds of the Convention, and the *Constitution* people are trying to compromise on an "uninstructed" delegation. In both of these States the opposition to Mr. Cleveland has represented the spoils-seeking and commercial element in the party, whose hostility to him everywhere is one of the chief ingredients in his popularity.

The fine of $5,000 imposed by the English court upon the London correspondent of a New York paper, for sending a scandalous and false "special cable despatch" to this country about an actress, is likely to have a depressing effect upon a flourishing international newspaper industry. During the past five or six years there has been a fierce competition in progress among the "bright, brainy, breezy" newspapers for "exclusive" accounts of European scandals. The American people have been deluged with this filth from all quarters of the Old World in which it could be gathered, and the correspondents who have supplied it have not been at all particular about the truth of their recitals. In the case which the London court passed upon, the correspondent was unable to sustain his accusations, and hence his employers will have to pay the penalty. In passing judgment, Lord Chief Justice Coleridge used some very plain language, saying that the defendant evidently received a salary for the purpose of collecting private slander and bringing before the eyes of the public the misconduct of people more or less known; that he left it to his hearers to say whether there were not more desirable occupations than this; that in the present case there was no doubt about the offence, since it was the most outrageously cruel slander he had ever heard of. The fine is likely to have more effect in suppressing the industry of "collecting private slander" by cable than the scorching words of the Lord Chief Justice, for the libel laws of Great Britain are much more strict than those of America, and all victims of such publication hereafter will be certain to go to court in the hope of obtaining handsome damages.

Mr. Giffen's report to the English Board of Trade upon emigration and immigration in 1891 is marked with the clearness usual in his statistical work. It is especially instructive for this country, because the figures with which we are furnished relate almost exclusively to immigration. Much is said about the necessity of regulating this movement; and what is said is made to seem impressive by the great number of immigrants. But no one says anything about the outflow of population, which is unquestionably large, and which also results, in an unknown number of cases, in counting the same person as an immigrant more than once. The different impression made by gross and by net figures is forcibly shown by Mr. Giffen's tables. There arrived from Continental ports in the United Kingdom in 1891 some 504,000 persons. But there departed for the Continent during the same year 418,000 persons, so that the net increase of population from this source was only 86,000. But during the same period there were 112,000 foreigners leaving the United Kingdom for trans-oceanic ports, while the number arriving was 47,000. There would seem, therefore, to be an excess of foreigners remaining in the country of some 21,000. But this figure is to be still further reduced, for allowance must be made for seamen who arrive as passengers and go away as members of crews. Making deduction for these, it would seem that the population of England receives a net addition from foreign sources of not more than 10,000 or 12,000 a year. The influx of Russo-Polish Jews seems to have been limited to London, their numbers being 9,676, of whom four-fifths were expected to remain, and some of these were known to be not without capital.

The official announcement is made that England assents to a new international monetary conference and will take part in it, reserving control of her own monetary system. Mr. Goschen said to a deputation on May 11 that "Great Britain had received an invitation on Monday last from the United States to send delegates to a conference for the purpose of examining into what measures can be taken to *increase the use of silver in the currency systems of the nations.* It would be seen that in accepting the invitation the Government would not commit itself in any way to any actual principle. The United States Government had doubtless framed the invitation in a manner that would make it easy for the various countries invited to take part in the conference to accept." This corresponds with what President Harrison said in his recent communication to the Senate, namely, that, if nothing more could be done, he hoped that means might be found to enlarge the use of silver. It is scarcely possible that anybody expects an international agreement for unrestricted coinage of both metals to grow out of the conference, yet we are glad that the conference is to be held, if for no other purpose than to demonstrate for the third time the impossibility of such a step. Whether the second part of the programme is feasible is also extremely doubtful, since the using of silver depends mainly upon the inclinations of private persons. The taking of a certain amount of silver into the vaults of the Bank of England would dispose of a fixed quantity, and a not very large quantity. It would not be a continuous demand meeting a continuous supply. The scheme looks like an attempt to create an artificial demand for silver—a practice which has many votaries in this country, but few elsewhere, and fewer in England (we had supposed) than in any other country. But on this point Mr. Goschen always was a little soft.

At the election held in Denmark last month for members of the Folkething the Radicals suffered a defeat so signal as to give promise of a speedy return to a regular finance law. The whole character of the last session indicated such a change. Never in eight years had Estrup's Ministry received such cordial support. Among the significant bills passed may be mentioned the reduction of the duty on sugar and petroleum, and the substitution of a tax on beer; an improved poor law; many important regulations with regard to the school system, in which both parties made concessions that had been demanded in vain for many years; an entire revision of the maritime law. Other minor acts contributed to show a changed feeling on the part of the Liberal majority in the lower house towards the minority, the upper house, and the Ministry. The treatment of the proposal to grant a pension to the Radical critic, George Brandes, which was made last winter for the second time, is also suggestive. While the bill passed the lower house at the previous session by a small majority, it was this year badly defeated. The recently received official results of the April election show a gain of seven votes and a loss of one for the Conservatives—the largest gain in many years. Of the 103 members elected to the new House, 31 are Conservatives and 42 are Moderate Liberals, who thus together form almost two-thirds of the whole body. The Radical losses have been entirely in the country districts, which also show a loss of one Socialist. Even the acknowledged leader, Hörup, has been defeated, but the resignation of a colleague in his favor insures him a seat in the next Parliament.

THE LATEST CHILIAN REVELATIONS.

THE documents published on Sunday and Monday, in relation to the conduct of our diplomatic and naval representatives in Chili during the civil war in that country, are made public in the best way to secure the attention which their importance calls for. They were sent by a Chilian, of honored American ancestry, and character amply vouched for, to two of the most eminent of the members of the House of Representatives. These gentlemen have sent copies to the State Department, given others to the press, and undertaken to secure an investigation of the whole matter by the House. Mr. Blaine, on his part, declares that "a thorough investigation of the charges, as they affect his department, shall be made at once." The affair is thus at once put on its proper basis as a thing that affects the national honor, and is seen in all its gravity as it could not have been had it been made public through a newspaper. We may say that we have been for some time in possession of every particle of the evidence now published, as very likely others may have been, but we preferred to leave it for consideration at Washington in the way that is now proposed.

The first point to notice is that the fiction which Admiral Brown and Secretary Tracy have so sedulously maintained in regard to the absolute neutrality of our naval officers in Chili, is shattered to pieces. It was plainly an afterthought in the beginning. Admiral Brown never has made anything but a shuffling answer to the evidence already published. A Valparaiso newspaper came out with flaring head-lines announcing the news of the landing of the Congressionalists, and said that the fact had been learned through "the American man-of-war *San Francisco.*" The Admiral at first denied that anything of the kind had ever been published, and then, when he found the fact to be undeniable, fell back on the assertion that "no one from the ship gave information." He was afterwards forced to admit, on the evidence of a telegram published in Chili, that he was with the Intendente of Valparaiso early the next morning after the landing, giving his opinion as to the intentions of the insurgents. Secretary Tracy, in an interview with the Washington correspondent of the *Evening Post*, also admitted this, but seemed to think it of no importance. What will he and the President say when they read the cablegram sent by one of Admiral Brown's officers to a New York newspaper on the afternoon of the landing at Quinteros? It reads as follows:

"Insurgents landed morning Quinteros, eight transports, three tugs, four warships. About eight thousand. Government sent forces. Battle imminent. Admiral Brown saw landing. Flagship *San Francisco*, *Baltimore*, Valparaiso. *Esmeralda* off harbor. Quiet here."

The importance of this despatch did not lie in the information given by it to the *Herald*—in which esteemed contemporary it was padded out into nearly a column of eloquent matter—but in the information given to Intendente Viel, who viséed the cablegram. He reads English perfectly, as Lieut. Dyer must have known. It is not strange that the Government organ should have so confidently said the next morning:

"From trustworthy news brought by the United States war-ship *San Francisco*, . . . we know for a fact that the revolutionists have disembarked about 8,000 men in the vicinity of Concon and Quinteros."

In President Harrison's "just-in-time" message, he said of the charge that information had been given by Admiral Brown to Balmaceda about the movements of the Congressionalists, that it was "too base to gain credence." He also refused to discuss that charge on the ground that it had not been made the "subject of official complaint." Of course, the publication of the incriminating telegrams could never have taken place had not the Chilian Government forced the telegraph company to give them up. It is clear, therefore, that the subject has now substantially been made one of "official complaint," and we hope the President will not consider it beneath his notice.

Against Consul McCreery the most damaging evidence thus far produced is that which shows his continuous speculations in the stock market on an enormous scale. Such business operations are always indelicate in a consul, if not flatly in violation of the rules laid down for his guidance by the State Department; and in such circumstances as those under which our Consul in Valparaiso was engaging in them, they are doubly open to suspicion and worthy of severe condemnation. He was dealing in foreign exchange which was quick to fluctuate with every changing aspect of the war and of the imbroglio with the United States, and the temptation to use his offi cial information to enrich himself was one to which the Consul should never have exposed himself. If he did not yield to it, it is in the face of probabilities and circumstantial evidence of the strongest kind.

We can but hope that the House will now appoint an able committee to probe the entire affair to the bottom. The Democrats in Congress have been timid as hares in this whole business. They seemed to be afraid that a great deal of national glory was going to be gained somehow in the Chilian intrigue, and they wanted to come in for their share of it. Congressman Breckinridge was manly enough to lift up his voice in behalf of the bullied Chilians at the time of the President's message, but he was almost alone. The incredible meanness and folly of our warlike attitude having been made fully apparent by the lapse of time, we hope that enough others will now join Mr. Breckinridge to insure a thorough investigation of the question in all its relations. As partisans they will find it rich in political ammunition, and as patriots they can use it as an opportunity to clear the national honor of a shameful stain.

THE IMPORTATION OF ALIEN CLERGYMEN.

THE opinion of the United States Supreme Court in the case of the United States against Holy Trinity Church is now reported at length, and contains some reasoning that deserves attention. It will be recollected that Holy Trinity Church made a contract with an English clergyman by which he was to come to this country and enter its service as rector and pastor. Under this contract the alien clergyman was duly imported, but, the attention of the United States Attorney being drawn to the circumstances, he felt it his duty to take proceedings against the church for violating the statute in such case made and provided. That statute declared it unlawful for any one to assist or encourage the importation or migration of an alien under contract to perform labor or service *of any kind* in the United States. From the provisions of the act singers, artists, actors, lecturers, and domestic servants were specifically exempted. It is scarcely a matter for surprise that the Circuit Court held that the contract made by Holy Trinity Church broke this law, as no exception was made in favor of clergymen.

In order to reverse the judgment below, it was clearly necessary for the Supreme Court to establish the proposition that the words "labor or service of any kind" meant only labor or service of certain particular kinds. It might not have been difficult to construe the troublesome words as referring only to manual labor, had it not been for the exception of actors, singers, and lecturers. It was argued that if the statute referred only to manual laborers, it was of course not necessary to except these classes; and the fact that they were excepted proved that the statute could not refer to manual laborers alone. "The exception proved the rule." This argument, therefore, Justice Brewer, who delivered the opinion of the court, devoted himself to overthrowing.

In the first place, he demonstrated, with perhaps needless care, that courts had repeatedly disregarded the letter of the law when a literal construction of it would lead to an absurd result. He then asserted that the title of the act, "To prohibit the importation and migration of foreigners and aliens under contract or agreement to perform labor," could only be understood to mean manual labor. It seems unfortunate for this contention that the Committee of the Senate expressed regret that the words "manual labor" or "manual service" should not have been used in the bill in place of "labor and service," but hoped that, as it was too late to induce the House to make the change, the substitution would be considered as made. The argument, however, was strengthened by the fact that the Committee of the House, in

reporting the bill, used language that referred to immigrants of "the lowest social stratum," living upon "the coarsest food and in hovels of a character before unknown to American workmen." Since Congress was evidently thinking of this debased class of immigrants when the act was passed, and had petitions before it describing their degraded condition, Justice Brewer concluded that, whatever its language, the scope of the act did not include "brain-toilers." If there was a "surplus" of these laborers—and it may humbly be submitted that the competition among educated men for employment is probably the cruellest of all—the attention of Congress or of the people, says Justice Brewer, was not directed to it, and therefore the act did not apply to other than manual labor.

Up to this point the opinion, whether its argument be regarded as conclusive or not, follows unquestioned legal precedents, and appeals to acknowledged aids in statutory interpretation. The remainder of Justice Brewer's observations are of a different and somewhat remarkable character. "No purpose of action against religion," he says, "can be imputed to any *legislation*, State or national, because this is a religious people. This is historically true." The historic basis for this truth he finds in the fact that the commission to Christopher Columbus recited that Ferdinand and Isabella were King and Queen "by the grace of God," and that it was hoped that "by God's assistance" some discoveries would be made. Further evidence is furnished by the grant to Raleigh, which recited that Elizabeth also ruled "by the grace of God," and authorized Raleigh to enact statutes "not against the true Christian faith now professed in the Church of England." Additional proof is derived from language acknowledging the existence of God used in other charters, in the Declaration of Independence, and in the constitutions of the several States. And, finally, the Constitution of the United States is cited in support of this proposition, because it forbids Congress to make any law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof, and, further, because it excepts Sunday from the computation of days allowed the President to exercise the right of veto.

The relevancy of all this to the construction of the statute is not very apparent. In fact, we are led by it to entertain the suspicion that Justice Brewer has failed—like many other men of learning and ability—to comprehend the American system of protection. He seems to labor under the impression that the Contract Labor Law was intended to discourage industry and not to foster it. In its external manifestations religion cannot be put in a class outside of intellectual and moral and æsthetical activities. We protect the American author and the American artist, and why discriminate against the American minister? If it is a sign of sympathy for literature and art to levy duties upon imported books and paintings, why is it a sign of hostility to religion to exclude foreign clergymen? May we not, indeed, go so far as to say that as we hear of demands for an "American" philosophy, so our national development requires an "American" religion? Would it not be the wisest statesmanship to shut out the distorted growths of European superstition, and encourage religious feeling to manifest itself in a distinctively American form?

Justice Brewer assumes that our own clergy cannot supply the demand for religious instruction without the aid of foreign countries; but this is so far from being the case that American missionaries have long been exported to China; and in view of our legislation concerning the Chinese, it would be most unfortunate should anything be done to lessen their supply of religious teachers. Yet, with the law as now established by the Supreme Court, it is difficult to see how our theological seminaries are to maintain themselves against foreign competition. Complaint is sometimes heard of the quality of the sermons delivered by American ministers; but if it is to be the policy of our Government to hinder the building up of a "home market," so to speak, for their productions, what inducement is offered to our clergy to improve? It is undoubtedly true, as Justice Brewer declares, that we are a religious people; but the inference to be drawn from that is, that we have produced and can produce all the religion, or religious teaching, that we require without importing cheap foreign clergymen.

THE GOVERNOR AND THE BILLS.

THE Constitution of New York contains these explicit provisions declaring the duty of the Governor:

"Every bill which shall have passed the Senate and Assembly shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the Governor; *if he approve, he shall sign it;* but *if not, he shall return it* with his objections to the house in which it shall have originated."—*Art. IV., Sec. 9.*

Let it be observed that the clause quoted covers every possible case of a bill presented to the Governor. If the second alternative had read, "If he *disapprove*," room would have been left for the evasion of a timid or slippery official, who might say: "I neither approve nor disapprove, and in this case no duty is laid upon me." But the clause was drawn so as to exhaust possibilities. The Governor *does* approve or does *not*. Yet the Constitution, distinctly as it has declared the Governor's duty, has provided for his possible neglect, refusal, or evasion of it:

"If any bill shall *not* be returned by the Governor within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Legislature shall by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not become a law without the approval of the Governor."—*Ibid.*

The present Constitution took effect on the 1st of January, 1847; and while the Constitution which preceded it contained a similar clause, we have made no examination in regard to its operation in earlier years. Since that date, however, some curious facts appear. Perhaps the facts of which we speak may not be without a certain significance. At any rate, they seem worth recording.

The thirteen years 1847–1859 include the full terms of Govs. Young, Fish, Hunt, Seymour, Clark, and King, and the first year of Gov. Morgan. In this period, according to the Session Laws, 6,245 bills became laws (an annual average of 480), *every one of which* received the Governor's approval, except two which were passed over his veto. It was Gov. Morgan in his second year who first omitted, in two instances, his constitutional duty of approving the bill or returning it without approval; and in his fourth year (1862) three examples of like omission appear. But these five examples in the three years are found in a total of 1,365 statutes. After that the fidelity with which successive Governors discharged or violated this constitutional duty may be observed in the following table. The operation of the beneficial sections 17 to 25 of Art. 3 of the Constitution, adopted at the end of 1874, is disclosed in the sudden falling off in the number of statutes:

Year.	Governor.	No. of statutes.	Number becoming laws without approval.
1863.....	Seymour.	516	1
1864.....	Seymour.	587	2
1865.....	Fenton.	777	0
1866.....	Fenton.	911	0
1867.....	Fenton.	974	0
1868.....	Fenton.	881	7
1869.....	Hoffman.	923	0
1870.....	Hoffman.	812	0
1871.....	Hoffman.	950	5
1872.....	Hoffman.	888	14
1873.....	Dix.	874	0
1874.....	Dix.	653	0
1875.....	Tilden.	634	4
1876.....	Tilden.	447	4
1877.....	Robinson.	475	0
1878.....	Robinson.	418	1
1879.....	Robinson.	542	2
1880.....	Cornell.	600	8
1881.....	Cornell.	713	22
1882.....	Cornell.	409	18

Not until the three years last cited does the possible utility of this method of dodging a constitutional duty seem fairly to have unfolded itself to the official mind. Since then, before the present year, we have had but two Governors. Before continuing our table, it is proper to explain that the *one* bill becoming a law in 1883 by virtue of this provision is chapter 329 of the laws of that year, and that with it there was filed in the office of the Secretary of State the following memorandum,

which sufficiently precludes the suspicion of either neglect or violation of duty:

STATE OF NEW YORK,
EXECUTIVE CHAMBER,
ALBANY, April 27, 1883.

I am not willing to approve Senate bill No. 234 entitled "An act to provide for organizing in the Supreme Court five general terms thereof, and for the election of justices of that court in addition to the justices now in office," for the reason that I do not believe the number of additional judges provided for in said bill are necessary, and because I am satisfied that the increase of taxation which it involves is not justified.

But I think an increase of judges in some of the districts of the State is necessary and proper; and in view of the fact that there is a question as to whether the constitutional amendment can be acted on by the Legislature, except at its present session, and the further fact that there seems to be no prospect that any other measure on the subject can be passed at this time, I have concluded to allow the bill to become a law, by the lapse of ten days from its presentation to me, pursuant to the provision of the Constitution. GROVER CLEVELAND.

So this completes our table:

1883.....	Cleveland.	523	1
1884.....	Cleveland.	555	0
1885.....	Hill.	560	10
1886.....	Hill.	681	59
1887.....	Hill.	724	287
1888.....	Hill.	586	135
1889.....	Hill.	570	141
1890.....	Hill.	569	175
1891.....	Hill.	389	175

In other words, Hill's predecessors, in thirty-eight years, out of 22,652 bills which became laws, allowed 94, or less than half of one per cent., to become laws without action. In *seven* years Hill, out of 4,079, evaded his duty in regard to 982, or more than 24 per cent.

Of course some of us know well enough what our latest Governor was doing when, during seven sessions of the Legislature, he was unable to make up his mind upon the merits of so many as 982 separate bills. There were other interests he was caring for than those the Constitution charged him with. And considering how sadly overworked he must have been if he had added to them the duties belonging to his office, is it not well for him and for the State that he has been relieved?

A VICTORY FOR LIBERAL CATHOLICISM.

IT may well be that future historians of the Catholic Church in the United States will regard the Pope's approval of Archbishop Ireland's plan of union between public and parochial schools as an epochal event. However cautiously that approval has been given, and notwithstanding the attempts which Archbishop Corrigan and other conservative Catholics may make to show that it really amounts to nothing, the fact remains that the action of the Holy See leaves Catholics free to extend the experiment in other parts of the country. In so far the decrees of the Baltimore Council are modified, and Catholics are relieved from the dilemma which has heretofore confronted them of either sending their children to the public schools in disregard of the Church's commands, or patronizing the parochial schools, which are confessedly inferior as a rule, and which in any case make Catholics pay twice over for the education of their children. They are now at liberty to work for such a solution of the difficulty as Archbishop Ireland has devised. In him the liberal Catholics of the country have won a great victory.

To speak of a liberal or any other party in the Catholic Church may seem an absurdity in referring to an organization which asserts of itself the famous *semper, ubique et ab omnibus.* Yet the idea of development in Catholic doctrine and practice has been made familiar, as regards the past, by Cardinal Newman's writings; and the existence of progressive, side by side with reactionary, elements in the Church to-day is a matter which may be easily verified. To mention Bishop Spalding and the Rector of the new Catholic University in Washington is enough to show that the Catholic Church contains men whose spirits are hospitable to the new learning. Archbishop Ireland is not only in sympathy with such men, having been one of the most active promoters of the project for the establishment of a Catholic University on broad lines, but is conspicuously a man whose liberalism takes the form of an ardent Americanism—in the best sense of that much-abused word. No citizen of the Northwest stands higher in public estimation, and his active coöperation in all patriotic and public-spirited movements—from the time he served as chaplain to the Fifth Minnesota Regiment in the war to his latest appearance as an advocate of municipal reform—has made his name a tower of strength.

Especially has he been committed to every movement which would free his church from the appearance of owing an undue allegiance to any foreign Power. The late effort to establish a separate hierarchy for the various nationalities represented in the Catholic Church in this country, thereby perpetuating distinctions which ought rather to be made to disappear as speedily as possible, had no more outspoken and vehement an opponent than he. It was undoubtedly a like patriotic impulse which moved him in uniting his parochial schools with the public schools in Faribault. His experiment went much further than the "Poughkeepsie plan," where the amalgamation was only in seeming. Under his plan the Board of Education came into absolute control of the parochial school. The understanding was, to be sure, that competent Catholic teachers should be retained, and that the right to hold religious services outside the school hours should be given them; but we do not see how the fairness of such an arrangement can be questioned, or why this is not as adequate a recognition of the principle of separation of Church and State in educational matters as is made by the majority of Protestants.

Of course, Archbishop Ireland's method satisfies extremists in neither church. The rabid Protestant, who is never truly happy except when describing the horrors of an impending Catholic war, joins Archbishop Corrigan in denouncing the Faribault plan as a dangerous makeshift. This is really an excellent recommendation of it. What the New York *Observer* and Archbishop Corrigan agree in condemning must have a great deal of good sense and fairness about it. And it is the first step which costs in such matters. The Roman Curia knows this as well as anybody, and must be perfectly aware that, in giving official toleration to the beginnings of the scheme of union, it is practically inviting a wide extension of it. It is as what may prove to be the origin of a widespread and momentous change in Catholic policy regarding our public schools that we think the triumph of Archbishop Ireland should be welcomed. If it finally leads Protestants as well as Catholics to abandon their too numerous practices in violation of the American principle of absolute separation between Church and State, it will be a means of great public good.

It is easy to exaggerate the importance of such a new departure, but it is also easy to underestimate it. Many of the turning-points in history pass unperceived by contemporaries. One thing at least is clear, that the Holy See is making precedents in favor of liberal and popular institutions which it will be very hard to reverse in the future. The decision in the matter of the schools at Faribault may be set alongside the recent papal letter to the French bishops enjoining upon them hearty acquiescence in the republic. On some points—such as the temporal power and pontifical privileges—the Bishop of Rome still fumes and frets like a mediæval Pope; but in many important respects Leo shows himself a man of the nineteenth century, aware that the Church, like government, must rest upon the consent of the governed.

CHARLES EDWARD FLOWER.

NEW YORK, May 8, 1892.

ON the 3d of May I received a copy of the Stratford-upon-Avon *Herald* of April 22, with an editorial beginning: "Stratford celebrates Shakspere's birthday in a befitting manner. Thanks to the generosity of its leading citizen, it possesses a theatre which in completeness has few rivals, and which in richness and variety of scenery can vie with the leading temples of the drama in this Shakspere-loving country of ours." In another part of the paper there are reports of the dramatic week which opened April 18. Eminent actors had brought out "A Midsummer Night's Dream," "Twelfth Night," "Julius Cæsar," and the festival was to close on Shakspere's birthday with "Timon of Athens." But amid these reports my eye fell on an ominous paragraph: "It is to all Shaksperians a matter of something more than personal regret that Mr. Charles Flower has not been able to attend all the performances this week, as his wont and delight were in past years. Better fortune, in that respect at least,

to the dramatic week of 1893." Across this paragraph a lady's hand had pencilled the words, "Not true." But, alas! on the very day that these words came, May 3, Charles Flower died.

It is not easy to measure such an event. It not only is the heaviest bereavement that could befall the town to which the literary world looks as its Mecca, but will be a personal grief to many men of letters in America, Germany, Holland, France, as well as in England, who have found at Avonbank something more than the hospitalities of a beautiful mansion. For Charles Flower and his wife (she is one of the Martineau family) have given to literary pilgrims intellectual entertainment, enriching them with such treasures of local knowledge as well as of Shaksperian culture that Avonbank has come to be regarded as a kind of university in such matters. Although Charles Flower was only in his sixty-third year, he has for twenty-five years been a leading citizen of Stratford, as his father was before him.

The Flower family has enjoyed honorable distinction throughout this century. During the long struggle in England for liberty of the press, when many publishers of the 'Rights of Man' and the 'Age of Reason' were imprisoned, valiant service was done by Benjamin Flower, whose paper, the Cambridge *Independent*, remains the best record of those times that tried men's souls. The daughters of Benjamin (Sarah and Eliza) were by his will confided to the guardianship of William Johnson Fox, M.P., the Corn Law orator, who also founded South Place Chapel, which became to London what at a later day Parker's Music Hall was to Boston. Eliza Flower, friend of Robert Browning, who told me he considered her a woman of real musical genius, composed the music sung at South Place, while her sister (who afterwards married Mr. Adams) wrote hymns—among others, "Nearer, My God, to Thee," which was sung at South Place by a generation of Liberals before it was heard of in the outside world. The grandfather of Charles Flower, Benjamin's brother, was a strong reformer, and a friend of Robert Owen, with whom he and his family migrated to Indiana (1825) and shared the fortunes of New Harmony. His son, the late Edward Fordham Flower, was sent back to England for education, and was for a time under the care of George Combe. He married a lady in Warwickshire and fixed his abode at Stratford, of which he was seven times elected Mayor. His home, "The Hill," became the seat of a noble hospitality, and Americans were especially welcomed there, among others Hawthorne and Emerson. It was there that Emerson made the acquaintance of Marian Evans (George Eliot), who, while yet unknown to the world, was well appreciated at "The Hill." During the great Tercentenary festival I was a guest at "The Hill," and from that time have enjoyed some intimacy with Charles and his younger brother, Edgar, who now resides at the old homestead, whose traditions of hospitality are kept up. Another brother is Prof. Flower, F.R.S., director of the Natural History Department of the British Museum. The father afterwards removed to London, where he began his agitation for the abolition of the cruel bearing-rein by which horses were then tortured. His pamphlets were republished in New York by the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals. An old fox-hunter, he had wide influence with the gentry, and was able to do great service as the horse's friend.

Charles became Mayor of Stratford in 1878, and has since held important offices both in the borough and county. It was while attending the County Council at Warwick (ill as he was) that he was paralyzed, and fell dead. He was returning at the moment to the Shire Hall, leaning on the arm of his friend, the Marquis of Hertford. His popularity was unbounded. He might have gone to Parliament, but his absorbing interest was to make Stratford a fit and complete monument of Shakspere. His project of a Memorial Theatre was started after the Tercentenary celebration, during which the performances were in a large tent. To that he gave more than £30,000, while his donations to other public institutions have been large and constant. Besides its theatre, the edifice contains a room well filled with Shaksperian relics, and a unique library. By a gift of a thousand pounds the library was begun, its aim being to collect plays and books relating to the stage from all parts of the world. It now possesses complete editions of Shakspere in German, French, Dutch, Russian, Hungarian, Italian, and Spanish. Of separate plays it has one ("Othello") in Hebrew, five in Icelandic, five in Swedish, seventeen in Greek, two in Latin, one in Finnic, two in ancient Welsh, two in Georgian; and in the various Hindu languages no fewer than forty-five were collected by Lord Dufferin for this library. I was sorry to find, when I visited the library in 1890, that it has received but few donations from America. Of nearly 150 American editions of Shakspere there are only 16 in the Memorial Theatre.

The hospitality of Charles Flower to Americans, many of whom—as Dr. Holmes and Mark Twain—have in him lost a very dear friend, was so large that he was kind even to our "cranks." He and others of the family watched day and night over poor Delia Bacon, to keep her from suicide when she found that the London *Times* did not intend to review her book. It is said that Ignatius Donnelly anticipated martyrdom at Stratford, and was seriously disappointed on finding himself invited to dinner at Avonbank. The "Baconian" notion was not mentioned until Donnelly said, when leaving: "You do not seem to think much of my book." The genial answer was: "We smile at that." The only American who seems to have given Charles Flower serious trouble was Barnum, who actually bought the Shakspere House with the intention of exhibiting it in America. Barnum held out obstinately, but at length yielded to the argument that if he should commit such sacrilege, Tom Thumb would surely prove a failure in England. Barnum's project benefited Stratford. There had not been much public pride in the place. There was an annual dinner of a few gentlemen on Shakspere's birthday, but Charles Flower met with a rebuff from one of the Lucy family, by no means representative of its present sentiment, when he suggested that he should come to the dinner and even send them a buck. "Do you think I would countenance a man who stole deer from my ancestor?" The American showman's purchase of the house made Stratford blush for its neglect, and the work of improvement began. Ann Hathaway's cottage was also about to be sold recently, and Charles Flower rendered another service by securing it to the control of the Birthplace Committee at Stratford, becoming with Sir Arthur Hodgson responsible for the purchase money.

Charles Flower's memory was stored with reminiscences, and it is to be hoped that among his papers may be found some record of them. I believe that nothing but a singular humility prevented his achieving a wider literary reputation. His mother once gave me to read some letters of his written while travelling in America; they were written in the style of Hiawatha, then engaging public attention, and nothing could be more witty and sparkling than his account of America and of his adventures. He was almost hypercritical in his Shaksperian culture, and a student of the plays will recognize the touches of a master in the Memorial Theatre Edition. In this edition the passages that may be, and usually are, omitted in acting are printed in smaller type. The plays are separately bound for the convenience of playgoers and also of family circles, and though they are by no means "bowdlerized," a very few words and expressions are altered for the sake of the circles in which they are read aloud. Charles Flower has read various excellent papers before the Shakspere Society. Two of these—"Shakespeare on Horseback" and "Shakespeare no Dog Fancier"—were passing through the press at the time of his death.

Happily for Stratford and for the literary world, the Flower family is still well represented there. During the Tercentenary Mr. *Punch* printed a humorous poem about them, beginning, if I remember rightly:

"On Avon's banks, where Flowers eternal bloom."

It would be a sad day for authors and actors should the prophecy fail, or Stratford know no more the race which for fifty years has been foremost in preserving the town of Shakspere, in promoting its culture and beauty, in making it throughout a memorial of the poet, and in enabling the literary world to share its happiness in being the birthplace of the greatest Englishman. MONCURE D. CONWAY.

THE PARTY MUDDLE IN GERMANY.

BERLIN, April 21, 1892.

THE refusal of the King of Prussia, who is, of course, German Emperor *ex officio*, to allow the passage of the Elementary Schools Bill in the face of united opposition by the several so-called liberal parties, seems likely to have more important political consequences for all Germany than was at the outset generally realized. It is comparatively immaterial whether Count Eulenburg or Count Caprivi holds the office of Imperial Chancellor next fall. The military as well as the economic policy of the German Empire in foreign affairs is fully determined for a number of years by the Triple Alliance and the commercial treaties. Even the Emperor, great as his resources in the unexpected are, would find difficulty in changing it. This elementary fact is beginning to dawn on the German political world, recently obscured by cloudy speculations about the future Chancellor, and to illuminate an interesting political situation.

There are many Liberals in Germany, but for a number of years there has been no recognized Liberal party. The name "National Liberal" is, to be sure, retained by an important faction, but it includes on the one side men more conservative than the "Free Conservatives," and, on the other, men more radical than the "Fortschrittspartei." The latter, the remnant of a once great party, represents the fullest measure of individual liberty in the English sense. These two parties, together with the Free Conservatives and with the Socialists, who have no representation in the Prussian Diet, were opposed to the Schools Bill. On the other hand, the Centre and the Conservatives were generally in favor of it. As the latter parties had a majority in the

Diet and 16 out of 28 votes in committee, there is an apparent justification for their complaint that Count Eulenburg, by withdrawing the Schools Bill, ostensibly because he could not secure an agreement for it, violated "the parliamentary principle." To be sure, the "parliamentary principle" forms no part of Prussian constitutional law; and no one has been more ready to brandish that fact in the face of parliamentary liberalism than Count Ballestrem, the leader of the Centre, who now complains that the principle has been violated. But the Catholic Centre were never distinguished for their consistency. Immediately after the withdrawal of the Schools Bill they voted, out of spite, against the same naval appropriation for *Courvette K* which they had approved upon the previous reading of the budget. More recently, at a meeting in Breslau, Count Ballestrem, in the name of his party, declared open war upon the Government for violating the same parliamentary principle whose non-existence he has often emphasized.

Unsatisfactory as the political position of the Centre is, however, that of the Conservatives is far worse. Years ago Bismarck declared that this party, the representative of titled loyalty and landed property, counted for nothing save when it supported the Government. To be sure, even he was forced, in order to cement the cartel through which he governed in the eighties, to make important concessions to the Conservatives as well as to the Centre. They supported him because he followed a policy of protection, especially for agriculture, and because he carried other laws very advantageous to their class interests, *e. g.*, the "clausula Frankenstein" in the Empire and the "lex Heune" in Prussia. The Caprivi Government had already offended the Conservatives by withdrawing some of these concessions, and it threatens to withdraw others. It had lowered many duties, especially those on grain, and Miquel's highly successful reform of the Prussian income tax is increasing revenues and opening the way to the repeal of the "lex Heune," which distributes Prussia's share of the imperial customs receipts among the communes in such a way as to lighten disproportionately the taxation of the large agriculturists. But the Conservatives, being above all "loyal," cannot follow the Centre into an open fight on the present Government, since it is acting, as is well known, under the specific orders of their sovereign. They have consequently revenged themselves by expelling Herr von Helldorff, a prominent Conservative member of the Prussian upper house and an opponent of the Schools Bill, from the party caucus, and by adopting an address of condolence to the deposed Minister of Education.

Unfortunately for the Conservatives, it turned out that Herr von Helldorff had a considerable following, and it became a political necessity to recover, if possible, the lost strength. Ex-Court Chaplain Stöcker, who has become a Conservative politician more noisy than important, proposed that the Conservatives, as the characteristically "Christian" party, insert an anti-Semitic plank in their platform. Political anti-Semiticism, feeding on justifiable indignation against overspeculation, spiced with recent sensational banking failures in Berlin, has grown rapidly to considerable proportions in several parts of Germany. Accordingly, the Conservatives, alarmed by the extent of the Von Helldorff split, were about to follow the advice of Stöcker, seconded by Von Hammerstein, the new editor of the *Kreuzzeitung*, when the *North German Gazette*, the acknowledged organ of the Government, in the politically important Easter review which it is the custom of the German newspapers to publish, warned the Conservatives that the demands of the anti-Semitic party, which amount to the expulsion of all Jews from Germany, were no more achievable in a constitutional way than the demands of the Socialists, and that the inclusion of anti-Semiticism in the Conservative programme must cause a definite breach between that party and the Government. In other words, the Government party par excellence has been weakened by a serious split, and the Government will not assent to the only practicable plan for restoring the party's former strength. The question, therefore, arises, How is the Government to secure the necessary support? Its economic policy directs it already towards the liberal elements. But if it should make the attempt to govern by their assistance, can the formation of a united Liberal party of inconveniently large proportions be avoided? Nevertheless, there can be little doubt that the unification of the liberal elements into a powerful party would have a healthful influence upon German political life. It would raise a liberally inclined Government above the necessity of that trading and truckling to get together a majority to which Bismarck constantly descended in his domestic policy, and would give Prussia and the Empire what they have scarcely ever known—genuine party government.

H.

THE REVOLT OF CONDÉ.—I.

PARIS, April 26, 1892.

THE sixth volume of the 'Histoire des Princes de Condé,' by the Duc d'Aumale, is more than worthy of the preceding volumes; it even marks a progress in the historian, in his method, in his manner of treating a subject in all its aspects, and, shall I say also? in his style, which seems to become more nervous and condensed, more picturesque, also, and descriptive.

This new volume is the history of the rebellion of Condé. When he entered the prison to which Mazarin consigned him, he was, he said afterwards, the most innocent of men. He added: "I came out of it the most guilty of men." The captivity of the Prince de Condé and his brother was very strict; many attempts were made to deliver them, but to no purpose. The resistance against Mazarin was organized by Condé's sister, the famous Madame de Longueville, and, curiously enough, by Turenne, who was destined afterwards to make war on Condé for many years, when Condé had become the ally of the Spaniards. Turenne was timidly in love with Madame de Longueville—great heroes are often timid; Madame de Longueville amused herself with his passion, and took him to Stenay, which was one of Condé's fortresses. The wife of Condé, Madame la Princesse, as she was called, fled from Chantilly, and, though Condé was the most unfaithful of husbands, and had never concealed his aversion for the woman whom he had married by the King's order, she threw herself into the Fronde, and became the head of the malcontents in Bordeaux and in the South.

The invasion of France by the northern frontier was arrested by the defence of Guise and the defeat of the Archduke and Turenne in Champagne. In the south, Mazarin had taken affairs in hand himself. The "Fronde de Bordeaux" is one of the most confused chapters of our history; it was very bloodless—a mere succession of intrigues and of popular movements. Mazarin did not derive much advantage from the defeat of Turenne at Rethel. In vain did he send Condé from Vincennes to the prison at Havre. The Princess Palatine, who was a great friend of Condé's, treated with the Frondeurs as well as with the Queen. It all ended, as is often the case in civil wars, in a settlement. Condé was delivered and Mazarin went to Havre himself to announce that he was free. It was on his forced journey from Vincennes to Havre that Condé composed the famous verses on the man who was at the head of the escort:

"Cet homme gros et court,
Si fameux dans l'histoire,
Ce grand Comte d'Harcourt,
Tout rayonnant de gloire,
Qui secourut Casal et qui reprit Turin,
Est maintenant recors de Jules Mazarin."

Boileau used to say that he did not know a better epigram.

The Duc d'Aumale is a great admirer of Anne de Gonzague, the Princess Palatine, who negotiated the deliverance of Condé, and he gives interesting details respecting her negotiation. Mazarin was sacrificed, or sacrificed himself; Condé came back triumphant to Paris, and the Cardinal took the road to exile. When the Queen received Condé, she could hardly control her tears.

"What a spectacle! Mazarin hurled from power at the very moment when he seemed to have strengthened his authority by victory; imploring humbly the support, the protection of the man whom he had kept in close captivity for thirteen months; the Coadjutor [Retz], Beaufort, all those who had not ceased to conspire the destruction of Condé, offering themselves and taking their places behind him; the Court, the Fronde at the feet of this man so often denounced, carried the day before from fortress to fortress as if there could not be for him any prison sure enough, hard enough; Paris lighting for his return the bonfires which, a year before, illuminated the doors of his prison—is it not fitting to say with the author of the 'Maxims' [La Rochefoucauld], 'Everything happens in France'?"

Mazarin had his revenge. He left a strong ally behind him—the Queen, who loved him; he left also germs of division, of envy, of hatred, which nobody knew better than himself. The difficulties which arose between Condé and the Court are so petty that they can hardly be understood: exchanges of governments, of provinces, marriages—everything became a subject of quarrel. Condé's haughtiness meets in every direction with a stubborn resistance. When the King's majority is proclaimed, he is so irritated that he does not take his place in the "lit de justice."

"As Louis XIV. is on his way to the palace surrounded by his family, by the peers of France, by the officers of the Crown, Armand de Bourbon approaches, and hands his Majesty a letter from his brother; it is a respectful account of the motives which kept Condé away from the place to which he was called by his duty and his birth. The King takes the letter, and, without opening it, gives it to his old Governor, the Duc de Villeroy. Without a word, without a gesture, he goes on his way to the *lit de justice*.

"The die is cast; the solemn hour has struck, and Condé has not heard it. There is no longer any Spanish regentess, no foreign minister. Never mind the legal fiction—the pretended minority of fact after the minority of right—never mind! It is the King, the King of France who governs. All those who preserve in their hearts the old national tradition think they see the sky clearer. They wait for the era of calm, of quietude, which is to come after the chaos, after the odious conflict of ambitions. Woe to those who wish to prolong the war and the sufferings of the country! And the sword which had thrown a crop of laurels in the cradle of a king four years old, the sword of Rocroy, does not shine near the sceptre which the king of thirteen already holds with a firm hand."

I cite this passage in order to show that the historian of Condé is not blind to the faults of his hero. Condé hesitated before he again

rebelled against the boy who was now really the King; his sister Longueville vanquished his last scruples. "You force me to draw the sword? Well, remember that I shall be the last to put it back in its scabbard." Condé drew up the plan of the campaign of 1651: the operations were to be conducted on two separate theatres—in the south, between the Loire and the Pyrenees; in the north, on the frontier of the Low Countries. Condé made his treaty with the Spaniards (treaty of Madrid, November 6, 1651); in the month of January he made a treaty with the Duke of Orleans. Nothing of great importance happened in the south. Condé had to deal with the demagogy of Bordeaux, with what was called L'Ormée, a club which had its meetings under the old elms. His adversary in the south was D'Harcourt. Mazarin had returned from exile; Condé's conduct was his triumphant justification. Condé had hoped at first to enlist Turenne among his allies, but Turenne was thoroughly disgusted with the alliance with the Spaniards; he had been defeated with them at Rethel. He was naturally loyal; he had been offended by the pride of Condé, who recognized his military merit, but did not sufficiently recognize the claims of the Bouillons as Princes of Sedan.

Condé left the south in secret, after having organized his forces in Guyenne; he crossed the Loire with a feeble escort. The Court was ignorant of his whereabouts; he had disappeared. "His journey is like a page detached from the most extravagant novel of adventure. Nothing is wanting: surprises, unforeseen meetings, disguises, incidents in inns, roads lost and miraculously found again, night marches and countermarches, stolen horses, charges with sword or pistol, hunger, thirst, suffering, the gout of La Rochefoucauld, etc." Condé, once arrived among his troops, soon confronted Turenne. The Duc d'Aumale gives a very graphic account of the battle of Bléneau. Turenne, seeing the movements of the enemy, who was supposed to be led by M. de Nemours, soon recognized the hand of a master, and, extending his arm, he said: "Ah! Monsieur le Prince is there." Condé in his turn could admire the manœuvres of Turenne. These two men, the greatest generals of their age, were at the head of very small forces, but they had in their hands the fate of France. If Condé had made Louis XIV. prisoner, our history would have been changed. Turenne saved his King. If he had been beaten "on the evening of the 7th of April, 1652, one would perhaps have seen M. le Prince serving Louis XIV. on his knees—like the Normans before the Pope at Civitella, like the Black Prince at Poictiers before King John—surrounding his King with respect and submission, but keeping him prisoner."

We now come to one of the most dramatic episodes in French history. Condé entered Paris, where he received a most brilliant reception; he entered also into negotiations with the Court. His pretensions were such that Mazarin could not accept them. Meanwhile the Duke of Lorraine had arrived with his little army; he entered Paris, amused the Parisians by his entrance, and was all ready to sell himself and his troops to the highest bidder. He was one of those *condottieri* who have made the name of Lorrainer synonymous with the name of traitor. Turenne drew near to Paris with the royal army, and the Duke of Lorraine thought it best to negotiate with him. "Turenne advances; he is already under the guns of the Lorrainers; Charles IV. gives the order to open fire. Almost immediately afterwards he signs the treaty and sends it to Turenne with hostages, and the army of Lorraine begins to march before the French army in battle order. In eight days the Lorrainers will cross the Marne; in a fortnight they will be out of the kingdom."

Paris now became uneasy; the misery was great. The Duke of Orleans began to waver. What will Condé do? The populace is furious; the Parlement has lost its authority. The army of the King approaches, mustering 12,000 men; Condé's army is only 6,000 strong, and retires. Paris shuts its gates on it, and Condé is now in danger of being crushed between the walls of the capital and the troops of Turenne. "Then he took a heroic resolution. No, he will not remain with his back against the fatal wall, stopped by the closed gates, at the foot of the gloomy fortress of Vincennes in the shade of its high towers. He will provoke a combat. His officers surround him: 'I do not promise you victory, but at least we will not let ourselves be killed like cattle,' and he explains his plan." The battle of the Faubourg Saint-Antoine is narrated in the most minute details by the Duc d'Aumale. The memoirs of the time have made us familiar with its principal incidents, with the bloody charge in which so many French noblemen of the highest rank were killed or wounded, with the excitement of the Parisians when they saw the wounded brought back to Paris, with the revulsion of feeling which followed, with the bold resolution of the Grand Mademoiselle, who ordered the guns of the Bastille to be fired on the royal troops. Condé was saved by her intervention. Mademoiselle had for a moment hoped to marry Louis XIV., and it was said, "Voilà un coup de canon qui a tué son mari."

Correspondence.

DUE PROCESS OF LAW IN PENNSYLVANIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: About one hundred persons have been indicted by the last Grand Jury of this county for selling oleomargarine in violation of the Act of May 21, 1885. This state of affairs illustrates how little regard people pay to an odious law, and how easy it is to use such a law for the nasty purpose of blackmail.

The oleomargarine law in this State had its origin in the desire of the "honest farmer" for protection against the "poor man's butter." The farmers boldly asserted that the "iron kings" were so protected that they were obliged to pay tribute for their clothing and farm machinery, and that that was not "American fair play." So the iron kings, out of the kindness of their hearts, decided that the honest farmer should be allowed to get even by plucking some other poor devil. In this instance it happens to be the poor laboring man. On this highly moral platform of "you tickle me, I'll tickle you," the iron king and honest farmer joined hands and worked together for favorable legislation. Thus the high tariff is directly responsible for debauching the honest farmer, for it is obvious that when he is enabled to exact five or ten cents more a pound for his butter than he could get if oleomargarine was sold, he is getting what does not belong to him by any moral right whatsoever.

The honest farmer justifies this high-handed and piratical proceeding by saying that all substitutes for butter are unwholesome. But this whole question was thrown aside by the United States Supreme Court in Powell vs. Pennsylvania (reported in 127 U. S., p. 678). Although the plaintiff offered to prove beyond the shadow of a doubt that oleomargarine was just as healthy as butter and less likely to become rancid, yet this startling proposition was laid down: Whether the manufacture and sale of a commodity is unwholesome or injurious to the public health, or against the best interests of the community, "*are questions of fact and of public policy which belong to the legislative department to determine*" (p. 685). Courts and juries were swept aside, and now the phrase "due process of law" simply means nothing at all. It becomes a highfalutin phrase, which renders the entire Fourteenth Amendment a snare and a delusion.

When principles of law are laid down in a case, they should be followed out to their logical results as relentlessly as the decrees of fate. Otherwise lawyers can never know what the law should be in any given case. If they cannot be so followed, they are not applicable to the case and should never have been laid down at all. Prof. Langdell of Harvard has pointed out that the principles of law are few, but their application may be infinite. They are like the laws of nature and of the spheres, and, when properly grasped, can be applied to the rapidly changing business methods for all time. If the principle laid down in Powell vs. Pennsylvania is applied and carried out to its logical results, our Legislature can prevent the making of bread, the manufacture of clothing, or any other commodity, and indeed take away from the minority of our citizens every vestige of property right against their will and even in the very teeth of all constitutional guarantees. The most charitable explanation of this decision is that the air was saturated with the grievances of the farmer, and the Court made the decision under the late tendency of all courts to "disregard form and do equity."

The case of Fisher vs. the Pennsylvania Railroad Co., reported in 126 Pa. St. 293, may be cited in this connection on account of the striking analogy which it bears to Powell vs. Pennsylvania. When a jackass was killed by a locomotive, it was held that there could be no recovery, on the ground that, while it was the duty of the defendant to ring the bell and blow the whistle, yet, as all duties are reciprocal, it was the duty of the jackass to "stop, look, and listen." It did not do so, and was therefore guilty of contributory negligence. If the United States Supreme Court had decided that a jackass is the sole judge of what we can or cannot manufacture, it could not have placed autocratic power in more incompetent and reckless hands. And if our State Supreme Court had solemnly decided that the Pennsylvania Legislature should "stop, look, and listen," we might have had some hope for an early repeal of this unjust law, and an honest United States Senator.

C. P. R.

Pittsburgh, May 11, 1892.

THE ELEVATION OF BLACK AMERICANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of March 24 there is an article in regard to "The Elevation of the Black Americans." The writer is evidently much interested in the negro problem. It is a subject that should awaken a wider interest and a deeper sympathy. We, the white Americans, are responsible for their enslavement. We turn them loose, give them freedom, and feel as if we were heroic and had done all that

was required. We do not know, hardly care, that they were helpless and ignorant because of and through us, and that they need care and the protection and the love that are given to children in the best homes. All things must be tried for their elevation, and only the good and the noble will try anything. I lived several years in Virginia, and studied "the black Americans" with much perplexity, and had a great desire to help them. I found that those who went North year after year and worked, either sent money to their parents or bought farms, and had them improved, and cultivated them according to the best Northern methods under great limitations. They need better tools, using, as a rule, the most primitive. Therefore it seems to me a good thing to give and to induce people in the North to give them ploughs, cultivators, and several together a reaper. It works well. It gives a sense of independence. They are a proud people, and take pride in their work, and laugh a happy, merry, child's laugh to see their work better done than their white neighbors'—and this was true of many negro farmers, even when the white men came from the North. Schools, as a rule, are demoralizing. When they go to school they only learn to read and write, and then will not work with their hands. This is truer now than at the outset, for then they wanted to learn more and were not afraid of work.

A short time ago, I read an article from the pen of Mrs. Ednah D. Cheney. She thinks that "nursing would open a wide field of usefulness for the colored women of our Southern States. Their qualities of patience, sweetness, affection, are well adapted to this profession." That was an inspiration. The work for "the black American" must come from within, and then given a direction, a motive. They are the only cheerful element in America. We must help them in their own lines. Give them justice and truth and sympathy, and they will get their own moral perceptions and elevation and schools. No one writes about the negro fairly; his language is so distorted and ridiculed that no creature who sees it printed can see any reality about it. They talk just as the whites do about them.

Pardon this long communication.

B. B. Ellets.

Maryland, May 12, 1892.

Notes.

Ginn & Co. have in press 'The Art of Poetry,' embracing the poetical treatises of Horace, Vida, and Boileau, together with the translations by Howes, Pitt, and Soame; the whole edited by Prof. Albert S. Cook of Yale.

A novel, 'Calmire,' an exposition of "that scientific explanation of the basis of morals for which many are seeking outside of the historic creeds," will shortly be issued by Macmillan & Co.

Cassell will publish 'The Writings and Speeches of Grover Cleveland,' edited with an introduction by George F. Parker.

'The Lone Star of Liberia, or, Reflections on Our Own People,' by Frederick Alexander Durham, is announced by Elliot Stock, London.

A catalogue of the George P. Marsh Library will be published during the coming summer by the University of Vermont. It will make a volume of more than 700 pages royal octavo, and will fully present the contents of 13,000 volumes of that remarkable collection. A sample of it is now before us, being the bibliography of Mr. Marsh, compiled by H. L. Koopman, the Librarian at Burlington.

In the *Revue Bleue* for April 30, M. Léo Claretie gives a foretaste of a volume of unpublished correspondence of Rousseau with Mme. Boy de La Tour, from 1762 to 1773, to be published with portraits and facsimiles by Calmann Lévy. This friend and benefactress was but little known to Musset-Pathay, who records no letter to her. It will appear from the ninety-three letters now on the eve of getting into print, how freely Jean Jacques made use of his landlady (she gave him his furnished house at Motiers) for petty commissions while she was in her winter home in Lyons. Most of the letters, says M. Claretie, were evidently copied from rough drafts.

The last *Bollettino* of the National Central Library at Florence mentions the fact of a reproduction in facsimile of an anonymous MS. preserved in that library, entitled 'Libro de la vida que los Yndios antiguamente hazian, y supersticiones y malos ritos que tenian y guardavan.' This is richly illustrated with colored designs, all of which will be faithfully reproduced. The work has been undertaken by and at the expense of Miss Zelia Nuttall of the Peabody Museum at Cambridge, who first discovered the value of this MS. She will also supply an English translation, with a dedication to the next Congress of Americanists, to meet in Spain. Two hundred copies will be printed, and will be sold by the Museum.

Father G. Berthier, Professor of Theology in the college at Freiburg, Switzerland, has undertaken to prepare a new edition of the 'Divine Comedy,' with a commentary "secondo la scolastica," the first fascicule of which has already appeared (Freiburg: Universitätsbuchhandlung; New York: International News Co.). The plan of the work, which will be published in fifty instalments, is both mediæval and modern. Interpreted from the scholastic point of view, the poem is shown to be a complete moral treatise, in which the doctrine is from first to last continuously developed; from the modern point of view, however, it is a picture-gallery, recalling hundreds of persons and places. What the eye can see, Father Berthier is to represent by "at least two thousand" illustrations; to the inward eye he is to make clear the sublime doctrine of Dante and the Church by a running Italian comment. The present instalment contains a dedication to Leo XIII., a part of a somewhat garrulous preface, and the text and annotations of the first two cantos, with excellent, though not always appropriate, illustrations. We must postpone further notice of the work until the completion of the "Inferno."

Less interesting is the bulky three-volume edition of the late G. Campi (Turin, 1888–91), who edited a similar work as early as 1822. The illustrations of the present edition are reproductions of those by Ademolli and Nenci in the "Anchor" edition of 1822. The notes are mainly concerned with variants of the text. Otherwise, they are based on the older commentaries.

Prominent among the hosts of books and pamphlets relating to Dante which are continually produced in Italy, most of them badly written and badly printed polemics, is C. Ricci's 'L'Ultimo Refugio di Dante Alighieri' (Milan: Hoepli, 1891). It not only is well printed and full of good illustrations, but presents the customary mass of detailed erudition to some purpose, for, structureless as the book is, the reader really gets from it a tolerably clear picture of Ravenna, Dante's "last refuge," in the fourteenth century—the city, the court, the localities most closely associated with him, and the better-known celebrities of the time.

"From the Spanish of Pasarse de Listo" is the awkward phrase used on the title-page of 'Don Braulio'—a novel by Juan Valera translated by Clara Bell and published by the Appletons—to show that Valera's own title for the book, 'Pasarse de Listo,' has been exchanged for the one mentioned. Don Braulio is the leading character in the story, and might well enough give it a name; but the method chosen to indicate the change cannot be said to *pasarse de listo* (be too clever by half). As to the translation, on the basis of the two or three chapters we have compared with the original, we should say that it was adequate, if not very elegant, though occasional lapses arise from the translator's failure to catch a local allusion. Thus, "Madrid, since the advent of Lozoya," will scarcely convey to the reader, if it did to the translator, the idea of "Madrid, desde que vino el Lozoya"—that is, since Madrid got a supply of water from the River Lozoya. The novel is one of Valera's earliest, and is not reckoned by Spanish critics, including himself, among his best efforts in that kind of writing.

The second edition of a translation of Solomon's Song comes to us from a provincial city of Mexico—'El Cantar de los Cantares' (Aguascalientes: J. T. Pedroza é Hijos). It is the work of Prof. Jesus Diaz de Leon, and consists of an introduction, the Hebrew text with grammatical comments, and a version in Greek, Latin, German, French, English, and Spanish. The curious rather than substantial value which the latter feature gives the volume is but accentuated by the exposition, which is wholly antiquated, and written in complete oversight of the results reached by modern interpreters.

Two guide-books to Chicago were issued last year, viz., Schick's 'Chicago and its Environs' and Flinn's 'Chicago, the Marvellous City of the West.' Both of them showed a want of the highest skill in the making of such works, but the first was superior in literary merit and in typographical comeliness. Of Mr. Flinn's "history, encyclopædia, and guide" the Standard Guide Co. has just issued a second edition, which is at least a useful supplement to its rival. The lack of method is well exhibited in the case of monuments, some of which are entered and described individually in the section, "General Information," while others must be sought under the rubric *Monuments* in the same section, along with the first-mentioned; hence much trouble of reference and much vain repetition. So there is a heading *Libraries*, but the Public Library is given a title by itself. The index, instead of being in one alphabet, is classified. The best of the illustrations do not equal the best of Mr. Schick's, but the general choice is better. The map of the city, too, is more inclusive, if the scale is smaller.

Macmillan & Co. continue their reprint of first editions of Dickens with his 'Oliver Twist,' uniform with the 'Pickwick Papers' lately put forth. The younger Dickens again furnishes an historical introduction, in which the conjunction of these two issues is shown to be natural, as the novelist was engaged upon the first half of 'Oliver Twist' while writing the last half of the 'Pickwick Papers,' to say nothing of his editing *Bentley's Miscellany* and preparing the 'Life of Grimaldi' and beginning 'Nicholas Nickleby,' all before 'Oliver Twist' was off the stocks. Cruikshank furnished the illustrations for the first edition of

'Oliver Twist,' and in his latter years fancied that he had suggested the story. The etchings are reproduced in the volume before us, and the artist's pretensions are once more upset by incontestable evidence.

The Brantwood edition of Ruskin (Charles E. Merrill & Co.), since we last mentioned its progress, has grown by three volumes—the 'Lectures on Art' and the earlier 'Stones of Venice.' Prof. Norton's Introduction to the latter work (now deprived of its illustrations) contains some hard words for the modern Venetians, who have to patch up a *modus vivendi* with their ancient surroundings. It is enlivened, on the other hand, by a humorous letter from Ruskin, describing the difficulties under which he labored in pursuing his study of the Venetian architecture.

The twelfth volume of Mr. W. C. Ford's edition of the 'Writings of Washington' (Putnams) opens with the President's speech to Congress December 8, 1790, and closes with the year 1794, apart from the remarkable "Opinion of the general officers" who might be "named for the important trust of Commander-in-Chief" to succeed Arthur St. Clair (1792). In the period embraced we have the beginnings of the acquisition of the District of Columbia, the Indian troubles in the Northwest to which General Wayne gave the quietus, the Genet imbroglio, the resignation of Jefferson as Secretary of State, and the Whiskey Rebellion. More interesting than messages and letters respecting matters of state is the large body of agricultural correspondence. An autographic map of Mt. Vernon accompanies a letter from Washington to Arthur Young. In the same letter, the President speaks of the stringent British regulation of the emigration of artisans, and of his having therefore refrained from "any overtures to mechanics," though in need of them. "A complete Black Smith" was one of his desiderata, as he intimates to Tobias Lear on the latter's going abroad; yet he would avoid any collision with the English law on the subject of contract-labor engagements, to which "severe penalties" were affixed. Time has so ordered it that we now, in the name of Protection, assist England to retain her skilled labor, in spite of her having removed every restraint upon emigration.

The latest issue of the Essex Institute Historical Collections (Nos. 2, 3, vol. 28) contains a large number of extracts made by Mr. Henry F. Waters from the registry of marriage licenses granted by the Bishop of London, 1598 to 1639. The same matter, plus an index, has also been printed under the title, 'Genealogical Gleanings in England,' by the Salem (Mass.) Press Publishing and Printing Co. The field had been gone over, but very hastily and imperfectly, by the late Col. Chester, whose extracts were published by the Harleian Society. Of these, 206 reappear in Mr. Waters's transcripts, but three-quarters of them enlarged and sometimes undoubtedly corrected; and Mr. Waters has added 293 entries almost wholly postdating the year 1626, whereas the majority of Col. Chester's antedate 1627. No one can peruse these often quaint extracts, with Mr. Waters's annotations, without recognizing their very great genealogical importance. They constantly relate to wills already abstracted for the *Register*, and enlarge the scope of the Washington, Harvard, and Roger Williams investigations. We meet with the marriage licenses of John Pemberton, a cousin of the founder of Providence; of his brother, Sidrach Williams, a merchant tailor and Turkey merchant; and probably of his younger brother Robert, who came to settle in Salem. Also, of John Sadler, the father of John Harvard's wife; of George, the probable father of Samuel Purchas of 'Purchas his Pilgrimage'; of Robert Kayne, one of the founders of the Ancient and Honorable Artillery Co. in Boston; of a couple vouched for by Thomas Lechford. But it would carry us too far to attempt a list of the eminent New England personal and family names illuminated by these records, to which Mr. Waters has brought his immense knowledge and his rare intuition and divination.

The University of Chicago has prepared its programme of economic study and publication under the direction of Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin. In addition to the regular courses, which are of the widest scope, a quarterly magazine will be published entitled the *Journal of Political Economy*, the first number of which will contain original articles by Émile Levasseur, Adolf Soetbeer, Max Wirth, Francis A. Walker, and George S. Coe. Furthermore, translations are promised of Gustav Cohn's 'Finanzwissenschaft' and Léon Say's Report on the Payment of the French War Indemnity; also reprints of Hamilton's Report on Manufactures and Gallatin's Memorial on Free Trade.

We have received the first number of *Arcadia*, a journal devoted to music, art, and literature, edited and published semi-monthly by Joseph Gould, at 180 St. James Street, Montreal. It is attractively printed, and its tone is serious and refined. Its correspondence is noticeably extensive.

Mr. David D. Wells contributes to the *Popular Science Monthly* for May, under the title, "Evolution in Folk-lore," a story once current among the slaves in British Guiana, and bearing a significant resemblance to Uncle Remus's "Little Boy and His Dogs." Mr. Wells gives the music of the song of the axes and the hunter's call to his dogs. The coincidence is one of many which connect South America with our Southern States in this matter of negro folk-lore.

A New York sheet from the great national atlas of the U. S. Geological Survey, dated March, 1892, brings into one view the metropolis; Brooklyn and Long Island as far east as Willett's Point and Far Rockaway; all of Staten Island; Westchester County as far east as New Rochelle and as far north as Hastings; and New Jersey east of Orange Mountain from Elizabeth to Paterson. In this tract of 35x26 miles, a third of which is water and marshland, is housed a population at least as large as that of the thirteen colonies of the Revolutionary epoch, or from three to four millions, with a capacity of increase to ten times that sum. The map is beautifully executed, like the rest of the series, with contour lines of twenty-foot interval.

Mr. William I. Fletcher, Librarian of Amherst College, will open his department of library economy in the Amherst Summer School on July 4, for one month. The course will take the form of daily practical lectures, and will cover the whole field of library work in actual practice, no previous knowledge of this work being required. For terms, etc., Mr. Fletcher should be addressed directly.

A correspondent writes to us from Maryland in answer to the question, Did the Virginians get the "soft-swearing" phrase "dog gone it" from the Scotch, and how?—"In studying the colonial history of Virginia, I learned that the Scotch had almost the entire monopoly of the tobacco trade, and monopolized the schools of that colony as teachers. As teachers and tradesmen they were controlling influences. Perhaps with this light the answer is not difficult to find."

—*Music*, the Chicago magazine edited and published by Mr. W. S. B. Mathews, enters on its second volume with the May number, which is a particularly interesting one. The magazine has fulfilled the hopes which it excited, and the two most serious faults noticeable in the early numbers—an exaggerated patriotism, and a disposition to admit articles in which big words are more abundant than facts or ideas—are gradually disappearing. In the near future the editor promises articles on "The Evolution of Musical Journalism," "The Wagner Cult and the Art of Singing," "The Genesis of the Modern Pianoforte" and "The Modern Organ," with portraits and other illustrations. The May number contains portraits of Messrs. W. H. Sherwood, Max Bendix, C. Sternberg, W. L. Tomlins, the Mason and Thomas quartet, the leading female violinists of America, and the leading professors of the Cincinnati College of Music. The opening article is a lament on the tendency of American composers to imitate German and French musicians, instead of cultivating a national American style, based on "the psalmody of the Puritans; the reels, hornpipes, and country dances of rural New England; the melodies of the negroes; the patriotic and other songs of the people, and even the music of the Indians, in which . . . there are interesting peculiarities." Mr. G. F. Root defends the old-fashioned prima donna and her common songs, while Mr. Sternberg wants a new and revised edition of Schumann, who certainly was negligent in minor details of notation. But Mr. Sternberg should have exonerated him from the reproach of incorrect tempo marks, for it has been shown that his metronome was faulty. The editor gives an interesting description of the methods by which Mr. Tomlins has achieved such wonderful results in the vocal training of children. One of the most readable articles bears the unpromising title of "An Old Programme Book." It throws much curious light on the state of taste at the time when Mr. Theodore Thomas, Mr. Mason, and others first undertook to give New Yorkers good chamber music. What a difference, for instance, between such concerts as Paderewski, Rummel, Pachmann, and D'Albert have given here this winter, and one of Thalberg's programmes (in 1857), which was devoted chiefly to transcriptions from "Massaniello," "I Puritani," "Sonnambula," and "Norma." Most of the good music which our pianists play to-day was in existence at that time, but the public did not care for it.

—In the 'Remains of Ancient Rome' (London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan), Prof. Middleton has entirely recast a work which had already passed through two editions under a somewhat different title. The book now appears in two volumes, with more than three hundred additional pages. Its nature, however, is unchanged, the chief stress being laid, as before, upon architectural matters, with particular attention to methods of construction and to building materials. But a great deal is added everywhere in the way of details, the results of recent excavations are set forth, and there are many new illustrations. The colored plans have been revised up to date, and an entirely new one of the imperial *fora* is provided. Under bibliography it is good to see that the value of inscriptional sources is more fully recognized. The author has somewhat modified his view that the necropolis

discovered on the Esquiline was a proof of the preëxistence of a purely Etruscan city on the site of Rome, though apparently he does not adopt the theory of Alban origin. It is rather hard on Nero to make Tacitus authority for the story that the burning of Rome was due to a cut-and-dried scheme of the Emperor, when Tacitus is the only ancient author who speaks of the charge as at all doubtful. The new Secular Games inscription might have helped Prof. Middleton in what he has to say about the altar of *Roma quadrata*. The index to the book is very greatly enlarged and improved.

—The remarkable religious movement in Persia known as Babism has been described in a number of European books, notably by Comte de Gobineau and by Kazem-Beg. A welcome addition to our knowledge of the subject is presented by Mr. Edward G. Browne of the University of Cambridge in his work entitled 'The Episode of the Bab' (Macmillan). The first volume gives the Persian text, the second the English translation with notes. It is a narrative of the Babist movement by a member of the sect, and not only presents it from a sympathetic point of view, but gives details which were not before known. Mr. Browne himself also, by visits to the East, obtained a very special knowledge of the movement, and in his notes makes contributions to the history not only of Babism but of the modern Persian faith in general. The main peculiarity in the contents of the narrative is the "secondary importance accorded to the Bab, whose mission is throughout depicted as a mere preparation for the fuller and more perfect dispensation of Beha." Bab speaks of himself commonly as a forerunner; and since 1867 it is Beha who has been recognized by most of the Babis as "he whom God shall manifest," their supreme and sole chief and spiritual guide. Mr. Browne visited Beha in his home near Acre, and was accorded a most friendly reception. Another claimant to the title of chief, named Yahya, is at present in Cyprus; he has his adherents, but is comparatively of small importance. Babism is a thoroughly Persian product, an attempt to engraft Aryan mysticism and pantheism on the Koran. The hold which such religious systems have on Persians is shown by the stubborn resistance made by Babism to all attempts of the Government to crush it. At present it not only maintains itself, but, in spite of persecutions, seems to be spreading. Whether it will be a permanent faith, or will succumb to the tremendous power of the Islamic organization, remains to be seen.

—The story of England's literary debt to Holland has not yet been told, though the debt is a large one. It was on the Continent that printing was invented, and that publishing first became a business separate from that of the stationer; cheap books, and plenty of them, being the rule. A scholarly treatise on literary relations between England and Germany in the sixteenth century has been given by Prof. Herford in his fascinating volume (Cambridge, 1886), in which, also, is a chapter on the influence of the Dutch school of Latin drama upon England. Holland, however, not merely served as an intermediary between Germany and England, but had besides a pronounced independent and direct influence. This was shown both in the many text-books translated directly from the Dutch, in the transfer by Caxton of the Dutch forms of world-wide literature, etc., and in the manifold phases of industrial life. By those immigrations of Flemings and Hollanders which went on pretty steadily from the twelfth to the seventeenth century, both scholars and common people were stimulated. A fresh illustration for the coming historian of this movement is afforded in the hundred-page pamphlet just issued by Dr. Henri Logeman, of the University of Ghent (1892) and published as the fifth fasciculus of the Faculty of Philosophy and Letters. It contains the Dutch original, and a nearly contemporary translation into English, of a fifteenth-century Dutch "morality." This kind of literature was widely prevalent just before and about the time of the Reformation. The translation of "Elckerlijk" (Everyman), presumably by Peter Dorlandus, is given on the page opposite to the Dutch text, so that the two may be easily compared. There are also notes on both texts. The introductory chapters are in English, and give an account of the various texts in Dutch and English, the manner of editing, and the author and date. Prof. Logeman shows that the original (Elckerlijk—Everyman) composition was Dutch, that the first translation on the Continent was into Latin, thence into Low German, and thence into Dutch again, as "Homulus." The recovery of the long-lost original text was therefore an interesting episode in the history of dramatic, literary, and (possibly) ecclesiastical history. On the final page is a reproduction of an old woodcut from an Antwerp edition, representing Death striking down, with a dart, a man in the prime of life. The argument of the morality may be best stated in the words of a title-page of one of the twenty or so books published by John Skot (1521–1537): "Summoning of Every Man. Here begynneth a treatyse how the hye fader of heuen sendeth dethe to somon euery creature to come and gyue a counte of theyr lyues in this worlde and is in maner of a morall playe." The pamphlet is issued by the Librairie Clemm, Rue de la Calandre, 5.

—When the American Library Association was in California, it heard large stories of a scheme which was to revolutionize cataloguing. One enthusiastic admirer went so far as to declare that by its aid two cents would go as far as two dollars had previously gone in cataloguing. Its inventor, Mr. A. J. Rudolph, assistant in the San Francisco Public Library, did not claim so much, but even he, or his chief, Mr. J. V. Cheney, thought it would do away with "that cumbrous thing the card catalogue," solve the long-standing problem of a universal catalogue, insure not only economy but an accuracy and fulness hitherto impossible, and great speed, too, one assistant being able to do the work of five using the old methods. The invention itself was not shown, because patents had been applied for, and the visiting librarians went away full of curiosity slightly tinged with incredulity. The patents have been obtained and the secret is now out. The San Francisco *Chronicle* of May 7 contained an apparently authorized account with cuts. It turns out that the invention is not a new method of cataloguing at all, but a new way of holding the catalogue after it is made—in fact, only a novel slip-catalogue case. It will take just as long to prepare the catalogue as before; there is no saving in brain-work, no saving in investigation, no saving in pen-work or type-writing or printing, whichever method of record is adopted; there may be a saving in the time of putting the slips into their places, but this seems to us doubtful. But when we come to the use of the catalogue, there is a great gain, balanced by a great loss. The gain is this, that the titles are presented to the reader not one by one, as in a card-drawer, but a pageful at a time, rendering consultation very much easier and more comfortable. One cannot find the part of the catalogue one wishes to consult any quicker than in a properly labelled and guided card catalogue, but, the place once found, one has a hundred titles in view at once, instead of having to pick over a hundred cards. The contrivance is this: along each edge of a slat runs a thin metallic frame. Under these frames are inserted the ends of catalogue cards. The slats are hooked together and can be drawn over a drum, turned by a crank, in such a way that each in turn passes under a glass window at the top of the case, allowing the titles to be read. Three hundred and fifty slats fill a case and hold 26,000 titles.

—The drawback to this scheme is, that the person who consults it prevents all other persons from using it at the same time. As each machine holds 26,000 titles, his obstructiveness would be greater than with an old-fashioned eight-tier catalogue having fixed drawers, eight times as great as with a catalogue having, as all good catalogues have, movable drawers, and more than fifty times as great as with the Leyden card-book catalogue now coming into use at Harvard College Library. This evil can be lessened by putting fewer titles in a case, but then there must be more cases; and what will become of the superiority over "the cumbrous card catalogue"? This difficulty would be better removed in another way, which the inventor may have thought of, though it is not suggested by the *Chronicle*—by having several copies of the catalogue mounted in different cases, which can be done without serious expense if the titles are printed. But as there would have to be eight to make it equal to a card catalogue with movable drawers, and fifty to equalize it with a card-book catalogue, the element of room becomes an important consideration. And the cost of distributing new slips through the many cases should not be overlooked. To sum up, then, the invention is an important one and worthy of careful consideration, but it makes no improvement or saving in the preparation of a catalogue, the proper work of the cataloguer; it only affords a better method of presenting it to the public. It will provide an escape from the annoyance of consulting numerous printed supplements, but it does not do this any more than a card catalogue. Indeed, one is tempted to think that the enthusiasm which this device has excited at the San Francisco Library is due to its contrast with defective methods previously in use there. The sole unmistakable advantage is that it shows from twenty to eighty titles at once, instead of one title, which is a very great advantage.

BOYESEN'S GERMAN LITERATURE.

Essays on German Literature. By Hjalmar Hjorth Boyesen. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892.

PROF. BOYESEN more than intimates that the literature of Germany does not hold its rightful place in our culture. Goethe in particular seems to him to be neglected. "The British public" is declared not to be, in a phrase of Auerbach, "Goethe-ripe"; and not only is "the British public" in this immature condition, but the case of the learned is as lamentable. "At the English universities," says Prof. Boyesen, "a Goethe student is as rare as a

white blackbird"; and he adds that "intelligent, sympathetic study of Goethe could scarcely flourish in that atmosphere of semi-ecclesiastical mediævalism which yet hangs, like an oppressive mist, over Oxford, and, in a lesser degree, over Cambridge." After a visit to the universities "one begins to understand," he thinks, "all the malignant witticisms which Heine made on the English, and the generally unfriendly tone toward them which pervades German literature."

The matter is not much bettered when he turns to the past and inquires into the scholarship and intelligence of the last generation. We recently remarked upon the fact that Carlyle's obligations to the Germans had not been sufficiently brought out. It would appear from Prof. Boyesen that Carlyle was less indebted than would naturally be supposed. Carlyle misunderstood Goethe, so runs the criticism here, and in his essays colored the genius he most unreservedly reverenced by importing into its expression his own very different personality. The very name of the "Olympian," which in its application to Goethe seems to summarize the Teutonic conception of him, indicates how far Carlyle erred in his estimate; and the various statements that Goethe was a sage who had come to faith through unbelief, that 'Wilhelm Meister' led to the "Cross of Christ," that Goethe bade man follow his "God-given best," and the like phrases used by Carlyle only show that the latter failed in interpreting "the calm and self-poised secularism" and "the sunny and cheerful paganism" of the German poet. Especially does Prof. Boyesen attack the passages in which Carlyle declared that Goethe was "impersonal" in his works, and that he had "the devoutness of a Fénelon" and "the gayety, the sarcasm, the shrewdness of a Voltaire." There was none of all this in him whom our author himself describes as "the serene old pagan in Weimar." If Carlyle misapprehended Goethe so radically, Abraham Hayward is to be named only to be bundled out of court forthwith as a nonentity. Arnold, though praised for his eulogy of Goethe as the "greatest modern man," is reproached for coming to the subject through the medium of the criticism of M. Scherer, who is dismissed as "this malignant and disgruntled Frenchman." Hutton's essay is received with many compliments, but nevertheless set down as "a judgment of incompatibility." Prof. J. S. Blackie is the one man, "outside of Germany," who has absorbed Goethe best, and he holds much the same view as our author in regard to the impenetrability of the English mind to any German luminary. In the matter of translations likewise, Prof. Boyesen finds a similarly unsatisfactory condition of affairs; he adjudges the prize of excellence to Bayard Taylor.

This survey supports the view that "the British public," and, without reservation, the English-speaking race, is not "Goethe-ripe." There is some reason, of course, for this persistent mood other than mere density and stupidity. Prof. Boyesen indicates so much when he guardedly remarks that "the spirit that animates Goethe is very far removed from that which dominates English literature, past and present"; and he strikes the nail on the head when he quotes Hutton's words to the effect that Goethe's writings repel readers with "English views of life and duty." Goethe adopted the principle of self-culture as the rule of life, and he applied it with exceeding thoroughness. It is asserted that he could have developed his genius in no other way, and that, therefore, though he exposed himself to the charge of an overweening and at times cruel egoism, nevertheless his selfishness is to be regarded as a necessary part of his discipline. Prof. Boyesen states the facts frankly enough: "He loved his friends so long as they had something to contribute to his life, and he dropped them or shook them off when he had exhausted their educational value. This may appear a harsh statement, but it is unquestionably true. It was especially in his relations to women that he exhibited this side of his nature." In another place Prof. Boyesen adds that the sacrifice of such relations "is hardly selfishness, but a duty which every sincere man owes to himself"; if a friend ceases to be useful, and therefore ceases to be loved, fidelity under such circumstances is but a "remnant of the old feudal ideal" of external allegiance to a sovereign. Goethe was therefore "selfish to the extent necessitated by his ideal of life." Prof. Boyesen states the case of love in as extreme a form as that of friendship. This is his special plea:

> "The common callow youth, who is but a mediocre specimen of his kind (and who, to show his quality, ought to be numbered, not named), rushes blindly into the first net that the female enchanter has spread for him, and in his maudlin felicity feels not the meshes of fate in which he is entangled. He marries, reproduces his imbecility in half-a-dozen specimens of his own kind, and struggles patiently with the troubles incident upon his blessed estate. Now, it may be that this man is wise. He could probably not fulfil any higher destiny. But the rare, the exceptional man, richly endowed, who sees the benevolent imposition which Nature practises upon him, and refuses to play into her hands—is he, after all, to be so ruthlessly condemned? . . . Even so wise a man as Emerson was of opinion that the poet, the scholar, the man who was bent upon accomplishing some high purpose, had better not give hostages to fortune. . . . He may, indeed, yet accomplish much; but he will fall short of the highest achievement attainable by a man of his gifts."

This is the way in which the matter presented itself to Goethe, says our author; marriage is ordained for the mass, but the "exceptional individual" should have a way of his own and subordinate his marital as well as his friendly instincts to the perfection of his own nature. What the issue is, under the most extenuating conditions, is told us as follows:

> "What an exquisite result has, for instance, the Sesenheim episode yielded! A sweet, commonplace young girl, with a *nez retroussé* and some poor rural accomplishments, becomes, by the magic of his art, a permanent character in literature, an immortal type of all that is most touching and beautiful in womanhood. I do not say that this was to Frederica personally a compensation. But just as Faust (in the Second Part) by deeds of repentance does penance to humanity for his sin against the individual Gretchen, so Goethe, in 'Götz von Berlichingen' and 'Clavigo,' made amends to the world for the wrong he had done Frederica."

Is not the substance of this view, to put it bluntly, that ordinarily the love of woman exists for the procreation of imbecilities in a state of marriage; but in the case of men of genius it exists for the procreation of plays and novels, and the writing of such plays and novels is a "penance" done for desertion? And is this anything more than the well-worn plea that there is a law for mankind, but that genius is lawless? The power with which Goethe realized the doctrine of the unity and the universality of law is one of the main points on which his greatness is argued; is it not singular, then, to find his apologists alleging an "exception," that figment of a different school of thought? To be without loyalty to friends and without honor towards women in affairs of the heart may be consistent with being "just so selfish as was necessitated by his ideal of life," but the rule cannot be of merely personal application to the great teacher only: he cannot live one way of life and teach another, except on the plea that he fails of the ideal through defect of will. Otherwise, he must be regarded as more or less than human—which is what being an "exception" means.

The remarkable thing to a foreigner in all this is that these Goethean traits are not German traits any more than was Goethe's lack of patriotism, and that, notwithstanding this fact, the Germans so readily forgive a man who was conspicuously deficient in their people's characteristic virtues. Prof. Boyesen holds in reserve, however, the just plea that has been glanced at above. He says that Goethe's moral development was short of his intellectual perception, that "Faust" involves the growth of self-culture into self-sacrifice, and that the issue of the whole thought, both in the drama and in 'Wilhelm Meister,' is the enthronement of the altruistic in place of the egoistic conception of duty. Goethe personally, in this matter, "had reached the moral stage of *Faust* in the third, or possibly the fourth, act of the Second Part of the drama, but he had not yet entered upon the fifth or final act." This is a very different thing from allowing that Goethe's life is capable of defence, and it has its natural outcome not in excuse, but in Prof. Boyesen's last word, that "we may find much to regret, some things, perhaps, to censure, but we shall find nothing which we may not understand." To understand, in spite of the French saying, is not necessarily to forgive, except under a system of fatalism. The question of the value of Goethe's work, artistic and moral, is largely dependent on the extent to which it incorporates his better intellectual as opposed to his lower moral self, and Prof. Boyesen deals in these essays mainly with the personal instead of the literary side. Certainly the Goethean conception of self-culture is not attractive either in rationality or in honor. But enough has been said to illustrate why Goethe, as man and poet, naturally repels readers "with English ideas of life and duty."

Prof. Boyesen devotes the first half of this volume to Goethe, and has treated the subject with admirable frankness, with a desire to put the case in the most presentable way, but without any mouthing eulogy of his hero; and if he does not always carry the reader along with him, he helps to clarify judgment by the plain statement given. In the remainder of the volume, which deals with the development of the German novel, he enters on a fresher field of criticism, and, applying there full knowledge and a mind of intelligence, he has made a most helpful contribution to our comprehension of the matter. He marks at once the dominant trait of German fiction, its philosophical bent. "A German author," he says, "rarely rests satisfied until he has equipped himself with a 'philosophy'—until he has acquired definite convictions concerning a thousand things which a Frenchman or an Englishman is willing to leave to the decision of those whom they may concern." And again: "The German critic looks for it as naturally as our own remains blind to it, and he judges the value of a novel, *ceteris paribus*, by its presence or absence, by the relevancy of its types, and by the consistency with which its philosophical purpose is carried out." Goethe struck the modern note fully in 'Wilhelm Meister,' which deals with the transformation from feudal to industrial conditions; and authors of our time have followed on the line laid down. Spielhagen de-

fines the novelist's end as "to give world-pictures—pictures of their nation and its aspirations during a certain period." He deals with national problems. Freytag similarly concerns himself with the industrial movement of his generation or with historical past conditions of the people. Auerbach, on the other hand, may fail of remembrance because he "was not a sufficiently pronounced representative of anything (unless it be Spinozism) to survive as the exponent of any particular school of thought or the chronicler of any particular phase of civilization." The same touchstone is applied to other modern authors; and consequently the value of their works as documents, to use the current phrase, on the historical and realistic side is made manifest, and their corresponding defect on the artistic side equally plain.

The study of the German Romantic school is taken up at the end, and the group of essays in which it is embodied is full of interest. The school is now remote enough to be integral, and it illustrates a period of culture and a race temperament in most instructive ways. The origin of it in the reaction of the German nature against the dry rationalism of the "Enlightenment" is clearly pointed out; its fortunes are followed in the picturesque and sorry figures of its disciples, and its literary and imaginative quality, its philosophy and its essential emptiness, are effectively rendered. Nor would the picture be complete without the glance at the society of the time which is also taken. Tieck, with his facile adaptability, his impressionable and unstable nature, is lightly drawn. Frederick Schlegel, with his Dorothea and his bumptiousness, is portrayed in bolder lines; Schleiermacher, with his Henriette, his spun-out æstheticism, his musing religious reveries, and in general the extraordinary dispersive energy of his genius for mild folly, is a unique figure; and besides there were Novalis, with his 'Blue Flower,' and Wackenroder, with his 'Heart Effusions of an Art-Loving Friar,' each destined to a curious influence over mystical temperaments. These were the main members of the group who parted on the one hand from Lessing and on the other from Goethe, and returned into mediævalism, to find the promised land in the dark ages. It was a singular phenomenon in the history of culture, and is worth attention. Prof. Boyesen has presented certain aspects of it and defined its course of development in a style neither too serious nor too contemptuous; but why he should confound the Romanticists of other lands with this erratic coterie, and in consequence question whether those who read Scott and Victor Hugo possess necessarily "an intellectual enjoyment which argues literary tastes," passes our comprehension. There is a lacuna somewhere in the argument here when he passes from historical criticism to the nature of romantic art in itself. Idealism stands or falls with the German school as little as it does with the Dey of Algiers.

GARDINER'S HISTORY OF THE GREAT CIVIL WAR.—II.

History of the Great Civil War, 1642-1649. By Samuel R. Gardiner. Vol. III., 1647-1649. Longmans, Green & Co. 1891.

WHAT is the judgment which we ought to form as to Cromwell's moral character? This is the problem with which Mr. Gardiner is, in his last volume, brought face to face. He deals with it as all who know his writings would expect, manfully and honestly. He weighs with judicial calmness the charges brought against the Puritan leader, and, with a decision not very usual with our author, he sums up for an acquittal in words every one of which deserves consideration:

"Here, as in so many other knotty matters, the thread leading out of the maze is to be found by a strict adherence to chronology. It was with no little surprise that I found one charge after another melt away as I was able to fix a date to the words or actions which had given rise to hostile comments. Thus tested, the Cromwell of Lilburne and Wildman shows himself the same man as the Cromwell of the letters and the *Clarke Papers*—no divinely inspired hero, indeed, or faultless monster, but a brave, honorable man, striving, according to his lights, to lead his countrymen into the paths of peace and godliness. The investigation which I have thus conducted is the more conclusive because, whilst it shows that Cromwell was not a hypocrite, it also shows that it was the most natural thing in the world that other men should think him to be one."

This verdict of acquittal will, to many readers, seem absolutely decisive. It is delivered by a judge in whom impartiality approaches almost to a weakness. It is the result of a searching inquiry by an investigator whose knowledge of his subject is unrivalled, and, as far as such a thing be possible, complete. It is a verdict, moreover, which claims to reconcile Cromwell's integrity of character with the honesty and intelligence of the enemies who denounced him as a hypocrite and a plotter. Every one ought, therefore, whatever be his opinion of the Protector, to acknowledge that a favorable view of Cromwell's character may henceforth be entertained by honest, sensible, and impartial critics. Nor does this concession go far enough: we must admit that the verdict delivered by Mr. Gardiner agrees with the results towards which historical research has, during the last fifty years, been leading the great body of intelligent historians. Facts and dates are, when once accurately ascertained, irrefutable; they tell their own tale. The old picture of Oliver as the plotter and the hypocrite, whose life was one long intrigue, has now become incredible. He must rank, and henceforth always will rank, with the great statesmen of the world. His care for the public good is manifest. His English patriotism is as patent as his religious fervor. His breadth of tolerance, if we judge him by the standard of his age, is at least as wonderful as his marvellous insight into the requirements of the moment. In Cromwell, as with all great English rulers, are found blended zeal for practical reform with the strongest conservative instincts. We can now see distinctly that the grand object of his policy was to save the liberties and especially the religious freedom of England, while preserving the peace and power of the country.

Each of the transactions, moreover, which cast a doubt on Cromwell's integrity, admits, if taken singly, of a favorable interpretation. The seizure of the King at Holmby House, the negotiations between the King and the Independents, Cromwell's attitude of reserve, his relation towards the army and the Parliament, his approval of Pride's Purge, the terrible energy with which he finally threw himself into carrying through the trial, condemnation, and execution of the King, are all matters which need explanation, and which can be explained without convicting Cromwell of, at any rate, more than the statecraft which public opinion holds venial in a statesman. If you are to place the Protector on the level, say, of Elizabeth, of Henry the Fourth, of Richelieu, of William the Third, of Cavour, or of Bismarck, there appears, at first sight, at any rate, no reason whatever for passing on him a severer judgment than you pass upon the other political leaders of mankind. Mr. Gardiner, we may suppose, would hold, and from his own point of view hold rightly, that his apology entitles Cromwell to a higher place in the veneration of mankind than can be claimed for most of the statesmen we have mentioned. It would be, for instance, not a happy description of even the best side of Henry the Fourth to say that the aim of his life was to lead his countrymen into the "paths of godliness."

Yet it is at this point that we come across the train of thought which suggests a doubt whether Mr. Gardiner, with all his knowledge and fairness, has spoken the last word upon the moral character of his hero. If you could place him side by side with, say, to take modern instances, Bismarck or Cavour, there would be little difficulty in pronouncing a favorable verdict on his career. He and they, as the world pretty well admits, have each served their own country with zeal and devotion. He and they have each, in the course of their career, committed acts more easily defensible by a politician than a moralist. He and they have, both in their silence and in their speech, violated at moments the rules which reverence for truth is held to impose upon men of honor and honesty in the transactions of private life. But the difficulty of the case is that Cromwell's apologists, no less than his assailants, feel instinctively that he cannot take his stand on the level of great statesmen. He either rises above or falls below Bismarck or Cavour. To understand either his position or the position of his critics we must never forget that he was a religious enthusiast and the leader of a religious party. At every stage of his career his religious convictions become apparent. No one now supposes them to have been feigned; no one thinks of Cromwell's fervor as hypocrisy; no one believes, or can believe, that he was a man of the world acting the part of a saint. But as one reads his career, narrated as it is by so lenient a judge as Mr. Gardiner, it is difficult not to come to the conclusion that the mixture of genuine religious fervor with keen worldly insight was, in the case of Cromwell, as in the case of most leaders of the religious world, unfavorable to that directness and general honesty of character which sometimes distinguishes statesmen who, at a pinch, have not scrupled to tell a good downright lie.

"No one rises so high as he who knows not whither he is going." "In these words," writes Mr. Gardiner, "Cromwell revealed the secret of his life—the refusal to adopt any definitely premeditated plan of action, and the resolution to treat each occurrence as it arose in the light vouchsafed to him when the need of action was felt." In these words of Cromwell's, and in Mr. Gardiner's comment thereon, is, we will add, revealed the secret not only of Cromwell's life, but of the ineradicable and just suspicion with which Englishmen of every class came by degrees to regard the Protector. For they are the words not, indeed, of a plotter like Louis Napoleon, whose career was one long conspiracy, but of a man of profound ambition, who believed in Providence, but also believed that Providence intended him to rise to greatness. The refusal, for example, to adopt any premeditated plan of action was, looked at from its good side, the determination not to involve himself in any far-fetched scheme of policy. But, looked at from its bad side, it meant the intention to act

for himself without regard to the obligations which bound him to friends and colleagues. The resolution, again, "to treat each occurrence as it arose in the light vouchsafed to him when the need of action was felt," is, from one point of view, nothing better than the determination to pursue with the utmost vigor any course of action which at the moment promised success, and to treat the course of events and the turn of opinion as the indications of the will of God. To critics, indeed, of the eighteenth century Cromwell's appeal to Providence, his prayers, his tears, his belief that success in battle was the visible sign of divine approval, appeared to be proofs of the commonest hypocrisy. Our present firm conviction that he was no hypocrite has led gradually to the idea that his habit of mingling religious fervor with statecraft was no evil. But to a man of sound judgment who meditates on the facts detailed in Mr. Gardiner's history, it will, however, soon become apparent that fanaticism, even when perfectly sincere, tends, when blended with statecraft, to produce not hypocrisy, but a subtle form of dishonesty. The worldly statesman for example, who held that Charles ought to be put to death because his execution was required for the safety of the nation, and the Puritan soldier who saw in the death of the King the punishment of the man of blood and a sacrifice demanded by the justice of heaven, each occupied a perfectly clear and honest position; but Cromwell, who at one moment, from considerations of statesmanship, tried hard to come to terms with the King, at another, after praying and fasting with levellers and zealots, convinced himself that the punishment of the King was a religious duty, and who at last, when the dread deed was done, fell back in his own mind—if the dramatic tale told with half belief by Mr. Gardiner be true—on the plea of "cruel necessity," occupied a position compatible neither with the brutal honesty of unscrupulous statesmanship nor with the guileless sincerity of true religion.

No doubt each critical event of Cromwell's career during the years 1647–1649 as told in Mr. Gardiner's narrative admits, when taken alone, of explanation or apology. But, when looked at as a whole, these events suggest that Cromwell, who, as a matter of fact, excited the distrust of one body of friends after another, was distrusted for the simple reason that he was untrustworthy. It is possible that no blame is to be attached to him for the characteristic misunderstanding between himself and Joyce as to the arrest of the King. It is possible that Cromwell wished to deal fairly both with the Parliament and with the army. It is possible, though to us scarcely probable, that Cromwell, who approved of Pride's Purge when the *coup d'état* had been carried out, was not (morally at least) as responsible for the real destruction of the authority of Parliament as was Napoleon for the *coup d'état* of the 18th Brumaire. It is possible that Cromwell when, at the very end of 1648, he tried to save Charles from death, and when, not a month later, he was more responsible than any other single man in the country for the execution of the King, followed a course which he sincerely believed to be compatible with the demands both of honesty and of justice. Each of these things is a possibility; but look at them altogether, and it becomes certain that Cromwell's action was influenced by a strange mixture of political unscrupulousness with religious fanaticism.

One of the great merits of Mr. Gardiner's mode of treating history is that the accuracy and sincerity of his narrative enable us to correct, if necessary, the leniency of his too charitable judgments; and in the case of Cromwell we are all but convinced by the very facts which Mr. Gardiner has laid before the world for consideration, that his keen perception of the grand side of Cromwell's character, combined with a morbid dislike to the condemnation of men whose acts admit of even possible excuse, has led him to underrate the real strength of the accusations brought against the Puritan leader. The absolute acquittal of Cromwell would be, it must be remembered, the absolute condemnation of Cromwell's contemporaries. Is it conceivable that the general distrust excited by his character and career should have been unfounded? On Mr. Gardiner's own showing, we answer this question with a distinct negative. Of Cromwell's genius and public spirit we have no doubt whatever, but we equally doubt whether the men who stood nearest to him felt, or could feel, that either his genius or his public spirit enabled them to place in him the confidence which is won not by genius but by trustworthiness. But with books no less than with men one must look for the end. Mr. Gardiner has already by his judicial narrative modified the opinions of many among his readers. The completion of his great work may bring us over to his absolute belief in the integrity of Cromwell.

SWITZERLAND.

Die Bundesverfassungen der schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft. Von Prof. Dr. C. Hilty. Berne. 1891. 8vo, 480 pp. (Also, translated into French and Italian.)

Die Anfänge der schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft. Von Prof. Dr. W. Oechsli. Berne. 1891. 8vo, 383+327 pp. (Also, translated into French.)

Schweizerbund in Schweizermund: Gründung und Aufbau der Eidgenossenschaft, dargestellt in sechsundzwanzig Hauptmundarten. Zurich. 1891. 12mo, 160 pp.

The Swiss Republic. By Boyd Winchester. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1891. 8vo, 487 pp.

Politisches Jahrbuch der schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft. Herausgegeben von Prof. Dr. C. Hilty. Band 6. Berne. 1891.

THE celebration of the six hundredth anniversary of the Swiss Confederation naturally gave rise to a vast amount of literature of a festal character, most of which will disappear with the passing of the hour. Two volumes, however, which appeared under the auspices of the Federal Government, will remain as worthy monuments of the occasion. These are the constitutional history by Prof. Hilty, and the study of origins by Prof. Oechsli. The former may be called the popular and the latter the scientific contribution of the Government to the centennial literature, for both were printed at State expense and sold at very low prices; but the term popular must not be applied in a derogatory sense, as though excluding a scientific treatment. Although intended for a wider circle of readers, the constitutional history of the period has not been vulgarized, but is exhibited in rapid movement by the hand of a master.

The first century of the Confederation is much easier to describe than the second, owing to the fact that contemporary writers were so much occupied with the foreign wars and external relations of the Swiss that they had no time to record institutions and forms of government. Prof. Hilty pauses here to make some more or less melancholy reflections: "This ignorance regarding our fathers is explained by the fact, established by a recent historian, that writers do not begin to recount the life of States till the moment of decline." This doctrine, attributed to Savigny, continues to affect the author in his *Politisches Jahrbuch*, where, in reviewing the literature of constitutional history of the year, he is pained at the amount of attention Switzerland is receiving from foreign observers. He fears that it indicates a state of decline; that the climax has been reached, and that the foreigner is but the witness of an approaching fall. Governments should be like women—the less said about them the better.

This is not the place to dispute with Savigny, but in general it may be open to question whether a given period is really one of decline, or only apparently so; and as for the foreign observer, it may be suggested that, in the case of Tacitus, the decline was on the other side, and this going abroad for political research may be evidence of uneasiness and discontent at home. Mr. Hilty now and then falls into an oratorical-hortatory vein, and there are certain marks of haste in the composition of the book, but on the whole it is an excellent work, and furnishes a rapid and complete survey of the constitutional growth of Switzerland in a pleasing form. Facsimiles of the oldest Federal Compact (1291) and of the League of 1315 are attached.

Prof. Oechsli has carefully gone over the beginnings of Swiss history anew, and given us the results of the researches of expert investigators, among whom he himself stands in the first rank. He traces step by step the colonization of the Forest Cantons, the condition of landed property at the time of the first Confederation, the feudal relations in each district, and the jurisdiction of overlords and the empire in the matter of general government. As Bluntschli has well said in the same connection, it is not a matter of indifference to know the motives of the people in forming this league. Simple rebellion does not command respect, even if successful, when not justified by motives of self-preservation and the protection of acquired rights. But we have here complete evidence of the established customary rights, touching both property and jurisdiction, which were placed in jeopardy by the surrounding Powers and principalities. Other privileges were obtained by purchase or as reward for military support, and all were tenaciously defended. The Swiss exhibited in the early periods of their history a marvellous appreciation of the weakness of their adversaries, and knew to a moment when to strike for and when to buy their advantage.

Prof. Oechsli does not go beyond the League of 1315, which followed the battle of Morgarten. The Confederation becomes at that point a recognized certainty and the period of origins complete. The immense number of details required to establish the conditions of each district and class of people precludes the possibility of making such a work attractive to the popular reader, but as an example of the scientific use of historical materials the work is excellent, and will stand as a worthy monument of the sixth centennial. The author does not ask the reader to take his statements on his own authority, but in a second part devotes more than three hundred pages to a register of citations and quotations from contemporary sources touching upon the twenty-five years of which he treats. To the same facsimiles given with Prof. Hilty's book is added a large colored map of the original cantons, prepared by Prof. Oechsli himself.

Mr. Winchester will be pained to note how little is said in these two works about William Tell. In the first-mentioned the tradition is merely given a passing glance, while in the second, the scientist, dealing with documents, has omitted that hero altogether. Mr. Winchester, however, devotes a long chapter to the narration of the story as usually known, and roundly denounces those who do not believe it.

"No one can visit the lake, the rock, the fountains, the chapel, read the story painted on the wall and tower, hear the local traditions in every man's mouth, witness the annual festivals, study the history of Switzerland, and consider the character of the people, then think of Tell as a myth, more than he would say that Switzerland and all its heroic people have been a fable," etc.

Did not Goethe and Sir James Mackintosh believe it to be true? Does not the museum at Zurich contain the veritable cross-bow of Tell, and did not the Canton of Uri, in 1760, publicly burn the book of a clergyman, and very nearly the clergyman himself, for calling the deed of Tell a Danish fable?

It is unfortunate that this essay should have been put into the book, as it has no particular connection with its surroundings, and needlessly throws suspicion upon the other observations of the author. Concerning the modern institutions of Switzerland, Mr. Winchester speaks with the authority of a person who has lived among the people, and his book is a mine of valuable information. He disclaims any attempt to treat his subject historically, and when he does occasionally refer back to origins, his judgment is not always good. The style now and then reminds one too much of the note-book, but on the whole the work is interesting. Many details on education, industry, commerce, and peasant life add to what others have written of the subject; a pleasant chapter on Bern describes the points of interest and daily scenes of that capital, and the treatment of contemporary political questions is luminous and instructive.

An interesting illustration of the diversity of language existing in Switzerland is the little book 'Schweizerbund im Schweizermund.' It is a collection of stories about the foundation of the Confederation, written in the dialects of twenty-six different localities by as many authors. Eighteen of these are varieties of German, the others being divided between French, Italian, and Romansch. The tales embody more or less the traditions of each district as to its particular part in the great drama.

Hilty's *Politisches Jahrbuch* is becoming more and more indispensable to the student of Swiss affairs. It has now entered upon its sixth year, and contains, besides valuable essays and documents upon various topics touching the history of Switzerland, a complete review of the political, legal, and social movements of the year. This "Jahresbericht" is a well-ordered report, taking up external and internal federal affairs in succession, gives a complete view of cantonal legislation of a public character, and reviews the important political literature. The question of State-rights has so recently been in the acute stage that the essay by the editor on Federal Intervention, treating the subject historically, will have more than a local interest.

Geography of Africa South of the Zambesi. By the Rev. William P. Gresswell. With three maps. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892. Pp. xii., 400. 8vo.

THE range of this book is wider than the title would seem to imply. Intended principally for use in schools and colleges, it gives in a condensed but readable form information on nearly every subject connected with South Africa on which an intelligent emigrant would need instruction. Naturally, the larger portion of the volume is devoted to an account of the general physical features of the country, the climate, the characteristics of the soil, its productions and resources, together with particular descriptions of the different political divisions and the more important towns. But there is also enough of history to give the student an intelligent idea of the relation of present conditions to those which preceded, with chapters upon the various Governments, the tenure of land, the industries, commerce, education, religion, and the native races. Although official documents and other sources are largely drawn upon for facts and statistics, this work is not a mere compilation. Much of it is the result of knowledge gained during the writer's seven years' residence in the country. A personal element, accordingly, is to be observed throughout, which lends a certain literary quality to the work, not often to be found in purely educational manuals.

The book gives also a general impression of trustworthiness. Prepared under the auspices of the Royal Colonial Institute, it is evidently not written in the interest of any emigration scheme. It aims to be, and doubtless is, a truthful picture of South Africa as it was in 1891. The disadvantages under which the country labors are set forth even more distinctly than are the inducements which it offers to the colonist. These are mainly the trying climate, the need of artificial irrigation for much of the arable land, the few and bad harbors, the want of easy communication between the coast and the interior, the inertia of the Boer, and the rapid increase of the natives. Agriculture is nearly at a standstill, the area under cultivation not having increased practically since 1875. This is partly due to the character of the soil, which generally seems to be better adapted for grazing than for cultivation. The principal reason, however, is that most of the land, in the Cape Colony at least, is tenaciously held by the Boers, who raise crops just large enough to supply their own simple wants, and allow the rest of their arable land to lie fallow. The natural consequence of this lack of energy and public spirit is that the Cape enjoys the unenviable distinction of "eating the dearest loaf in the world." There are many interesting notices of this singular people, the descendants of the original Dutch settlers with a large intermixture of French Huguenots. Here is a curious picture of one of their villages on occasion of the tri-monthly celebration of the Naacht-Maal, or Lord's Supper.

"Huge ox-wagons are drawn up in the public 'outspan' or square, the oxen and horses are turned out to feed on the adjoining commons, and the owners buy their market supplies for the next three months. Public auctions are held, meetings are advertised, and the storesman, as well as the strolling packman or German Jew, have a busy and profitable time. The banks advance money on mortgage, the client consults his local lawyer on some legal point, confirmations are held, marriages are celebrated, and the stoeps and verandas of these villages are full for a time of a busy gossiping crowd, gathered from almost incredible distances."

The most serious problem which the Africander has to solve is that of the natives. Under the Pax Britannica the increase in their numbers has been very great. In Natal and two small districts to the south, for instance, a native population of less than 10,000 in 1839 had grown in 1889 to nearly a million. "The great uninhabited wastes," in the East Coast region, "that every traveller of half a century ago described, are now teeming with human life." This "alarming" increase, it should be said, is apparently confined to the Bantû or Kaffir race, which Mr. Gresswell regards as of a higher type than the Red Indians or Maories, and, possibly, the Hindu and Malay races. In many parts of the country they form a very valuable class of the population, showing a remarkable energy and industry. In 1869, says an eye witness (a former Cape Minister), the Basutos "were starving savages, and there was not a trader's shop in the territory. In 1879, ten years later, the country was filled with traders, several of whom had stocks of manufactured goods from £20,000 to £50,000 in value, while clothes, saddles, ploughs, and other articles of European manufacture found ready sale." The best cultivated tract in Cape Colony is the Herschel division, inhabited by some 22,000 Kaffirs of a peculiarly peaceable and law-abiding character. "Very few police are required to keep this district in order. In 1880 there were only four native constables in it. There are no large towns or villages containing European inhabitants, only a sprinkling of traders and storekeepers—230 in all. As an example of what may be done by the natives, left almost entirely to themselves, but with the light reins of European jurisdiction held over them, Herschel is extremely interesting." It is not impossible that the future of a great part of Southern and Central Africa may lie in the hands of this interesting race.

Mr. Gresswell has chapters on Mashonaland and the Dutch republics, which contain nothing especially noteworthy. A series of thirty-two appendices gives the latest information on many of the topics treated in the text, as well as the Anglo-Portuguese Treaty and the charter of the British South African Company. There are three good maps and an excellent index.

The Siege of Lucknow: A Diary. By the Honorable Lady Inglis. London: James R. Osgood, McIlvaine & Co; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE English will never be tired, whatever other people may be, of hearing of the Siege of Lucknow. That defence of merely nominal lines made up of frail buildings and a few spadesful of earth against overwhelming numbers by a handful of men encumbered with a crowd of women and children, and at last short of provisions, was the most striking episode of the great mutiny, and it is not wonderful that legends such as that of the Highland bagpipes have been generated by the heroism of the garrison and the rapture of the relief. Lady Inglis is the widow of the officer who succeeded to the command on the death of Sir Henry Lawrence, and her Diary is supplemented by the notes of Captain Birch, Sir Henry's aide-de-camp. The interesting part of the volume, however, is the Diary itself, which gives a woman's experiences and feelings during months of mortal peril. It is remarkably calm, and so seems to have been the demeanor of the besieged, even of the women and children; though, as Cawnpore had shown, the most horrible fate, in case of the failure of their feeble defences, awaited them. The regular routine of life is kept up, with the ordinary meals, or the semblance of them; tea-parties take place; visits are exchanged. There is reading aloud, or an attempt at it. The religious services are maintained and the Communion is adminis-

tered. The children's plays and amusements harmonize with what is going on: they would make balls of earth, and, throwing them against the walls, say they were shells bursting. They slept soundly in the midst of the heaviest cannonading, and never appeared frightened.

In this coolness and freedom from fluster we have probably the key to the escape of the whole Anglo-Indian community and of the empire itself from the extremity of peril into which, partly by imprudence and mismanagement, they had been brought. It cannot be said that the women add morally to the embarrassments of the garrison; yet they are not unconscious of their danger. They debate the question whether, in case of the enemy's getting in, self-destruction would be justifiable. Some of them had poison ready for that purpose. Lady Inglis held that it would not be right, and that, "if the trial came, our God who sent it would put it into our hearts how to act." The fidelity of the native soldiers who formed a part of the little garrison is also very worthy of note. When at last some of them deserted, it was because they could no longer endure the deprivation of opium. Prohibitionists will be pleased to hear that the giving out of rum was followed by an improvement of conduct among the British soldiers.

The Diary was worth printing even after so long an interval. It sheds a ray of comparatively pleasant light on a dark and dreadful page of history.

Diary of George Mifflin Dallas. Edited by Susan Dallas. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Miss Dallas has added to the diary of her father at the Court of Russia, which was published recently in the *Century*, his diary at the Court of St. James, and has introduced the volume by a prefatory note from the hand of one of the author's friends, Mr. M. Russell Thayer. The attractive illustrations which adorned the magazine publication have, unfortunately, been omitted, leaving only a portrait of Mr. Dallas for the frontispiece. While there is a certain interest attached to the pictures of diplomatic life sketched by the author, in what are, for America, fairly remote historical times, it cannot be conceded that his Diary is one of the epoch-making kind, which will be handed down to posterity because of the comprehensive view that it affords of people and things. If we consider the divisions of the Diary separately, it will be seen that this proceeds from different causes, which, however, operate with similar effect. Of both sections one objection holds good—the entries are too fragmentary to permit of the reader combining them into a comprehensible history, even of the brief periods which they cover. The author's knowledge of people, their connections and relations, is too imperfect to be illuminating to the reader who is in search of information; and his descriptions of festivals, court ceremonies, and the like are incomplete, so far as the mere seeker of amusement's aims are concerned, even when they are not also lacking in adequate understanding of the significance of the occasion.

This is notably the case with his account of Russian matters. Passing over the inaccuracies of names and places, phonetically spelled, which might have been avoided by competent revision, we find that he is careless in observation and in inquiring the meaning of what he sees. For example, he writes: "The river Neva rose to-day, under the influence of a strong wind from the southeast, three feet higher than I have yet noticed it to be." And again: "A strong northwesterly wind has brought down the ice from Lake Ladoga." Both these statements involve physical impossibilities, since the river can rise only under the influence of a westerly or southwesterly wind, and the ice must be driven out by a breeze in which east figures to a marked degree. On April 7, 1838, Mr. Dallas notes down this item:

"The day is kept by the Russians in a peculiar manner, and apparently for the especial benefit of children. The Gostenadvor [meaning the *Gostinny Dvor*] has been surrounded by booths for vending toys and nicknackeries during the last three days, and the throng there to-day was great. Among other things bought and sold are switches of a shrub I could not recognize, seemingly just vegetating, and which are said to be accompanied in their use by good luck to the person flagellated."

The explanation of this mysterious note is interesting, and might easily have been discovered by a little investigation. The nicknackeries are sold for cheap Easter "eggs," or presents, ten days before Easter; the switches of the unknown shrub are the pussy willows, which are used as palms on Palm Sunday, immediately following the popular fair. The flagellation is merely a supplementary superstition. The next entry is equally baffling, though a few words would have informed the reader that the Court festival described under date of April 16 is the famous Easter service at the palace. These are only a few of the many instances in which the writer does not understand what he is describing, as was natural, considering his inexperience. Nevertheless, the narratives of splendid entertainments at the Russian capital, at a time when thirty-one days from New York was phenomenally swift travelling for letters, are very interesting to those who are not sufficiently posted to notice the omissions.

The English part of the diary, covering three and one-half years, must necessarily suffer by comparison with the published diaries of noted Englishmen who were familiar, for a lifetime, with the social and political questions which Mr. Dallas handles as a stranger. Occasionally we find an entertaining anecdote, such as the first use made of his official seal by a new Lord Chancellor, to secure his own retiring pension in case of accidents, and the like. The incident with the negro at the International Statistical Congress, on July 16, 1860, Mr. Dallas's forecasts and comments on the exciting events in America between 1857 and 1861, and the glimpse which we get of Motley, the historian, furnish the most important items of interest in this section of the work.

A little competent proof-reading would have freed the book from many curious typographical errors, as well as from the peculiarities in the Russian words which sometimes render them almost unrecognizable. The diaries would not be accepted, by either Englishmen or Russians, as additions to their knowledge or literature, which is the crucial test for such productions. We may therefore consign the book to the list of temporarily interesting works, and decline to enter into further discussion of the reasons why it cannot be justly regarded as a contribution to standard history.

Old Touraine: The Life and History of the Famous Châteaux of France. By Theodore Andrea Cook, B.A., sometime scholar of Wadham College, Oxford. 2 vols. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons.

In Mr. Cook's discourse the thread is architectural, but the interest is historical. The book is in plan an itinerary of the great châteaux that line the Loire from Blois to Saumur —Chambord, Blois, Amboise, Chenonceaux, Loches, Langeais, and the rest—but in reality it is much more and better than that. Most of the principal personages and events of French history in the long period from the first Plantagenets to Henry IV. are shown more or less summarily, and, when the stage admits it, are well displayed. There are effective pictures or glimpses of Louis XI. and Louis XII., Francis I., Louise of Savoy, and Catherine de Médecis, the two Marguerites of Navarre, Henry IV., Coligny, Bourbon, Montmorency, the Dukes of Guise, and a host of lesser personages; of festivities, conspiracies, assassinations; and now and then some imposing foreigner, like Gian Galeoazzo Visconti, or Ludovico Sforza, or Leonardo da Vinci, crosses the stage. It is surprising, when we see it told together, how much that was important to France and to the world went on within this narrow district and these royal châteaux. If we were to complain, it would be that Mr. Cook's stage is too crowded. We get a kaleidoscopic succession of people and things, and an affluence of detail which all his care cannot save from confusion. The scene shifts from château to château in such historical sequence as is possible, but the order of history is not geographical; the characters are always coming and going though they are dismissed, turning up in one scene after they have died in another. This does no harm to the student who knows them all and where they belong, but is an embarrassment to the general reader, who would carry away a clearer impression if much of the detail were left out, though the book might be incomplete as an itinerary. The author adds something to the difficulty at times by the sort of indirect allusiveness that used to make Mr. Freeman's enemies blaspheme. The trouble with the allusive style is that no one remembers everything, and what one remembers another forgets, or perhaps has not read. Allusion saves space, and, if judiciously restrained, is a stimulus to the reader; but to the writer it is an indulgence that calls for self-control.

The architectural descriptions are slight and secondary, based on few and well-known authorities. The book-making is excellent; the half-tone illustrations of the buildings and the reproductions of Miss (or Mrs. ?) Cook's capital drawings are good and well chosen, and the author has done well to repeat the map and index at the end of each volume.

Record of Scientific Progress for the Year 1891. By Robert Grimshaw. Cassell Co.

This volume is mainly taken up with engineering matter of no special interest from a scientific point of view; and even here the record of progress is a miserably careless one. The only sciences, properly so called, which receive any notice at all, are physics and astronomy. Now it so happens that the year 1891 was a great year for astronomers, and more general attention was directed towards this science than towards any other. In the first place, there was the discovery by Mr. S. C. Chandler of the 427-day period in the variation of the latitude—a fact which attracted the attention of all scientific men, and which will lead to the more accurate ascertainment of a good many other facts. Second, there were observations relating to the question whether the planet Venus has a period of rotation exceeding 200 days, or of about one day, as previously held. Third, there were the extraor-

dinary discoveries in the history of Babylonian astronomy by Fathers Epping and Strassmaier. There were, besides, important discoveries in stellar photography. Will it be believed that this pretended 'Record of Scientific Progress' does not mention one of these things? Dr. Grimshaw says: "There seems to have been during 1891 but little astronomical matter worthy of special chronicle." On the contrary, there is probably no scientific man who has not remarked the exceptionally great general interest attaching to the astronomical work of 1891.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Rev. Lyman. The Evolution of Christianity. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Bell, Clark. Medico-Legal Studies. Vol. 2. The Author.
Berg, Louis de C. Safe Building. Vol. 2. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $5.
Black, H. C. A Treatise on the Laws Regulating the Manufacture and Sale of Intoxicating Liquors. St. Paul: West Publishing Co.
Canning, J. D. Connecticut River Reeds: Poems. Boston: J. G. Cupples. $1.25.
Cawein, Madison. Moods and Memories. Putnams. $2.
Chandler, Prof. F. W. Construction Details. Boston: Heliotype Printing Co.
Claretie, Jules. All for Jack. Rand, McNally & Co. 50 cents.
Dahn, Felix. What is Love? Chicago: N. C. Smith.
Daudet, Alphonse. L'Obstacle. Paris: E. Flammarion; New York: Westermann. $1.
De Tinseau, Léon. Love Knows No Law. Worthington Co. 25 cents.
Ewart, H. C. Toilers in Art. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Flinn, J. J. Standard Guide to Chicago. 2d ed. Chicago: Standard Guide Co. $1.
Gardner, Prof. Percy. New Chapters in Greek History: Historical Results of Recent Excavations in Greece and Asia Minor. Putnams. $5.
Gibbins, H. de B. English Social Reformers. London: Methuen & Co.
Going, C. B. Summer-Fallow. Putnams. $1.
Gordon, Julien. Marionettes. Cassell. 50 cents.
Grinnell, J. B. Men and Events of Forty Years. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Hardy, Thomas. Tess of the D'Urbervilles. New and revised ed. Harpers.
Helen Brent, M. D.: A Social Study. Cassell. 75 cents.
Hensel, Octavia. Imperia: A Story from the Court of Austria. Buffalo: C. W. Moulton.
Hobbes, J. O. The Sinner's Comedy. Cassell. 50 cents.
Hudson, W. C. On the Rack. Cassell. 50 cents.
Hutton, A. W. Cardinal Manning. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Learned, Marion D. The Saga of Walther of Aquitaine. Baltimore: Publication Agency of Johns Hopkins University.
Le Sage, A. R. The Adventures of Gil Blas. Worthington Co.
MacCabe, J. A. Hints for Language Lessons, and Plans for Grammar Lessons. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35 cents.
Marshall, Emma. Bristol Bells; A Story of the Eighteenth Century. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Memoirs of Baron de Marbot. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.
Normann, H. Politisches Konversations-Lexikon. Stuttgart: Levy & Müller; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Norton, Prof. C. E. The Divine Comedy of Dante Alighieri. III. Paradise. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Parmele, Mary. Answered in the Negative. Parmele & Chaffee. 50 cents.
Parsons, Rev. Reuben. Some Lies and Errors of History. Notre Dame, Ind.: *Ave Maria* Office.
Russell, W. C. Alone on a Wide, Wide Sea. John A. Taylor & Co. 50 cents.
Saltus, Edgar. Imperial Purple. Chicago: Morrill, Higgins & Co.
Sanborn, Mary F. It Came to Pass. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Sweet, A. A New English Grammar, Logical and Historical. Part I., Introduction, Phonology, and Accidence. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Swett, Sophie. Flying Hill Farm. Harpers.
Symonds, J. A., and Margaret. Our Life in the Swiss Highlands. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
The Fate of Fenella. Cassell. $1.
The Kaleidoscope. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Thurber, Samuel. Select Essays of Addison. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 80 cents.
Underhill, G. E. Plutarch's Lives of the Gracchi. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Valera, J. Don Braulio. Appletons.
Weed, A. R. Business Law. Revised ed. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.10.
Zimmerman, G. A. Deutsch in Amerika. Beiträge zur Geschichte der Deutsch-Amerikanischen Literatur. I. Episch-lyrische Poesie. Chicago: Ackermann & Eyller. $3.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 26, 1892.

The Week.

THE Democratic conventions of May 18 swept away the last traces of the forlorn Hill movement. We doubt if even Hill himself is able to regard his candidacy as being any longer alive. Even Georgia, where there has been for two years a systematic and persistent effort on foot to work up sentiment in his favor, elected a solid Cleveland delegation to Chicago. The editor of the Atlanta *Constitution*, the most devoted Hill organ that the country has had, was defeated as a delegate, and the editor of the Atlanta *Journal*, a Cleveland paper which has grown to power and prosperity in the State by opposing the Hill organ's course, was elected in preference. Georgia was the objective point of Hill's Southern tour, and if he has not a following there, he has none in any part of the country. The California Democratic Convention, which showed signs of a Hill sentiment on the 17th, developed an irresistible Cleveland sentiment the next day and selected a Cleveland delegation. The South Carolina and North Carolina Conventions were controlled by the Farmers' Alliance, and the former declared against Cleveland because he is in favor of sound finance and honest money. They are not for Hill, whatever else they may favor, and can be depended upon to give the electoral votes of their States to the Democratic candidate, no matter who he may be. So far as they denounce Cleveland as the opponent of the demands of the Farmers' Alliance, they strengthen him before the country and increase the prospects for his nomination. Eight of the North Carolina delegates are for Cleveland, and it is probable that all of them will vote for him in the Convention. Indeed, his nomination is now as much of a foregone conclusion as any future political event can be. He not only has in his favor an overwhelming majority of all delegates thus far chosen, but he is the only candidate who has any organized following whatever, or whose candidacy is a positive force in the situation.

The movement to thrust Harrison aside and nominate Blaine at Minneapolis, week after next, appears to be stronger to-day than ever before. It has the active and open support of Chairman Clarkson of the Republican National Committee, Quay, Platt, and a host of minor bosses in their respective States. It plays upon the enthusiasm for Blaine which was manifested in every Republican State convention, including even those which endorsed Harrison most loudly. It profits by the extraordinary friendlessness of Harrison, and the singular lack of admiration for the man or for his Administration among the delegates who nominally support him. Finally, it enlists the warmest efforts of the host of disappointed office-seekers—an army which must grow larger and more vindictive every four years so long as the spoils system is maintained. All this, it must be admitted, makes a combination of forces the strength of which it would be foolish to underestimate.

It would be equally foolish, however, to jump to the conclusion that Blaine will be nominated. National conventions are apt to be impressionable gatherings, and one who remembers such an incident as the nomination of Horatio Seymour in 1868 realizes that anything is possible to a body which sometimes narrowly escapes being a mob, surrounded and excited by a still larger mob. But, as a rule, there is a sober second thought, even in a national convention of nearly a thousand men, which makes itself felt. There are two objections to the scheme of nominating Blaine under the existing conditions, either of which ought to prove fatal. One is the fact that he is physically disqualified alike for a campaign and for an election—so obviously and notoriously unfit to run, in point of health, that it seems preposterous that any one should suggest the idea. A party which should nominate for President a broken-down old man, who has been unable to discharge the duties of a Cabinet officer half of the time during the last year, would be fearfully handicapped. This would be true if the invalid had no other disqualification than that of his poor health. But there is a second objection to Blaine's acceptance of the nomination which is no less serious. It would involve charges of disingenuousness, double-dealing, and treachery, which could not be met, and which would cost him many thousands of votes. In short, the nomination of Blaine would be simple madness; and while Clarkson, Quay, Platt & Co. might be capable of it, we shall not believe that a national convention of 900 men from all parts of the United States will perpetrate so gross a blunder until we see it actually done.

The Republican Senate has passed the River and Harbor Bill in substantially the same form as it was sent over by the Democratic House. Both parties thus share the blame for the reckless extravagance involved. A Republican President must soon decide whether he will also become responsible for what, considering the condition of the Treasury, is a gross outrage upon the taxpayers. The bill ought to be vetoed as a matter of principle, and this is a case where policy dictates the same course that principle demands.

Senator Cockrell of Missouri talked to some purpose last week when he reviewed the appropriations of money made or to be made by the present Congress, in comparison with those made by the last Congress. The first point made by him was that the present Congress cannot repeal the laws of the last Congress or of any former Congress; nor can it fail to appropriate the money to carry out those laws. For example, the pension legislation of the last Congress has carried the appropriation for that particular purpose from $123,000,000 to $142,000,000. Here is an increase of $19,000,000. Besides this the steamship subsidies have to be paid now for the first time, and an appropriation will be needed for the French spoliation claims. The sugar bounties must be paid, of course, as long as the bounty law continues. This item, however, was embraced in the appropriations of the last Congress. The real Billion-Dollar Congress, in short, is the one which made a billion dollars necessary to meet the public expenditures.

It is difficult to see how Congress can avoid passing the bill introduced by Senator Chandler of New Hampshire to authorize Mr. Austin Corbin and his associates to buy or procure a fleet of fast ocean steamships, and have them put under the American flag on the same conditions as those granted to the Inman steamers *City of Paris* and *City of New York*. Mr. Chandler's bill provides that the vessels so acquired shall be of not less than 7,000 tons, and capable of a speed of nineteen knots an hour, and that for each such vessel acquired abroad the company shall build one of equal or greater capacity and speed in an American shipyard. This bill is identical in principle with the one which passed the Senate a few days ago by a vote of 41 to 10. It offers new employment to American shipbuilders and workingmen, and it really promises what we have so long been striving after, namely, the restoration of the American flag in a respectable way on the high seas. Now let us see who are the real friends of the flag and the true advocates of such restoration. Mr. Corbin is able to carry out his financial undertakings, and we presume that he has not asked Mr. Chandler to push this bill merely for the fun of the thing.

The authoritative announcement that the counsel of the United States in the Bering Sea arbitration are to be ex-Minister Phelps, Mr. James C. Carter, and Judge Blodgett of Chicago, shows that our case is to be in competent hands. It also indicates that the Administration now recognizes, if it has not done so hitherto, that what the Board of Arbitration will require will be solid arguments based upon the recognized canons of international

law, and not a series of patriotic war-whoops. On May 18 it looked as if the latter mode of argument were to be the one adopted by Mr. Blaine, for we read in the *Tribune* of that day a despatch from Philadelphia, which ran as follows:

"It was announced here yesterday that Secretary Blaine had appointed, as junior counsel for the United States before the Bering Sea arbitrators, Russell Duane of this city, and has sent him a large retaining fee. Mr. Duane was a member of the class of 1891 in the law school of the University of Pennsylvania, and delivered the law oration at the commencement last June. The subject was 'The Case of the *Sayward*,' and the paper ably reviewed the whole controversy over the seal fisheries. The address was sent to Mr. Blaine, and is said to have made such an impression on him that this appointment is the direct result."

We have not seen the oration of this mature jurist, but we venture to assert that the portions of it which made such a deep impression on the legal mind of the Secretary of State consisted of shrill affirmations that if all the precedents were against the contention of this country, it was only so much the worse for them, and it was time a new set was made all around. The passing by of this legal giant for such a man as Mr. Carter is probably another instance of the President's interfering in his petty way to overrule Mr. Blaine's brilliant schemes. The international tribunal has certainly suffered an irreparable loss in being deprived of the privilege of listening to the argument of a lawyer less than one year away from his graduation.

The decision of the United States Supreme Court in the "party-rate" case helps to clear up one of the perplexities in transportation. Discrimination in the fixing of passenger or freight schedules has been one of the great causes of the enormous development of our railway traffic. The principle is a simple one in theory, though difficult to apply in practice. It consists in this, that each article should be charged for transportation exactly what that transportation is worth to its owners. Under this adjustment dry goods are discriminated from coal, and the charges of each accommodated to its own trade conditions. Thus the largest possible movement in each commodity is encouraged, with the result to the railway that it makes more aggregate profit than if it carried a small volume of traffic at an average or high rate. The Inter-State Commission has itself to thank for the decision against its contention. Its position seemed to be principally that the discrimination was unlawful in itself, and not because the terms were unjust. The opinion of the United States Supreme Court leaves open the whole subject of the justice or injustice of charging one man more than another under dissimilar circumstances. The field still left to the Inter-State Commission is a large one, and one, too, wherein the public needs the help of such a special body. Under repeated decisions against its contentions of late, the Commission may be inclined to feel that its usefulness has been much curtailed, but this is far from being the case. Unjust discriminations between one shipper and another for exactly similar services are only too common. If the Commission, turning from questions of abstract tariffs, can find some remedy for rate-cutting, it will deserve well of the whole commercial public.

Almost the last step in the process of making husband and wife not one flesh, so far as property is concerned, has just been taken by the Legislature of New York. Up to the middle of this month the law was that a married woman might contract as if unmarried with any person except her husband, but since that time contracts between husband and wife are lawful. There is nothing now to hinder the formation of ordinary business partnerships between matrimonial partners, and as such partnerships were already, to a certain extent, recognized by the courts, it is, perhaps, as well that all uncertainty as to their validity should be removed by statute. Whether it is desirable that the estates of married women should be subjected to the severe law of partnership liability may still be questioned, but there is little probability that the tendency to do away with the old incidents of coverture will be reversed. The manner in which this change in our law, which is obviously of very great importance, was brought about may seem a little remarkable to students of abstract jurisprudence. A lawyer writes to the New York *Law Journal* that he had observed that the law imposed certain partnership liabilities upon married women, and that it occurred to him that they ought to enjoy corresponding rights; whereupon he drafted such a bill as he thought would accomplish this result, and had it introduced at Albany, where it was enacted by the Legislature. Without questioning either the motives or the wisdom of the author of the act, we must say that it is not an altogether satisfactory state of affairs when fundamental changes in the law can be accomplished by individual citizens in so summary a manner.

When any important question is to come before the Presbyterian General Assembly, the election of Moderator is usually made a test of the strength of parties. If the vote at Portland on Thursday has any bearing on the Briggs controversy, it shows only, what everybody knew, that the Professor's opponents are in a large majority. No distinct issue was made, yet the Moderator chosen was the one picked out by Princeton, and is known to be a stiff conservative. Whether the merits of the famous case will come directly before this Assembly may be doubted. There seem to be good technical reasons against the power of the Assembly to take jurisdiction of the question immediately. Yet it is altogether likely that the majority will find some means of putting a seal of condemnation on the doctrines which the Briggs men either advocate or ask to have tolerated. In so doing it is certain that they would express the sentiment of a great majority of their denomination.

The report on church-going, read before the annual meeting of the Congregational churches of Massachusetts last week, has already received much attention, and is sure to receive more. This is not so much on account of the completeness of the report as of its suggestiveness. The facts reported do not begin to cover the whole field, and the causes given for the admitted decline in church-going are often only more or less vague and unverified guesses. But the important thing is the recognition thus made by an important denomination of the fact that the old test of the moral condition of the people —their church-going habits—is no longer an infallible one. If it were to be applied rigidly to Massachusetts, that State would be proved, on the strength of this report, to have alarmingly retrograded towards paganism during the last fifty years. But other good tests show that this is not the case. The assumption that church-going is always and of itself moral, while non-church-going is similarly immoral, appears to underlie this report just as it does many other discussions of the subject; but the state of things brought out in the report shows that such an assumption cannot safely be made. Not all, at any rate, of the wide variety of recreative alternatives shown to be now adopted by people in place of the former sole intellectual and æsthetic Sunday occupation, can be inferred to be of a necessarily harmful social effect.

The Association of American Authors certainly starts off with the great promise said to attach to movements of unnoticed and almost despised beginnings. We have seen no signs that publishers are struck by it with consternation, feeling that at last a strong hand is to hold their tyranny and avarice in check, nor that, on the other hand, the race of oppressed writers is hailing the birth-hour of their freedom. There was a certain ominousness in the fact, made known at the meeting for organization, that a society of similar name and of partly similar aims had been in existence in this country for more than a year without having come under the notice of the general public, or even of the majority of the specially interested authors who lent their names to the new enterprise. Will it be the fate of the latter to lead a like mute and inglorious life? The answer will depend upon the reality of the alleged grievances of authors and the acuteness with which they are felt—on both of which points the information of the Society does not seem to be as conclusive as could be wished—and upon the additional question whether

writers as such have enough in common to furnish a genuine bond of union such as is assumed to exist.

The London *Economist* of May 7 has a very sharp article in condemnation of Mr. Goschen's course in reference to the international bimetallic conference. It says that the Bank of England will *not* consent to substitute silver for gold to the extent of one-fifth of its reserve, or to any other extent, and that if the Bank itself would consent, the business community and Parliament would not. If Mr. Goschen wants a test of public opinion on this point, it says, let him bring forward his bill to renew the Bank's charter, which is about to expire. "And that or some other early opportunity," it adds, "should certainly be taken of putting a stop to misrepresentations which are placing this country in an essentially false position as regards the proposed Conference." It really looks as though the Salisbury Ministry had "put its foot in it" in two places—in the matter of silver as well as in the matter of protection.

Lord Salisbury is prone to make trouble for his supporters whenever he delivers a speech, but his performance at Hastings on Wednesday week was an almost incredible piece of political folly. England, he declared, was suffering from the protective tariffs of other nations. They were excluding her from their markets and trying to kill her trade. They were negotiating among themselves and obtaining concessions from one another, but "none is anxious about the favor of Great Britain, because Great Britain has stripped herself of the armor and weapons with which the battle is to be fought." England's attitude "in regarding it disloyal to the glorious and sacred doctrines of free trade to levy duties on anybody for the sake of the good we get thereby, may be noble," he sarcastically observed, "but it is not businesslike." If England wants to hold her own in the conflict of tariffs, she must be prepared to refuse nations that have hostile tariffs access to her markets.

Apparently at this point Lord Salisbury was startled at the length to which he had gone, for he at once added that he was not prepared to inflict dangerous wounds upon England in order to punish other countries. He would not venture to inflict such dangerous wounds as would be caused by raising the price of food and raw materials, and, therefore, it was not practicable to exclude the products of the United States. Still, he seems to have thought, if it would not be wise to inflict dangerous wounds upon England's prosperity, there was a chance to administer some moderate cuts and slashes. Duties might be imposed upon wines, and silk, and gloves, and laces, and in this way access might be secured to the neighboring markets. The idea that favorable markets might be gained if England would inflict some slight wounds on herself, irresistibly suggests the proceedings of the prophets of Baal, who "cut themselves after their manner with knives and lancets, till the blood gushed out upon them." Of appeals like this to the modern Baal, Protection, it will probably be true that there is "neither voice, nor any to answer, nor any that regarded." The effect of this speech upon the Liberal-Unionists cannot fail to be demoralizing. They have put up with a good deal in acting with the Tories, but they can hardly put up with such doctrine as this. As the *Chronicle* says, "the Gladstonians ought formally to pray Lord Salisbury to deliver a series of addresses until the brink of the election."

A very gloomy picture of the finances of the Australasian colonies is drawn in the *Investors' Review*. Fifteen years ago these seven States had a population of 2,400,000, and a public debt of £70,000,000. To-day their population is not quite 4,000,000 while their debt is nearly £200,000,000. But, in addition to the debt of the States, the *Review* contends, there should be reckoned the debt of municipalities and other corporations, so far as it is held abroad, as well as British deposits in colonial banks. Including indebtedness of this kind, the total is made to be £280,000,000, or £280 per family of four persons; nothing approaching which is to be found elsewhere. It is admitted that this debt is to a great extent represented by productive works, but, in spite of the revenue derived from these, the rate of taxation in 1890 was over £3 per head—10s. more than the average of both local and imperial taxation in the United Kingdom. Undoubtedly the trade of these countries is very large and their apparent prosperity very great. But the *Review* argues that both traffic and prosperity depend upon the constant supply of new capital. So long as £8,000,000 or £10,000,000 of new capital could be borrowed every year it was hard not to show signs of prosperity. But capitalists have had a fright, and borrowing must be suspended for a time. If prosperity continues, it will establish beyond question the wisdom of the borrowing policy; but the present signs are that it will not continue.

It is instructive to contrast the financial condition of Australasia with that of a country in one sense younger, in another sense older. In 1861 the new kingdom of Italy assumed £125,000,000 of debt previously contracted by its constituent elements. In 1867 the debts of Lombardy and Venice were added, as well as the debt incurred in the war of 1866, and in 1870 the debt of the Papal States was assumed. In this way the debt of the kingdom was increased to more than £200,000,000, but in 1872 the total amounted to £360,000,000, the difference being chiefly due to expenditures for railways and other public works. Including railway, provincial, and communal debts, the total burden is now not far from £600,000,000, involving an annual charge of £24,000,000. Since 1878, according to Signor Rudini, £73,000,000 have been spent upon railways by the State, an operation which he compares to that of a farmer who borrows money at 6 or 7 per cent. in order to improve land so as to get a return of 2 per cent. Here, then, is one important difference between Australasia and Italy. The Italian railways pay a very small return upon the capital invested in them, while the colonial railways pay upon the whole a large return. The other important difference is of course in military expenditure. In Italy the debt and the war establishment account for two-thirds of the expenditure, while one-tenth of it is on public works, so that little more than one-fifth is applicable to the civil administration. The burden of debt per head is considerably less than in the countries of Australasia, being perhaps £18 to £20, but the rate of taxation can be hardly less than £2 per head. Italy has been extravagant in her military establishment and in public works; Australasia has been extravagant only in the latter respect. In the latter case the extravagance may prove to be not a serious matter; but in the case of Italy there is no future development to count upon.

One of the most discouraging features in the present political position of Brazil is the persistence of the military government which has practically existed ever since the so-called republic was set up. The army and its commander-in-chief are really the rulers of Brazil to-day. The country has never, of course, had a great degree of self-government, or developed a large number of men familiar with public affairs and capable of conducting them according to the recognized methods of civil government. Yet it had a few such—men who had made a name for themselves as financiers or administrators—but they are now all retired to private life. We believe it is safe to say that not a single member of the present Cabinet has had more than a limited experience and reputation in governmental matters. With the trained men sent below and a lot of green hands in command, it is no wonder that the course of the ship is so erratic and alarming. The *Rio News* of April 19 says on this point:

"Up to the present moment, Brazil has been nothing more than a military dictatorship, and it is now rapidly drifting into a hopeless state of anarchy. Its Constitution, notwithstanding its fine phrases, is a mere fiction, for there has not been a day since its promulgation which has not seen it disregarded and broken. It is inoperative and dead, for every one of its fundamental principles regarding the Presidency, the States, the finances, and personal guarantees, is disregarded and broken. Thus far the effort to create a republic has been a total failure."

A LESSON IN SELF-GOVERNMENT.

In one of the most striking passages of his 'American Commonwealth,' Mr. Bryce comments upon the alternation of despondency and hope aroused by the spectacle of our political life. "A hundred times," he says, "in writing this book have I been disheartened by the fact I was stating; a hundred times has the recollection of the abounding strength and vitality of the nation chased away these tremors." There is in the American people "a reserve of force and patriotism more than sufficient to sweep away all the evils which are now tolerated, and to make the politics of the country worthy of its material grandeur and of the private virtue of its inhabitants." It is good to dwell upon this judgment. There is a continuous stream of invective poured out against our rich men and our educated men because of their neglect of their political duties, but much of this invective is indiscriminate and unjustified. Many of these men are as deeply concerned in the welfare of the country as their critics, and they would gladly devote a large share of their time and energy to its service if they saw how it was to be done. They have political strength and virtue, but it is held in reserve, as Mr. Bryce says. And it is held in reserve partly because the demand for it is generally not very great, but chiefly because of the difficulty felt in applying it.

This difficulty is not of a novel character: it is as old as human society. It is the difficulty of meeting organized force with unorganized force. In human society nothing great can be accomplished by individual effort; there must be combination. The familiar lesson of history is that of the success of the organized few against the unorganized many; and the progress of liberty consists largely in the development among the many of the capacity for organization. Where this capacity exists or is developed, self-government, as it is called, becomes possible; and where it is not manifested, nothing but despotism can prevail. That this capacity is rare or is not easily developed is proved by the monotonous annals of oppression. There have always been enough men of virtue and wisdom in every considerable State to secure good government if they acted together; but they have seldom been able to unite, and the defeat of isolated and sporadic attempts at revolution has served to increase the power of despots.

We have learned in the course of the century which has passed that representative government is not necessarily free from the vices of despotism. Apparently, when the people choose their rulers, oppression is impossible; but the old difficulty reappears in connection with the machinery of choice. A great number of people, occupying an extensive territory, cannot meet for consultation as to whom they will choose to rule over them. There must be a smaller number, a manageable mass, which shall undertake this duty, and this smaller number becoming, after a time, thoroughly organized, naturally becomes the true governing body. In its hands is the party organization, the machinery of nomination and of election. This is our present condition. We have the forms of liberty, it is true. Any citizen may vote for whom he chooses as a ruler, and generally his vote will be counted. But practically he is shut up to a choice between the nominees of two great parties—that is, to the election of nominal rulers selected by the real ones.

The ordinary remedy prescribed for this evil is to "attend the primaries." But the remedy does not begin far enough back. A sprinkling of discontented but disorganized voters at a primary is as helpless as a mob before the police. There must be a prior organization in order to decide upon a fixed course of action; and just here is our difficulty. It is an immense undertaking to form a political organization that shall be effective. It not only must consist of a large number of men, but must exist in a large number of places. There must be a clearly defined purpose in order to make the organization coherent; and every one who has witnessed an attempt to start a "movement" of any kind has been convinced of the truth of the proverb, "Many men, many minds." Even if a common purpose exists, it is an enormous labor to find it out. There must be numberless conferences and consultations, and, in the rush of modern events, if too much time is spent in learning the possibility of organization and determining its scope, the time for action will have passed.

In the light of these principles, the movement that is now taking place in the State of New York among those who have hitherto voted for the candidates of the Democratic party is a wonderful and most cheering spectacle. The rulers of that party suddenly find themselves in the position of a despot who has relied upon his army to suppress revolution, and finds that it is deserting him. Honest and decent and patriotic citizens have at last met organization by organization. They are at last "going to the primaries"—not to primaries that have been already "fixed" by the party rulers, but to primaries called to express freely and fairly the common purpose by which they are animated. In its way this is as fine an exhibition of political capacity as the formation of a volunteer army of patriotic citizens in 1861. The emergency has not been extreme, there has been little in the situation to inspire the imagination, and the expense and the drudgery of creating an organization with nothing to build upon have been great. Under these circumstances, the orderly and deliberate combination of more than 200,000 men into a disciplined force, simply in response to the feeling of indignation aroused by the arrogance of their rulers, is exceedingly impressive. We do not believe that the inhabitants of any other country are capable of such a feat, and we should scarcely have believed it possible here.

Apart from the immediate practical results of the movement—and it may decide the policy of the national Government for many years—several important lessons are to be learned from it. In the first place, we may derive hope from it as to our country's future. Nothing can mar that future but our own misgovernment, and this uprising shows that very gross misgovernment can be and will be stopped. Many persons have professed confidence that the "popular heart" was right, but now we have proof not only of this, but also that the popular heart is guided by a popular intelligence. The great cloud upon the future has been the tyranny of party organization, and it has been shown that when this organization was apparently most perfect and complete and powerful, it could yet be overthrown. When a people proves that it has the capacity to create a party organization within the space of three months, it is time for every existing party organization to look to its ways. Party rule is necessary, and so are party rulers. But that they are not so necessary that they cannot be changed has been established by this movement. They can keep their power if they will give us good government, but they have had warning that their tenure is during good behavior. We do not hesitate to say that the men who have unselfishly given their time and strength to this movement have rendered their country as great a service as if they had flown to arms in her defence. Their achievement will not bring them fame, or even insure them the gratitude of their own generation, but they may rest assured that, whether they are honored or not, they have deserved well of the Republic.

THE MACHINE VS. THE POPULAR WILL.

The comments which Congressman Blount of Georgia makes upon the defeat of the Hill schemers in his State are both instructive and illuminating. He calls attention to the fact that the two most powerful Democratic newspapers in the State, two Democratic United States Senators, several Democratic members of Congress, the President of the Farmers' Alliance, and other presumably powerful political leaders, were for months engaged in a systematic effort to prevent the State Democratic Convention from electing a Cleveland delegation, and then says of the complete triumph of Cleveland sentiment in the Convention: "It looks like the assertion of the popular feeling in defiance of the men who tried to manage the Convention. When such an array of talent falls short of success, the reason is not far to seek."

What was attempted by the Democratic Machine politicians in Georgia is precisely what their brethren in other States have been attempting for months past. From one end of the country to the other the

politicians of the Democratic party have been devoting all their energies to a combined effort to prevent the masses of the party from nominating the man of their choice. At no time since the elections of 1890 has there been a particle of doubt as to Mr. Cleveland's being the choice of an overwhelming majority of the members of his own party. The only question has been whether or not the politicians of his party would consent to his nomination. The reasons of their opposition to him were never disputed. They do not wish to see him nominated simply because they know they cannot use him for their purposes after election. They began their campaign for the defeat of the will of their own party with the "snap" convention at Albany on February 22, and have fought desperately in every State convention which has been held since that time. The Hill Machine gave them their only victory, and it proved to be the political death of the man who won it. In every other State in which they have closed with the popular will, they either have been routed completely, or have come off with only a few delegates to show for their struggle. There is no question that if they were to let the party will have free expression, every State in the Union would send a solid Cleveland delegation to Chicago.

The pretences which have been made for opposing Mr. Cleveland's candidacy have been as absurd as the efforts to defeat the popular will have been futile. It was declared at first that he was not the choice of his party, but merely the favorite of a few Mugwumps and Democratic "soreheads"; but as State convention after State convention has come together, so irrepressible with enthusiasm for him that the full power of the Machine could not keep it down, this pretence has had to be abandoned. Now the only argument remaining is, that he cannot be elected since he cannot command the united support of his party. What queer reasoning is that which claims that the candidate who has the largest popular strength in his party is his party's weakest candidate! The masses of the party are so determined to nominate him that the party Machine is powerless to prevent it, and yet some other candidate, whom the masses of the party do not want and will not take, would be a stronger candidate! If this is the wisdom of "practical politicians," wherein does it differ from that of fools?

That the popular will, which has triumphed in the State conventions, will triumph in the National Convention cannot be doubted. The fight of the Machine to smother the party's voice has been made and lost. "The popular feeling all over the country," says Mr. Blount, "will make itself felt in the National Convention as it does in the State conventions. The almost universal bent of the party towards Mr. Cleveland is due, not to any kind of hero worship, but to the fact that he represents to the public mind, as no other man in public life does at the present moment, the principle of tariff reform. The people believe in that and in him as its representative, and they are sweeping down everything which gets in their way." This is made plain by the delegations which have been chosen by twenty-six of the forty-four States. Mr. Cleveland is the only candidate who has any following which can be called either definite or permanent. All the alleged opposing candidates come under the head of "scattering," and there is not the slightest hope for the nomination of any one of them. What a position the party would be in were its politicians able to defeat the one candidate whom the masses of the party desired to nominate!

The defeat of the Machine in this contest is a distinct triumph for popular government and for our national-convention system. There have been times when it looked as if the day were near at hand when a national convention would become nothing more than a mere recording instrument for registering the will of the Machine; but this year's experience shows that such a perversion is possible only when the people have not a definite choice of their own. Primary machine methods may triumph in a State convention, but in the nation at large they are powerless to overcome the popular will, or to divert it from its purpose.

NEW FIELDS FOR THE CLERGY.

THE activity of Dr. Parkhurst in the movement against crime and criminal politics in this city is only the most striking of many recent signs of a noteworthy departure in the general view of clergymen as to their obligations and duties. They are waking up to a realization of the fact that they are citizens, and that they have something more laid upon them than simply "to preach religion." They are to do their part in the struggle to maintain good government and to right social wrongs, and their weapons are to be of unclerical modern pattern and their methods of scientific devising. As the Chicago correspondent of the *Congregationalist* said in reporting a recent address by Dr. Graham Taylor before the Congregational Club of that city: "The leading idea of the address was that the work of evangelization must now proceed along the line of sociological laws. This is a modern study in which Christians ought to be experts."

The extent to which this spirit of practical citizenship is animating the clergymen of the country, though constantly illustrated in the news despatches as they drift by, escapes general attention, which is arrested by what is startling or sensational. The average reader notices that a clergyman is turning his attention to citizenship only when he takes a hand in politics, or appears in the rôle of "crusader" against vice, like Dr. Parkhurst, or like the Rev. John L. Scudder of Jersey City in his war upon Guttenberg and other race-tracks. But the tendency is seen in many different illustrations of a quieter type. On a recent Sunday in Chicago, for example, a mass-meeting was held in Bricklayers' Hall to denounce "the sweating system." The *Inter-Ocean* reports that "the Rev. Jenkin Lloyd Jones presided. He read letters from the Rev. Charles E. Cheney of Christ Church and the Rev. S. J. McPherson of the Second Presbyterian Church, denouncing the system in unmeasured terms and regretting their inability to be present." In this connection it will be recalled that a Boston clergyman not long ago preached a series of sermons denunciatory of "the sweating system," which, unless we are mistaken, led to the recent Congressional investigation of the subject. Another illustration is the consideration by the Methodist preachers of Chicago, at a regular Monday meeting, of the early-closing movement for clerks. The debate was given a curious theological twist, or justification, by the Rev. N. H. Axtell, who said, according to the report of the Chicago *Herald*, that "these clerks were especially needy of relief because for the most part they were employed by Jews who do not recognize the Christian Sabbath." The general sentiment seemed to be that preachers ought to instruct their congregations that it was a Christian duty to "shop earlier." A committee was appointed to visit employers and bring the hardships of the clerks to their attention. In Milwaukee, it seems, the law against selling liquor to minors has been generally and notoriously violated. This evil was taken up at a recent Monday meeting by the Ministerial Association, composed apparently of pastors of various denominations. A committee was appointed to secure a prosecuting agent. The plan, according to a despatch from Milwaukee, is "to hire a man for a period of four or five years at a good salary, who will devote his entire time to watching the saloon-keepers and causing their arrest and prosecution for all violations of the law."

But perhaps the most curious illustration of all is to be found in the subject considered by the Central North Chicago Ministerial Association, when it met on a recent evening in the Belden Avenue Baptist Church—the important subject, "How to get our streets cleaned." J. M. Burke, "Superintendent of the Streets"—as the Chicago *Herald* describes him—appeared before the meeting to advocate his special plan, which was to raise money for street-cleaning by a special assessment, levied on the adjoining property benefited instead of by a general tax. In the course of his speech Mr. Burke gave the clergymen this "practical pointer": "The way to get this thing through is by talking to your Aldermen. I can't do it, for I am a politician. If I go to the Alderman from this ward, he would say, 'Well, Jim, that's a dodge to get Republican votes.' But I'll guarantee that if you go to him, he'll do what you want." A committee of five was appointed "to confer about the matter."

To consider the question of street-cleaning is perhaps no more incongruous for modern clergymen than was, when delivered, Dr. Horace Bushnell's famous sermon of years ago in favor of certain road improvements in Hartford. The "halfway covenant," no doubt, was the direct cause of Jonathan Edwards's historic quarrel with his church in Northampton. Yet his attempt to regulate the reading of the younger members of his flock, his denunciation of certain books as immoral, was a contributing cause which could hardly be classed as too "remote," as they say in law. It would be a very interesting question to trace out how far the modern view, which confines a clergyman's activities to "religion," and forbids him as a citizen to do anything more than deposit his ballot as unobtrusively as possible, is a case of evolution, springing from the voluntary system, which holds a clergyman neutral because of the differing views of the many who pay him his stipend. Certainly this view is in marked contrast with the view, at that time, of the old New England clergyman, who was often "a pope in his parish," as well as with the popular view in England, where clergymen of the Established Church are prominent as citizens of influence and sometimes as magistrates, and the dissenting ministers are working politicians as a rule.

The growth of a spirit of independence and active citizenship among American clergymen, whether its manifestations are always wise or not, is certainly in the direction of a return to the clergyman's original status.

THE POPE'S LETTER TO THE FRENCH CARDINALS.

THE great rent in the Christian Church caused by the Reformation has rendered it difficult in these modern days for Catholics and Protestants to appreciate each other. This is especially true in the case of the Protestants of English descent, for difference of speech has coöperated with political influences to make the gulf more impassable. The great mass of Protestants in this country—certainly those who are animated by sincere religious feeling—are strongly affected by a traditional hostility to the "Pope of Rome," and probably entertain much the same feeling about him as was long since expressed by John Bunyan. That sturdy writer, it will be recollected, with a curious mixture of contempt and bitterness, said of "Giant Pope," that "though he be yet alive, he is by reason of age, and also of the many shrewd brushes that he met with in his younger days, grown so crazy and stiff in his joints that he can now do little more than sit in his cave's mouth, grinning at Pilgrims as they go by, and biting his nails because he cannot come at them."

Yet, while the Pope has been shorn of his temporal sovereignty, many events could be cited to show that as a spiritual power he is by no means so decrepit as Bunyan represented him. Those who recognize his authority have greatly increased in number in the Protestant countries, and in the German Empire it has been found safer to conciliate than offend him. In times past the Papacy has resisted political reform, and it steadily opposes the advance of the scientific spirit; but with a wonderful adaptability it acquiesces in the inevitable, and the defeat of its attempts in some directions seems only to increase its success in others. There are many causes for the remarkable vitality of this institution; but there is one in particular which is strikingly manifested in the letter just addressed by the Pope to the Cardinal Archbishops of France in confirmation of his recent encyclical.

It is unnecessary to refer to the position of the Catholic Church in France further than to say that the Royalist sentiment there is identified with Catholicism. There are Catholics who are not Royalists, but all Royalists are Catholics. Hence there has prevailed among the believers in republican institutions in France a sentiment towards the Catholic clergy not unlike that which animated the English after the expulsion of the Stuarts. All Catholics were looked upon as hostile to the new Government; indeed, they were presumptively traitors. They were harried for fear of a Stuart restoration, and they are now harried in France for fear of a restoration of monarchy. Persecution has seldom accomplished very much when directed against convictions supported by reason; and while there was a possibility of reëstablishing monarchy the repressive measures of the Republic only intensified the Royalist spirit. But the death of the last Bourbon, the Comte de Chambord, and the disgraceful connection of the Orleans princes with Boulanger, extinguished all rational expectation of a return of the old order. To maintain the hostile attitude of the French clergy towards the Republic became, therefore, not only useless, but absurd. It was natural that they should not be willing to confess that the cause for which they had struggled and suffered so long was lost. Perhaps they could not see that it was so; but the Pope has seen it, and has instructed them accordingly.

That these instructions should be characterized by tact is no more than would be expected from the Vatican; but they also indicate the possession by the Pope of a very high degree of political wisdom. He points out that the supreme end to be attained by the Church is religion, and that, under the adverse circumstances prevailing in France, it is hopeless for Christians to struggle for this end unless they are united. There must be no more parties among them; they must forget their differences in devotion to the cause of Jesus Christ. They must therefore accept, "with that perfect loyalty becoming in Christians," the civil power in the form in which *de facto* it exists. The reason for such acceptance is that "the common weal of society makes it preëminent over any other interest," as being the creative principle and the conservative element. It is true, the Pope continues, that, although the political power is always from God, the divine appointment does not always and directly affect the modes of transmission of that power, or the forms it assumes, or the persons who are the subjects of it. There are incessant changes in political forms, which may not be legitimate at the start; yet the supreme criterion of the common weal and public tranquillity requires the acceptance of these new governments established *de facto* in the place of other governments which *de facto* have ceased to exist.

Having laid down this most sound and salutary doctrine, the Pope next draws a distinction which is not the less important because it is not understood by a large and influential school of political theorists. The sovereignty of the State, he points out, is not absolute. It is the duty of the subject to accept the established political authority; but this does not imply acceptance of legislation on points where the legislator, forgetful of his mission, sets himself in opposition to the law of God and of the Church. "And let all bear in mind," he continues, "that to display activity and use influence to induce Government to change for the better iniquitous laws void of wisdom is to give proof of a devotion to the country alike intelligent and courageous, without evincing a shadow of hostility to the authorities deputed to govern public affairs. Who would think of denouncing the Christians of the first centuries as adversaries of the Roman Empire because they did not bow to its idolatrous proscriptions, but endeavored to effect their abolition?"

In short, the Pope recognizes that the end of civil government is the preservation of order, not the enforcing of opinions, and that the higher law of conscience is controlling upon the members of every human polity. This is not the quarter towards which Protestants would naturally look for such doctrine, but the skill with which the Papacy knows how to adjust principles to circumstances is one great cause, as we have said, of its perennial vitality.

AMERICANS IN CHINA.

WISCONSIN, May 15, 1892.

THE Chinese are more sinned against by us than sinning. How they are treated in this country nobody needs to be told, but their relations at home to Americans on their soil are not so well known, and may be somewhat elucidated by one who has been a looker-on in the seats of recent outrages and elsewhere in China. A few months before the disturbances began, I went up the Yang-tse to Han-Kow, the Celestial St. Louis, lingered there, as well as in Kiu-Kiang, Chin-Kiang, and Wu-hu, where the first outbreak occurred. In all these cities and several others I walked about as at home, often alone, sometimes with an

American lady, or was carried in an open sedan, called at shops and whatever other places I chose, and was nowhere molested. I was frequently a phenomenon, in dress and physiognomy, such as had been scarcely seen, and hence the observed of all observers. Sometimes jostled in the crowded street, and sometimes laughed at, I was never insulted or maltreated. In Chin-Kiang I saw beautiful new buildings just completed for a foreign consulate by the Imperial Government, to replace others which a mob had destroyed. Similar edifices are now building there or in other cities where mobs have destroyed the property of foreigners.

A government which feels liable to indemnify foreigners for the destruction of their property cannot countenance mobs against them. An article admitting such a liability and specifying that of travelling missionaries was long since inserted in a treaty with France, and hence French priests have gone to and fro at their ease. In treaties with the United States, however, there is no such clause. An American female physician, Miss Fulton, on a tour in the interior, was assaulted and robbed of many valuables. Damages were claimed through Charles Seymour, the American Consul. They should be granted, said the Viceroy, if it were so nominated in the bond. "It is," said Seymour, "for our treaty reads that as to all particulars not mentioned the United States shall stand on the footing of the most favored nation; therefore we are entitled to such indemnities as you grant to France." He obtained what he sought; and in these last years our missionaries, as they journey, feel secure and are safe so far as the powers that be can protect them. But if we trample on treaties, how long will the Chinese reverence them? They must say with *Shylock*, "The villainy you teach us we will execute; and it shall go hard but we will better the instruction."

The imperial officials have done something in aid of missionary endeavors to rectify false notions which have infuriated the populace against foreigners. The Viceroy at Canton had need of a surgical operation which baffled native skill, called in Dr. Kerr of the Peter Parker Hospital, and was promptly relieved. His gratitude was fervent, and he begged to know how he could help the hospital. The Doctor said: "I have translated several medical tracts which I am anxious to keep before your people," and he went away happy in a publishing-fund of twelve hundred dollars from the Viceroy and his retinue. A prevalent delusion, which was refuted in the tracts, was the opinion that the only panacea for sore eyes must be made out of eyes—eyes of the living, the young, and the healthy. In nothing has the success of missionaries all along from 1839, when their first hospital was established, been more conspicuous than in ophthalmic diseases. The slander that they abducted children and plucked out their eyes was all the more naturally suggested and easily believed. It is an error that dies hard. It was the exciting cause of uprisings and atrocities last year which convulsed millions and echoed through the world. The following is a translation of a placard, the original of which is in my hands, which was posted abundantly on the house-walls in Canton in 1891:

"There is a Roman Catholic chapel at Mai Mar Street, where foreign devils and native Christians are united in society for the purpose of extracting the two eyeballs of our Chinese youths to prepare their medicines. From the beginning to the present the cases have been ten thousand. Even stone-carved lions hearing of them would shed tears. Judging from the strength and vastness of our Ta-ching dynasty, can she with unruffled sleeves stand by as a looker-on? Brothers from the four directions, let us together take revenge," etc.

Similar inflammatory appeals—sometimes pictorial, showing a crucified hog, sometimes doggerel, saying that seventh-day meetings were for mutilating women and children—had been pasted beforehand on walls wherever any anti-foreign riots occurred. Such riots were averted in Canton, in the judgment of Consul Seymour, through every foreigner and native convert being on the watch to discover and destroy or bring before the police every such malicious handbill. Analogous slanders on the Chinese, if posted on all our walls, would not move our Government to raise a finger. But the Imperial Government feels a responsibility unknown to us. Hence, Consul Seymour of Canton writes to me: "I have never yet called for a man-of-war or gunboat, but I am a firm believer in the resources of diplomacy, and have always found that getting the attention of the authorities to threatening placards which always precede outrage was an effective way to prevent trouble." Chinese officials were ready to punish the authors of the scandalous posters, but those incendiaries long lurked undetected. Accordingly, the Rev. Griffith John, a veteran Welsh missionary of Han-Kow, is thought to have dealt persecution a death-blow by proving that the anti-Christian libels were paid for by wealthy Chinese in Hunan on the upper Yang-tse, and ascertaining the name of the mandarin who was most active in organizing the work of distributing this mischievous literature. The disclosures made by Dr. John might easily be paralleled from the annals of Chinese on our Pacific Slope; but when we expose such American assaults, the only response is, "What are you going to do about it?" They order this matter otherwise in China. Exposure there will secure from a Government more sinned against than sinning indemnity for the past and protection for the future.

GALLANT LITTLE WALES.

LONDON, May 6, 1892.

THE excesses of the French Revolution led in these countries for more than a generation to a reactionary régime in which perished for the time all hopes of reform and advancement. Irish self-government went down, as had Scottish a century earlier. The kingdom was governed for a class and by a class, which regarded its own interests as supreme and as equivalent to the interests of the nation. That class, constituted of men belonging to the same church, educated at kindred schools and universities, drawing their incomes mainly from the same sources, connected socially, imbued with the same prejudices, actuated by the same desires, entertained no other ideal than that all portions of the British Islands should be reduced to a dead level of institutions, law, and order under their own rule. The protests of Scott, in his "Malachi Malagrowther," against this system, appeared as vain as the pathetic regrets of Grattan from his garden at Tinnehinch.

With the death of the last of the Georges the clouds broke, and reform became possible. The rule of the great proprietors and highly paid officials partially gave way to that of the political philosophers. These were cultivated men, actuated by high motives, well fitted theoretically for the task of government, imbued with lofty ideals and sincere desires for the good of their fellow-men. But they regarded humanity from too abstract and philosophic a point of view. The 'Wealth of Nations' was their gospel, *laisser-faire* the doctrine that was to lead mankind to prosperity and happiness. It was doubtless due to the predominance of such minds in the forties that we owe the free trade we enjoy. Under these men, even more perhaps than under the old Tories, was the United Kingdom to be governed simply as a unit. (Their heirs and representatives, the "professors" of to-day, are among the bitterest opponents of home rule.) National aspirations within the borders of the British Isles were to be set aside as childish dreams, unworthy the philosophic manhood of the age. Through all, underneath all, burned in the hearts of the "common people" of different portions of the kingdom national feelings and separate necessities and desires—in Ireland, regarded as treason, and in Scotland and Wales as the dreams of the bards. Education, bringing the commonalty forward, the ballot, giving them power, have, however, changed all that, and have compelled practical politicians to guide their actions more by the actual prejudices and wishes of the majority than by abstract reasonings. The people are now being represented by men of their own class, or imbued with their own feelings; and even if an overtaxed central legislature did not call for decentralization, the different nationalities themselves demand it in one form or another.

In the United States and the United Kingdom apparently opposite tendencies assert themselves—in the one, perhaps, a process of centralization which, however, cannot result in homogeneity; in the other, a process of decentralization which cannot result in separation. It is to be feared that the attempts of Scotland and Wales to participate in the advantages of decentralization may retard the progress of Irish home rule. England might make up her mind to the change regarding the sister island; but if as a concomitant within her own borders she must face changes upon somewhat similar lines, she may be slower to concede the principle. Ireland has struggled so long, and suffered so much, that she naturally regards with some jealousy these other laborers who have not borne the burthen and heat of the day, and who yet come forward demanding like reward. However this may be, these claims are certainly being made in other parts of the kingdom besides Ireland.

It is Wales we now propose to consider. Her self-assertion and resurgence, as it were, are to outsiders an unexpected phenomenon. A century ago the principality was but little visited, and was regarded as a remote, uncivilized district, whose inhabitants had been rescued by Wesley and Whitefield from the materialism in which they had been left by the unfaithfulness of the Church of England. It was believed that English civilization, advancing over the Welsh borders, would before long as completely eliminate all traces of the old language and peculiarities as those of Cornwall had been eliminated. Wales is, however, to-day as dissenting as Ireland is Catholic. She has clung to her language with a desperate tenacity; while in Ireland the people have discarded the older form of the Celtic, which one hundred years ago was spoken in every corner of their land. Wales comprises the eleven western counties of England, south of the estuary of the Dee, north of the estuary of the Severn. She covers 5,000,000 of the 37,000,000 acres commonly known as "England," and has 1,500,000 out of its 29,000,000 inhabitants. Her population has increased just in the proportion that Ireland's has diminished

within the decade. She returns thirty members to Parliament, twenty-eight of whom are enthusiastic Gladstonians.

It is opined that one form of Celtic was originally spoken throughout Great Britain and Ireland. It branched into two families, now more widely different than the Germanic and Scandinavian divisions of the Teutonic stem—into (1) Irish, Scottish, Manx; into (2) Welsh, Cornish, and the Armoric of Brittany. Irish is the most archaic form; it is richest in ancient records. It alone has adopted a different form of letter from the ordinary Roman, and the orthography is simpler than that of Scottish or Welsh, in that the modifications at the beginnings of the words are effected for the most part by accent and not by radical alteration in the spelling. Scottish-Gaelic is practically the same as Irish; so was the Manx (now practically extinct) until modified by communication with Wales after the Anglo-Norman conquest of Ireland. Phonetically Welsh, in its tendency to labiation, stands to Irish as Greek stands to Latin—the Irish *ben*, a high mountain, becomes in Welsh *pen;* the Irish *mac*, son, *map*. Welsh is the oldest of its branch of the family, and differs from Cornish (one hundred years extinct) much as French differs from Spanish. The Cornish differs from the Armoric of Brittany much as Spanish differs from Portuguese. Welsh is more spoken than ever before; it is the language of fully three-fourths of the inhabitants of the principality, and of this proportion the greater number cannot speak English. It is the only tongue except English ever heard in the lobbies and libraries of the House of Commons. Government forms and returns in Wales are issued in both English and Welsh; so also are the notices outside post-offices and churches.

The leaders of Welsh thought are determined to make and preserve their country bilingual. The great English proprietors, with estates in the principality, who see the necessity of maintaining their influence among their tenants and neighbors, now engage Welsh-speaking governesses for their children. Forty-four years ago it was possible for a writer in *Blackwood* to declare that "there is no Welsh literature worthy of the name," and that there were only 405 books circulating in the language—309 religious and poetic, 50 scientific, 46 general. There were few newspapers, and they had only a small circulation. At present there are printed in Welsh no fewer than seventeen weeklies, with circulations ranging from 1,500 to 23,000. There are besides several monthlies and quarterlies, one of which prints 37,000 copies. There is an ever-increasing library of Welsh books, covering all departments of literature and representing every science and turn of thought. A Welsh-English dictionary is now being published, the first volume of which, running to 400 quarto pages, and comprising only the first letter of the alphabet, sells at half a guinea; £18,000 has, with profit, been spent upon the production of one Welsh book. The sales of one firm alone in the vernacular trade reach £36,000 per annum. The total annual value of such literature is said to amount to £200,000. The establishment of a lively *Welsh Review* (in English, it is true) in London is not the least striking sign of Cambrian vitality.

The Welsh members of Parliament sit for the most part below the gangway. There is among many of them a certain family type. They are a lighter, brighter, more boyish, alert-looking set of men than the ordinary British and Irish by their side. Their pronunciation is somewhat labial—it has somewhat the distinctness of an acquired language. Some of these members made a distinguished stand over the Tithe Bill of last year. A measure for the disestablishment of the Church in Wales was brought forward by them this session. London and Birmingham (the one 170, the other 70 miles distant) are vying for the possession of certain Welsh watersheds, whence to draw their water-supplies. The Welsh members are fiercely watchful to guard the interests, present and prospective, of some of their own rapidly increasing centres of population, and of the present owners and inhabitants of the districts proposed to be preëmpted. In the inquiry about to be held into the financial relations of England, Scotland, and Ireland, the Welsh desire to have their interests considered apart from the rest of "England." They have this session brought in a National Institutions Bill for the principality. It proposes the appointment of a Secretary of State for Wales, the constitution of a Welsh education department, of a Welsh university and a national museum, and the creation of a national council to control waste lands, foreshores, woods and forests, railway and private bills, charities, the appointment of county-court judges, and the application of "provisional orders" to Wales. Inquiries seem to show that there is a large body of opinion in the district desirous of even greater powers—such as the appointment of magistrates.

Wales is, after all, more populous than any one of twenty-eight of the United States, and than any one of the self-governing British colonies, except Ontario. The principal supporter of this bill, Alfred Thomas, Member for East Glamorgan, declares in the course of a recent magazine article:

"My firm opinion, based on the fullest knowledge, is that the Welsh people do not desire home rule on the same lines as what has been demanded and proposed for Ireland. They will be content with something very different, and, in the view of many, more moderate. But all the same it is home rule. The great feature in the national spirit of Wales in the past is that all attempts to absorb Wales into England have only hardened and strengthened our national characteristics. And the British Empire is all the better for the tenacity with which Welshmen cling to their language and institutions, and the patriotic pride they cherish for the land of their fathers. If the National Institutions Bill, which has received endorsement from such a large number of representative Welshmen, should be passed into law, it would lay the foundation for a future development of Wales, and for such a material progress of the principality as would enable Welshmen to develop those great natural abilities which are unsurpassed by any other race or people."

However this may be, the steady current of national feeling in Wales must lead to important developments, and the solution of a "Welsh question" will doubtless before long engage the attention of Imperial Parliament.

D. B.

THE LONDON EXHIBITIONS.

LONDON, May 2, 1892.

I WISH that I could look at the year's exhibitions in London with the fresh eyes of Mr. Charles Dudley Warner. He has but recently been telling us, in the Study in *Harper's Magazine*, that only last summer he found the desire to be striking, to astonish, to do something odd in color and composition, the distinguishing characteristics of English as well as foreign galleries. This shows the advantage of looking at pictures from the literary standpoint. Last summer it seemed to me that, from the sad level of depressing mediocrity in the London exhibitions, perhaps half-a-dozen canvases stood out with something like distinction. I should therefore be glad to hear Mr. Warner's verdict this year, when I have searched the Academy, the New Gallery, the New English Art Club in vain for one striking painting. There is not even a "picture of the year" for the crowd to gape before, like the sentimentalities of Mr. Dicksee and Mr. Fildes that made such a stir a twelvemonth ago. The universal poverty is proved by the excitement among critics over an open-air study by a certain Russian prince, exhibited in the New English Art Club show—a second-rate imitation of men like Besnard, Zorn, and Roll, but such a novelty here that it served at the Academy banquet as butt for the witticisms of Prof. S. H. Butcher, whose art criticism, founded on wide knowledge of literature and complete ignorance of art, has been hailed with rapture by the Ruskinians of the press.

The honest failure of a man seeking to solve some interesting problem of color or form, of light or atmosphere, would be a relief among the neatly turned-out exhibition pictures which fill the Academy. It is the non-existence of true artistic endeavor which is so dispiriting, the apparent willingness of exhibitors to keep on turning out regulation pieces of sentiment, landscapes and portraits, all as much of a pattern as if they were machine-made. It would be better if Americans who send to Burlington House understood that mediocre productions are practically lost in the prevailing mediocrity. Mr. Sargent does understand this, and is sure to be represented by work that tells on the Academy walls, so that his absence this year is the more conspicuous; but then Mr. Sargent is an artist and could not help being distinguished. There are others, however, who, knowing that the Academy average is proverbially low, seem content to contribute anything that happens to be in the studio. Mr. Bridgman, it is true, makes a new departure in deserting the East for a thoroughly western "Lawn Tennis Club," but unfortunately this same subject was not so long since much more cleverly treated by Mr. Lavery, one of the Glasgow group, in a picture which now hangs in the Munich Pinakothek, and which cannot soon be forgotten by those who saw it when it was exhibited in the Goupil Gallery here. Mr. F. D. Millet's "Between Two Fires," one of his carefully studied interiors, is by far the best thing of the kind in the collection; but this is not saying much, and it would have to be better still to assert itself with preëminence even in its present surroundings. One wonders if, but for his sitter, Mr. Beckwith's portrait of Mark Twain, curiously hard and leathery as it is, would have been hung at all; while Mr. Mosler scarcely does himself justice, and Mr. Shannon, if, indeed, he can be called an American, gives unpleasant signs of drifting entirely into the manufacture of fashion plates. Even Mr. Hitchcock's poppy field suggests that the painter had the Academy in view when he was at work on it. Decidedly the best showing by Americans is made by Mrs. Stanhope-Forbes—a Canadian—in her true, if somewhat perfunctory, rendering of a "Minuet" in a dimly lighted room, and Mr. F. Morley Fletcher in "The Shadow of Death," which, with its rich color and the fine lines of its composition, was no less notable when exhibited in the Salon. But not one of these contributions is either so fine a failure, or so startling a success, as to redeem the commonplaceness of the show.

Even stranger than the total lack of distinction is the fact that whatever improvement is revealed comes from within the Academical

ranks. The pictures which are really the most interesting are the work of three or four Academicians and Associates, more especially of the latter. It is wearisome year after year to dwell on the trivialities, the crudities, the vulgarities which the many writing the magic initials after their name produce. From them nothing else has ever been expected, or if, like Sir John Millais, they once did better things, one remembers the past with regret. Only a few still continue to work successfully on the old lines. Mr. Orchardson, Mr. Henry Moore, Mr. J. W. Waterhouse send excellent variations of the old themes, about which there is absolutely nothing new to be said. Mr. Tadema's arrangement of marble and blue skies and seas, called "A Kiss," has more of that quality which gave value to his earlier classical compositions, but which is not invariably found in his later canvases. Sir Frederick Leighton's "Garden of the Hesperides"—the one noteworthy of his five contributions—is filled with the decorative stateliness and harmony which make up in a measure for his thinness of color, his weakness when he attempts realism, and the inevitable waxiness of his surfaces. And Mr. Watts is at his best in a portrait of Mr. Walter Crane in the New Gallery, rich in its sombre browns, simple and vigorous in its handling, though it is to be feared that if, like so many of his pictures, it remains long in his studio, it will suffer, as they have, from his mania for retouching and repainting. But it is really two of the youngest Associates whose work presents the most obvious justification for the existence of such an institution as the Royal Academy.

It is encouraging to find that the election of Mr. Stanhope-Forbes, the latest comer, has not been the signal for his immediate degeneracy. On the contrary, he has made a distinct step forward with "Forging the Anchor," which justly is given one of the chief centres of honor. Having begun his career brilliantly, his tendency latterly has been towards the painted-photograph effect—the ideal, apparently, of the Newlyn School. This unpleasant photographic suggestion is not wholly got rid of in his Forge, in which the Newlyn tricks of perspective—the floor running up at such an angle that it looks as if everything must slide down it—are also evident. One or two figures are superfluous, and the arrangement of light falling from a furnace to the right on a boy is a tiresome repetition of what Norwegian painters have done again and again. But when all these defects are pointed out, it must still be admitted that he has succeeded in giving the glow of the red-hot iron and the action of the men around it with a truth never yet attained by the many painters who have attempted the same problem, not even by Menzel. And this in itself is an achievement, though perhaps not the highest. Mr. David Murray is the other Associate who deserves credit for resisting the deadening influence of the Academy. Too often his landscapes are marked by a facile commonplaceness and a weak striving after Corot. But this year he has literally leaped into originality. It is still clear that Corot is his master, but he proves at last that he can adapt the master's methods to his own ends, and thus produce an artistic result; and, after all, what more can be said of the most original men? It is in his "River Road" that he shows himself most accomplished, and it seems a pity that this, the best landscape of the year, could not have been secured for the nation by the Chantrey Bequest Trustees, instead of the flaunting purple-and-white mountain meadow by Mr. MacWhirter, or Mr. Arthur Hacker's version of the Annunciation. It may be said that Mr. Murray is already represented by one canvas in the Chantrey collection, but this argument was not used in previous years against the purchase of a second work by Sir Frederick Leighton or Mr. Herkomer. And if Mr. Hacker's is a very praiseworthy effort, the object of the Chantrey Bequest is to collect good work, not good intentions. Indeed, it would be wiser to buy no pictures for a season or two than to keep on misappropriating the funds. As I write, I hear that Mr. Millet's picture has also been bought; he now enters, after Mr. Sargent, into the Gallery of British Immortals.

Outside the Academical ranks, matters are not much more cheerful. I never remember such a scarcity of passable portraits. At the Academy and New Gallery alike the walls are barren. At the latter, besides the Watts, the only portraits which attract attention are two of Paderewski, and they are being talked about not for artistic reasons, but because Princess Louise painted one and Mr. Tadema the other, and the comparison furnishes a fine text for dinner talk. At the Academy, where Mr. Herkomer shows a group which will be remembered—if remembered at all—as the most fearful and awful confusion in perspective and light, there are good portraits by Mr. Lavery and Mr. Furse, but they are so quiet in color and treatment, and are hung so badly, that it is easy to pass them by. Mr. Lavery has already made his name as a portrait-painter among people who really care for art. Mr. Furse is as yet but the careful and intelligent student of Mr. Whistler; but at the New English Art Club he has two canvases which, Whistlerian though they be in color and treatment, give promise that he may eventually come to the fore upon his own merits.

The landscapes are almost as depressing. It is pleasanter and easier to turn to the few men who have either gone in search of new impressions and effects, or who have given a new treatment of their old motives, than to point out the innumerable proofs of the English landscape-painter's misconception of his art. Mr. Alfred Parsons sends to the Academy an orchard in early springtime, in which he succeeds in getting the effect just missed in several of his late canvases; and Mr. Alfred East, who is, as a rule, too pretty and trivial out of deference to his public, this year is beginning to look at nature with his own eyes instead of those of the British picture-buyer. Mr. Noble and Mr. Corbet are always serious and sincere in their work, painting what they see and not what other people would like them to, which is no small virtue in a country where the standard of art is based upon the random word-painting of Mr. Ruskin, or the yearly votes for the best picture at Whitechapel exhibitions. I ought also to mention Mr. Muhrman and Mr. Johnstone, both Americans, who are the most original of the exhibitors at the present New English Art Club show.

It is, however, because this show has proved such a disappointment that the outlook for British art seems just now more hopeless than ever. To the members of the New English Art Club, during the last six or seven years, one has looked for that vitality, that new life, which the so-called British school of painting so sorely needs. They are young, they are enthusiastic, they are daring. But their daring has never yet led them beyond clever imitation, and in their successive exhibitions one has been forced to note a gradual falling off, until this spring they have failed to be interesting even in their echoes of other and greater artists. There is almost as little distinction here as at the Academy. Mr. Furse's portraits are exceptions because they are such clever copies of another painter's methods; Mr. Starr's, because a man of reputation, like Mr. Harold Frederic, sat to him. It is but fair to add that the water colors of Mr. Brabazon, an artist almost unknown, are the only examples in that medium in any gallery which are of the slightest importance, and that the drawings of cats by Mr. Arthur Tomson, together with a little study of the nude by Mr. George Thomson at the Academy, can alone be said to represent worthily the black-and-white work of the day.

It is to the sculpture one must go for whatever vitality exists in contemporary British art. The contrast between the sculpture and the picture galleries is enormous. The thousands of paintings are dull and lifeless; the hundreds of busts and statues and reliefs are full of character and vigor. It is clear that the painter paints to meet a passing fashion while fair prices can be commanded; that the sculptor does his work because he has something to say which can be said in no other way, by no other medium. The average is high; there is not talent only, but genius in the work that rises above it. Foremost, of course, is Mr. E. Onslow Ford's Shelley Memorial, which has been refused a place in the little graveyard under the pyramid of Caius Cestius, and will, it is likely, yet be refused admittance to the grounds of University College, Oxford, to which Lady Shelley next presented it. There is little enough encouragement for the sculptor in England; he sees the statues of second-rate men, who rejoice in court patronage, set up in the streets of London; when he ventures to allow his genius free play, when he gives proof of his originality, his work runs the risk of never finding a place outside of his own studio. Mr. Ford's design has been much talked of because of its unconventionality, because his Shelley lies extended, unclothed, undraped. But less has been said of the fine modelling of the outstretched figure, of the grace of the pose, of that touch of human pathos and feeling which is so intensely modern in sculpture, which only a few sculptors like Rodin, and Ford, and Gilbert have yet been courageous enough to express, in defiance of all tradition. Less has been said, too, of the harmony and repose of the whole design, with its winged lions in bronze supporting the marble on which the body lies, and its Muse weeping over the lyre in the centre just below the figure. Anything short of unqualified success with so unconventional a conception must have made it border on the ridiculous. The solemn impressiveness of the memorial, which strikes you more and more the longer you look upon it, can leave no doubt of Mr. Ford's triumph.

There is nothing else to be ranked with this, but there is other work of lesser importance: Mr. Gilbert's busts, large in treatment, individual in character, with here and there, in the lace ruffles or wand of some high official, the minute decorative detail of which he is a master; Mr. Harry Bates's long, narrow, low relief of Endymion and Selene, and his small silver door-knocker (for, like Mr. Gilbert, he is the accomplished decorator as well as sculptor); small bronzes by Mr. John M. Swan; examples of Mr. Frampton, Mr. Pomeroy, Mr. Pegram. But it is impossible to go through the list, not for lack, but for excess, of material. When I glance over my catalogue, I find page after page in the painting galleries with blank margins; in the two sculpture rooms there is scarce a name without an accompanying note. If only Medicis instead of Guelphs

reigned in England, modern London could be made a fair rival of the Florence of the Renaissance. N. N.

Notes.

Mr. Charlemagne Tower, Jr., of Philadelphia, is engaged upon a work on Lafayette in the American Revolution, and will be obliged to any one possessing letters of Lafayette written during that struggle who will send copies of them to him, in care of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will publish in book form six essays on the theme, "What, if any, changes in existing plans are necessary to secure an equitable distribution of the burden of taxation for the support of national, State, and municipal governments?" Three of them won the prizes offered by the publishers of *Public Opinion* for the best essays on this question; and the other three were favorably considered.

"How to Get Good Judges" is the subject of a "study of the judicial systems of the States, with a plan for a scientific judicial system," by John A. Wright of the San Francisco bar. The volume will be published in that city by the S. Carson Company.

Ginn & Co. have in press 'Selections for Memorizing,' for school use, by Superintendents Sherman Williams and L. C. Foster; and 'Addison's Criticisms on Paradise Lost,' edited by Prof. Albert S. Cook of Yale.

Dr. George Curry's 'Manual of English History for Schools,' edited by Dr. W. J. Rolfe, will be soon brought out by Charles E. Merrill & Co.

There can be only words of welcome for the new edition of Jane Austen's novels which Roberts Bros., Boston, have begun to issue in a size convenient for the hand and in a style most agreeable to the eye. The series opens with 'Sense and Sensibility' in two volumes, each provided with a delicately designed and etched frontispiece; and this has been followed by 'Pride and Prejudice,' likewise in two volumes and illustrated. The type is clear, the binding wholly commendable for its taste. It is safe to augur a revival of popularity for these classics from their taking garb.

Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London, have added to their Social Science Series 'Principles of Social Economy,' by Yves Guyot; 'The Destitute Alien,' by Arnold White; 'The Student's Marx,' by Edward Aveling; and 'The Dawn of Radicalism,' by J. Bowles Daly, all imported by the Scribners. We may mention at the same time 'The Alien Invasion,' by W. H. Wilkins, which is published by Methuen & Co. Of these volumes the most considerable is that of M. Guyot, which, however, is more valuable for its facts than for its principles, containing much information as to the industry of the past as well as the present not hitherto conveniently accessible. But economists will be interested in examining the forms in which the author expresses the fundamentals of political economy. Mr. Daly's book is a readable presentation of various incidents in the lives of Horne, Wilkes, and other warriors in the struggle for free speech in England, and gives a view of the political history of the period. Dr. Aveling presents to students a comparatively brief analysis of a part of Marx's 'Capital,' which, considering the enormous dimensions of that work, must be commended as a "labor-saving contrivance," in spite of the obnoxious character of such inventions to the economic theories of these writers. Dr. Aveling, it may be explained, considers the work of Marx to be on a par with that of Darwin, and regards it as not doubtful that the nineteenth century will be remembered, as far as its thinking is concerned, by these two names. The two works on the immigration of aliens into Great Britain are not of a character to throw much light upon the problem involved or to aid in its solution, and can be of service only to those who desire a somewhat emotional treatment of statistical investigations.

Prof. Alfred Marshall has published through Macmillan an adaptation of the first volume of his large work to the needs of junior students, under the title, 'Elements of Economics of Industry; being the first volume of "Elements of Economics."' It is certainly to be desired that Prof. Marshall should cultivate the art of abbreviated expression, but it seems to us a mistake for him to expend his energy in adapting for young students the first part of an uncompleted work. If these students are to suspend their study of economics, after mastering this book, until the remainder of the subject has been completed and adapted for them, they must remain for a considerable time, and (*absit omen*) possibly always, with a most imperfect and unsystematized knowledge of the science.

The Swiss devices known as the "Referendum" and the "Initiative" are described by Mr. J. W. Sullivan in an essay entitled 'Direct Legislation,' issued by the Twentieth Century Publishing Co. The appearance of such a book is not without political significance, and Mr. Sullivan's collection of data is convenient to have; but he does not seem to us to make out a case for transplanting these institutions to America.

A compact manual entitled 'American Citizenship and the Right of Suffrage in the United States' has been prepared by Mr. Taliesin Evans of Oakland, Cal. The subject of citizenship in this country, State and Federal, on account of the negro and Chinese troubles and the vast immigration from every known part of the earth, is a highly complicated one, and this treatise, which is based upon statutes and judicial decisions, will be found convenient for reference.

Mr. W. M. F. Round, Secretary of the Prison Association of New York, is writing a series of "Papers for Parents," to be published by the Order of St. Christopher, No. 135 East Fifteenth Street. The wide experience of Mr. Round with young criminals has impressed upon him the responsibility of parents for much of the misbehavior of their sons, and in the first of these tracts he insists upon parental duty with so much earnestness and force as to bespeak for the whole series an extended circulation.

The Department of Political and Economic Science of the Brooklyn Institute is considering a proposition recently laid before it to establish in that city a School of Political Science, fully equipped with both elementary and advanced courses of instruction in civics, economics, sociology, and history, at merely nominal tuition rates. The Executive Committee of the Department have had the matter referred to them with power; and if sufficient financial encouragement is offered by citizens of Brooklyn and others interested in the movement, and if properly qualified instructors can be engaged, elementary courses in some or all of the subjects above named may be offered in 1892–'93.

We called attention some months ago to the proposed memorial in honor of the late Prof. von Holtzendorff of Munich. We may say again that in order to pay proper tribute to his services as an author on penal and reformatory laws and institutions, it is intended to raise a fund with which to encourage active investigations of the same subjects. A large committee has been formed, consisting of representatives of the leading public bodies engaged in the work to which Holtzendorff gave his whole life. A recent report gives a list of subscriptions thus far received, and not one appears from the United States. The whole amount collected up to date was slightly more than $3,000, and to this there have been subscriptions of $100 each from the German Lawyers' Convention, the Legal Society of Berlin, and that of Munich. The Grand Duke of Baden heads the list with $25, an anonymous subscriber gave $250, but the 193 subscriptions are mostly of very modest amounts. The list of subscribers includes representatives from Germany and France, from Sweden and Denmark, from Russia and Greece, from Switzerland and Holland, from Great Britain and Italy, from Spain and Austria.

'The Investigations of the New England Meteorological Society for 1890' have lately been issued as a reprint from the "Annals of the Harvard College Observatory," in which they have been published for several years past. The present number contains the usual tables and summary for the year, with a particular account of the cyclonic storms (or "areas of low pressure" of the weather maps) that determined New England weather. This is followed by a tabulated statement of the mean temperature and precipitation in five-year periods for all New England stations from the earliest records, by J. Warren Smith of the Weather Bureau, who for two years past has been detailed as assistant in the weather-service work of the Society. The Lawrence, Mass., tornado of July, 1890, is discussed in three chapters by W. M. Davis of Harvard College, H. H. Clayton of Blue Hill Observatory, and H. F. Mills of Lawrence. This paper is illustrated by views of the destruction caused by the tornado and by a map of its path.

The future work of the New England Meteorological Society will be limited to its meetings and investigations. The duty of collecting weather records and publishing them in monthly bulletins has been lately transferred to the National Weather Bureau of the Department of Agriculture, with the object of continuing this undertaking under the title of the New England Weather Service, whose headquarters will be in Boston. In this connection mention may be made of a conference of the officers of agricultural colleges and experiment stations held in Boston on May 5, for the purpose of coördinating their work in the best interests of applied meteorology. The subjects considered were: (1) extension of observations to be gathered and published by the New England Weather Service; (2) distribution of weather predictions furnished by the National Weather Bureau and announced by flags and other signals; (3) investigations, among which the protection of tender crops from frost received the fullest consideration. An organization of limited membership was formed, under the title of the New England Association for Applied Meteorology; Prof. G. H. Whitcher of Durham, N. H., being chosen President, and J. Warren Smith, Secretary.

Among the essays recently published in the *Forschungen zur Deutschen Landes- und Volkskunde*, is one by Dr. F. Wahnschaffe of the German Geological Survey, entitled 'Die Ursachen der Oberflächengestaltung des Norddeutschen Flachlandes.' This deals almost exclusively with the glacial deposits to which the form of the North German lowlands is so largely due. It is the best general discussion

of the region that has yet appeared. An excellent review of the essay comes from the competent hands of Prof. R. D. Salisbury in the May number of the *American Geologist.*

A new monthly, to be called the *Republican Magazine*, is to be launched in this city next month. The editor, Mr. F. B. D. Curtis, is vouched for as a good partisan, and the arched design on the cover shows "Protection to Labor and Industry" to be the keystone of his doctrine.

The International News Company sends us *Fashions of To-day*, the London edition in English of the innovating French monthly, *La Mode Pratique.* What strikes the eye even of the uninitiated is the plates, whether colored or in the text, which are obviously from photographs of real women and children dressed for the occasion, and not the ridiculous simpering figures of the conventional fashion-plate.

Under the title, "La Comédie d'aujourd'hui," M. F. Lhomme makes a savage attack in *L'Art* for April 15 on Pierre Loti, apropos of his recent indiscreet reception address before the French Academy, in which Octave Feuillet "was so badly embalmed," his successor "having found nothing better to say of him than to compare him to himself." M. Viaud's provinciality as the cause of his bad manners is well rubbed into him, and it is predicted that his successor will find that "la saugrenuité, l'attirance et l'endeuillement," which Loti has made French words, are all that remains of him.

We learn that a tablet has been placed on the front of the old Paine house at Lewes, England. The inscription, written by Mr. Moncure D. Conway, is as follows: "Thomas Paine, b. 1737, d. 1809, author of 'Common Sense,' 'Rights of Man,' 'The Age of Reason,' a founder of American independence with pen and sword, lived in this house, as Exciseman and Tobacconist, 1768–1774."

—The fourteenth general meeting of the American Library Association just held at Lakewood, with adjournments to Baltimore and Washington, differed from previous conferences in that the short time of preparation had led the managers to decide against having papers and to arrange for introduced talks. The exclusion of papers (which, however, was not absolute, for the President's address and two or three others were read) gave great liveliness to the proceedings. Mr. Fletcher presided, as was to be expected, with vigor and snap. Discussion was interested and eager, and, notwithstanding the absence of papers, had frequently to be cut short in order to give a chance to all of the subjects set down. For there was the old difficulty of a too-crowded programme, crowded this year in part with subjects that could not be postponed—the revision of the Constitution, the World's Fair library exhibit, and the Public Documents Bill pending in Congress. The discussion of the first and last was finished, but they are not subjects that will give permanent value to the published proceedings. The second, unluckily, was little considered. With the feeling that a large body could not properly decide the details of an exhibit, the matter was referred to a committee with power to act, when a better course would have been to invite suggestions by a full discussion in committee of the whole, with the understanding that no vote should be taken. At every conference some subject has attracted chief attention. In the early times fiction was a burning question. Twice—at Washington and at San Francisco—architecture has taken the lead. On one occasion Poole's Index was born, or rather reborn; on another, Fletcher's Essay Index; on another, the A. L. A. Catalogue—a project for a select annotated list of books suitable for a small library, which roused the greatest enthusiasm, but which, for want of a worker who could devote a great deal of time to it, has never come to anything. The publishing section, which, with limited means, has done a little excellent work, was instituted at Milwaukee. The proper distribution of public documents to public libraries shared with architecture the attention of the San Francisco meeting. At Fabyan's the coöperation of trustees was enlisted, and steps were enthusiastically taken to raise an endowment fund for publication. This year Mr. George Iles proposed that a committee of the Association should select, from publications announced as forthcoming, books for review, send them, if possible, sheet by sheet as printed, to competent and just reviewers for the preparation of a short critical notice to be printed on a card or cards following the title-card in the library catalogue. This note he would have state whether the book is elementary or advanced, compare it with others in the same field, telling wherein it is better or not so good, and note important errors. At the same time a fuller review should be prepared for simultaneous issue in a syndicate of newspapers throughout America.

—Mr. Iles sees several advantages in his plan, and first an increase in the responsibility of authorship; for though reviews biassed by friendship or enmity or interest, or simply irresponsible and incompetent, will still continue to appear, here, he hopes, will be a body of criticism to which the serious public will turn more and more for guidance. There would, too, be an increase in the responsibility of reviewing, from the signature of the reviews; and, most important of all, there would be an increase in the result of study and research, because it would be easier to confine them to really valuable books, and the time wasted in finding out what is valuable would be lessened. Better books would be selected by the reader from the stock in the library, and better books would be bought by the librarian with less expenditure of time. Moreover, these notice-cards distributed to libraries would constitute a select bibliography of each subject, and would guide purchase when at any future time it should become possible to fill up gaps in the library's collections. The greatest gain, however, would be for students, enabling them to see quickly which are the best books on their subjects. Of course, if the scheme should succeed for current literature, it would lead to going over past productions, and the result would in effect be the publication at last of the much-desired and long-delayed A. L. A. Catalogue. Unhappily, such a work cannot be performed for love alone, nor would author or publisher consent to the piecemeal publication of a work, nor would impartial reviews be procurable if signed, nor would they be written on this condition by the most competent experts, nor is the editorial discrimination capable of assigning so vast a range of works to the proper critics a common possession. In short, we must regard the scheme as purely Utopian. A far simpler plan would be to select a half-dozen leading critical Reviews, and record on the title-card their judgment as pro or con, in the manner of our pronouncing dictionaries. The next Conference will be held at Chicago in July. It is hoped that it will be international. Many English librarians have spoken of coming, and undoubtedly at least commissioners will be present from Germany, Italy, and France.

—The annual report of the Providence Public Library, just published, gives some reason for the belief that an important change in the use of public libraries is gradually taking place. Mr. Foster's statistics show that the number of books circulated has increased during the past year. An examination of the figures reveals the fact that this increase is wholly in the books consulted in the library, and that the number taken for home use has fallen off more than a thousand. This fact by itself would be of slight importance, but an examination of the report of the Boston Public Library adds materially to its significance. In this latter institution the number of books taken for home use has decreased during the year by more than 100,000, apparently a full tenth of the average circulation. This was equally true of the central library and of all its branches, the deficit ranging from a little more than 1,000 in the Roxbury branch to more than 40,000 in the Lower Hall, although there was an increase of more than 17,000 volumes used in the Bates Hall (not taken from the building). It is impossible to tell whether the "hall use" of the branches has increased, as the practice now prevails of including under this head the newspapers and magazines read. By this questionable means, it may be noted here, the sum total of the circulation is swelled to an extraordinary amount. By comparison with the figures in the report for 1889, it will nevertheless be evident that the true amount of the circulation of the library was, not, as would naturally be inferred from the report, 1,812,432, but about a million. These facts seem clearly to show that both this library and, in a far less degree, that at Providence are being gradually used less by the people at large and more by scholars and persons making special researches. This may be accounted for in two ways: the reading of magazines and papers is probably largely taking the place of book-reading, and it may also be a fact that too great a proportion of the library funds is used for the purchase of books for special students, to the neglect of the legitimate demand for popular books, not fiction. It would be interesting to learn from the Boston Public Library, with its liberal practice of purchasing books on request, whether in this particular it treats the general reader and the specialist impartially.

—It would be easy to dilate on the contents of the sumptuous quarto volume entitled 'The History of the Centennial Celebration of the Inauguration of George Washington as First President of the United States' (D. Appleton & Co.). Two-thirds of its 551 pages of text is taken up with the narrative, by several hands, of the inception and conduct of the brilliant celebration in this city in 1889. Introductory to this is a straightforward account, with many original documents, of the ratification of the Constitution, the slow gathering of the First Congress, the election of Washington and Adams, their respective journeys, amid popular demonstrations, to New York, and the inaugural ceremony, from the pen of Mr. Clarence W. Bowen, the editor of the volume; and a second chapter, involving even greater labor, of biographical sketches of the members of the First Congress, compiled by Mr. Paul Leicester Ford. These hundred pages are profusely illustrated with heliotype portraits in a most interesting variety, and so are the pages which follow, not to speak of numerous cuts and plates of historic buildings and relics, to which belong the fifth chapter, on the Loan Exhibition of portraits and relics at the Metropolitan

Opera-house, by Mr. William A. Coffin, the efficient manager. From the galleries and cases of this unrivalled collection a large part of the material for illustration was obtained, but much had to be sought abroad. Nearly 150 pages of notes on the portraits, by the editor, and an admirable index in 121 pages by Mr. Robert H. Kelby of the New York Historical Society, complete the work, which the Messrs. Appleton have printed, without profit to themselves, in a noble style, and made a monument of the mechanic art of the day. The History itself preserves for posterity one of the few occasions on which New Yorkers feel the existence of a civic and a public spirit not quite submerged by an alien population and a government by the dangerous classes for the dangerous classes. It also worthily embalms the discourse of Bishop Potter, recalling forgotten standards of official honor and official trust as exemplified for all time by the first President of the Republic.

—Mr. Bowen's notes on the portraits deserve very high praise. He enumerates at the outset the series here reproduced, as far as possible from originals, showing a total of nearly 550. Of these there are 208 which represent 78 of the 96 members of the First Congress—a very remarkable proportion to be thus commemorated, and indicative, it may fairly be said, of the station and quality of the public men in question. There are 80 portraits of great ladies of the time. Washington's face is repeated 29 times, Jefferson's 21, Hamilton's 16, Adams's 14; but Franklin's 53. Mr. Bowen wisely refrains from any attempt to pronounce on the value as likenesses of this vast array of paintings and statuary, but the grouping enables one to discover the mannerisms of the more prolific artists, like Trumbull, Stuart, and C. W. Peale, and to form a judgment as to their respective ability and credibility. For the rest, he cites a good deal of family testimony and tradition, which may be taken for what it is worth. Noticeable is Josiah Quincy's well-grounded opinion that Savage's portraits of Washington, though not the best art, were the best likenesses. It is a pity that the display adopted in the notes on Washington, by which each portrait is named in order and in a line by itself, so that it is easy to turn back to the print of it, was not observed throughout; especially as so many more portraits are recorded in the notes than are exhibited in heliotype. A final word must be given to the instantaneous "process" views in the text, which will transmit to posterity the features, figures, presence, and action of the dignitaries of the present day, from President Harrison down, together with the contemporary aspect of the harbor and streets of New York, the shipping, etc., etc. All concerned in this laborious production should regard it with satisfaction and receive for it the grateful acknowledgments of their fellow-citizens.

—Prof. H. Tallichet sends us a pamphlet, reprinted from part iv. of *Dialect Notes*, entitled "A Contribution towards a Vocabulary of Spanish and Mexican Words Used in Texas." He has collected the words "among people, mostly Americans, who had spent most of their life in the State—surveyors, cattlemen, prospectors, land agents, and old settlers on the border, who used the words introduced as they would words already naturalized in English." The result is an enumeration of something like 175 words, almost all of which relate to the commoner points of contact between the receding Mexican and the advancing English element. Thus there are many names of ordinary plants and animals, many others referring to the processes of agriculture (particularly horse and cattle-breeding) and to housekeeping, and a goodly proportion to weapons and the ruder forms of justice. In fact, the vocabulary is highly suggestive of the degree of civilization and the terms of intercourse of the two races at the time when the *lingua franca* sprang into being of which the remains on the American side are here given. As regards pronunciation, Prof. Tallichet appears to be under some misapprehension in respect to the variations from the recognized Spanish standard which are common in Mexico, and, indeed, in all Spanish America, and so to have attributed some corruptions to Texas which really have their origin elsewhere. For instance, the elision of *d*, especially between two vowels, the sharp sound given to *c* and *z* before *e* and *i*, and the sounding of *ll* like *y*, are each the ordinary thing in all Spanish America. They are peculiarities of the Andalusian dialect, and point to the fact that the majority of the early Spanish explorers and settlers came from the southern provinces of Spain. *Tresillo* is called "a Mexican game of cards," but Mexico probably took it from Spain, where it has long been a common and popular game. Under *Zopilote* (turkey buzzard), we read "the national bird of Mexico." This is rather hard on those Mexican designers who have had no better luck, it seems, in representing *their* eagle than our own artists who turned out our "buzzard dollars." Prof. Tallichet can never have seen those filthy scavengers of Vera Cruz which are known as "zopilotes." His contribution, however, is one of great interest and real value.

McMASTER'S THIRD VOLUME.

A History of the People of the United States from the Revolution to the Civil War. By John Bach McMaster. In five volumes. Vol. III. D. Appleton & Co. 1892.

At the inception of his projected 'History of the People of the United States,' to be comprised in five volumes, Prof. McMaster assured us that while much in the course of his narrative must needs be written about wars, conspiracies, and rebellions, about Presidents, Congresses, embassies, and the rise or fall of great parties in the nation, yet the history of "the people" would be his "chief theme," and that at every stage of the progress "which separates the America of Washington and Adams from the America in which we live," it would be the author's purpose to describe "the dress, the occupations, the amusements, the literary canons of the times; to note the changes of manners and morals; to trace the growth of that humane spirit which abolished imprisonment for debt and reformed the discipline of prisons and jails," etc., etc. In the volume before us, the third in his projected series, the writer brings his narrative down to the outbreak of the war of 1812 with England, thus allowing himself, according to his plan, only two volumes in which to recount the political and social history of the eventful period which extends from 1812 to 1860. It becomes plain, in the presence of this fact, that there is some defect in the original projection of the work, or that there will be some want of symmetry and ensemble in its execution.

Indeed, the want of symmetry and ensemble becomes apparent in the volume before us, devoting in it, as the writer does, so much more attention to the purely political than to the distinctively social aspects of American history. This inversion of the author's original purpose seems only the less necessary in view of the fact that, on the political side, he travels over the same ground which has been so carefully and critically covered by Mr. Henry Adams in his copious history of the same period. Mr. Adams does his work so thoroughly that little more than a slender sheaf can be expected to reward the industry of the gleaner who follows him in quest of new materials, while, if regard be had exclusively to a political appreciation of the same facts, the views of the two historians, so far as we can discern, would seem to be generally coincident.

It is certain that this coincidence of opinion comes to expression in the judgment pronounced by each on the resultant tendencies of the two great political parties which divided public sentiment in the United States from the formation of the Constitution to the end of Jefferson's first term. Prof. McMaster sees as clearly as Mr. Adams that, with the opening of the new century, there came "what, in the toasts of the day, was fondly called the triumph of democratic principles." He sees, too, with Mr. Adams, that "it was a real triumph, and not a mere party success; that new ideas did take hold on the minds of men; that new truths were discovered; that society did go forward; that a great reform in manners, in customs, in institutions, in laws was under way; and that the day when there should be in this country a government of the people, by the people, was beginning to break." Yet he seems to hold with Mr. Adams that this *avénement* of the American democracy was poorly expressed in the administrative measures of President Jefferson, and that if a fusion of the Federalist and the Republican parties had been practically effected at the close of Jefferson's first term, it was a fusion which should be ascribed "not merely to the republicanizing of the Federalists, but to the federalizing of the Republicans." "After the lapse of four years [under Jefferson], the Government," says Prof. McMaster, "was as Federal in principle as it had been in the days of the Black Cockade and the 'Addressers.' Never was the Constitution more broadly construed than when the Judiciary Act was repealed and the purchase of Louisiana effected. Never was the Executive power more extended than when Jefferson was given despotic sway over the Territory of Orleans. Never was the Constitution more impudently disregarded than on the day when one rate of tonnage duty was laid on the ports of Louisiana and a very different one on the ports of the States."

Mr. Adams reminds us, in his 'Life of Albert Gallatin,' that in recent times there has been a general disposition to explain away and to soften down the opinions and passions of party contention in the United States during the Administration of John Adams. But he insists that such a treatment of history "makes both parties ridiculous," and he further reminds us that the two brilliant men, Hamilton on the one side and Jefferson on the other, who then led the two great divisions of national thought, were not mere declaimers; that they never for a moment misunderstood each other; that they were both in deadly earnest, and that each saw that no compromise ever was or ever would be possible between them. "Jefferson meant that the American system should be a democracy, and he would rather have let the world perish than that this principle, which to him represented all that man was worth, should fail. Hamilton considered democracy a fatal

curse, and meant to stop its progress." Where there was such a marked antithesis between the typical Federalism of Hamilton and the typical Republicanism of Jefferson, and where it is now so easy to see that the latter was working with the tendencies of the future, it would seem that Prof. McMaster, in confining himself more strictly to the special motive of his work, might have shown that these tendencies, as then manifested, were social and evolutionary rather than purely political, since they did not come to full effect in the purely administrative measures of the man who, above all others, was their professed exemplar. In this direction there was room for a really luminous *aperçu* which might have shed much useful light on the real significance of Jeffersonian Democracy. As it is, we are landed by Prof. McMaster in a sort of *cul-de-sac*, where we are told on one page that the "triumph of Democratic principles at the opening of the present century was a real triumph, and not a mere party success," while on another page we are told that, at the close of Jefferson's first term, "scarcely a Federal institution was missed, and not a Federal principle had been condemned." Such a summarizing of principles is a little too summary.

And sometimes in summarizing the substance of legislative debates on a topic of contention between the two parties, Prof. McMaster hardly does full justice to the respective attitude of each, not at all from any want of candor, but from want of care in making his abstracts. We were especially struck with this want of care in noting his abstract of the debate had in Congress on the proceedings taken to give effect to the Louisiana purchase and to provide for the temporary government of the new Territory. The Federalists had especially inveighed against the constitutionality of the seventh article of the treaty with France, which provided that for twelve years French and Spanish merchant ships should be allowed to enter the port of New Orleans "without being subject to any other or greater duty on merchandise, or other and greater tonnage, than paid by citizens of the United States." The Federalists denounced this article as being in palpable violation of the provision in the Constitution that "no preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another." It was charged, and truly charged, that this regulation gave a "preference" to French and Spanish ships entering the port of New Orleans over French and Spanish ships entering the port of New York or Boston; because at the latter the tariff duties and tonnage rates prescribed by law continued to be enforced, to the comparative disadvantage of Northern and Eastern commerce. Prof. McMaster tells us that the Republicans sought to parry the force of this objection by alleging that "the Constitution is made for the States and not for the Territories"; that "it does not extend to the Territories," and that a "preference" inhibited as to "the ports of *one State* over those of another" did not carry with it a like inhibition as to a port in *one of the Territories*.

It was impossible that the Republicans should have argued that "the Constitution did not extend to the Territories," when, as Prof. McMaster shows, they argued that Congress, under the Constitution, had plenary power over the Territories. And they made more than a merely technical defence of the "preference" given to the port of a "Territory." It was a preference, they said, given by treaty stipulation and not by Congressional enactment; it was a preference given in exception to statute law and not in violation of the Constitution; and, finally, considered as a preference given to the port of a *Territory*, it wrought no disparagement to the common weal, because the Territories were the common property of the United States—a public stock in which they all had a common share. Moreover, it was argued by John Randolph, in his usual *tu-quoque* and nagging style, that the mouths of the Federalists were stopped on this score, as in their support of Jay's treaty they had given their assent to this pretension of the treaty-making power in its extremest form, seeing that the third article of that treaty gave a "preference" to the ports of certain *States* adjacent to Canada over the ports of other *States*.

The author, as was to be expected, continues to make a plentiful use of contemporary newspapers and of pamphlet literature as sources of his history. Duane's *Aurora*, the Scioto *Gazette*, the Alexandria *Expositor*, figure in the foot-notes side by side with the 'Anas' of Jefferson, with the 'Cabinet Memoranda,' with the 'Annals of Congress.' We do not at all object to the use of these sources. It is only to the too uncritical use of them that we some times feel tempted to take exception. It may be well that the gravity of history should be sometimes relieved by picturesque descriptions like those which are here drawn from the newspapers: to tell us how, in the month of September, 1804, one of the most terrible cyclones which have ever visited our coast appeared at the Bahamas on the 5th of that month; how two days later it struck Charleston and passed up the seaboard to Maine; how "spires of churches, roofs of houses, trees, buildings, went down before it"; how "stage-coaches were overturned, ships were beaten to pieces, docks and warehouses destroyed, and half the rice crop and what little the caterpillar had left of the cotton was destroyed"; how "Fort Greene, off Savannah, was all but blown away"; how "a cannon weighing two tons was moved forty feet, a bar of lead weighing three hundred pounds was moved a hundred feet, and the whole of Cockspur Island was covered with muskets"; how "the water was banked up till it was ten feet deeper at low tide than it ever had been at high tide"; how, "when the floods went down, Gunboat No. 1 was left high and dry in a cornfield eight miles from her moorings"; how the commanders of gunboats were thereafter cautioned by the Federalist wits to "beware of cornfields," and how, at a great dinner given to Rufus King, in Boston, the merry symposiarch set the table in a roar with a toast to "Gunboat No. 1—If our gunboats are of no use upon the water, may they at least be the best upon earth." In the case of newspaper chronicles like these, no harm is done to the essential "truth of history" if the cannon lifted by the cyclone might have weighed a little less than two tons, or if it was moved a little less than forty feet. It relieves the tedium of pedestrian prose to know that the newspaper wags of the time sometimes "dropped into poetry" over the humors of the embargo; that one writer thought it ought to be called the "Dambargo"; that one read it backwards and got the phrase, "O-grab-me"; that another made an anagram of it and got from it the "mobrage" which it was so well fitted to produce.

The Tory reviewers of *Blackwood* complained, we remember, of the too free use which Macaulay made of song and ditty in compiling the praises of King William. But it seems to us entirely proper that the historian of a people should make requisition for his historic contingents on newspaper scraps, on popular facetiæ, on electioneering cries, on *quicquid agunt homines*, so far as they can furnish a genuine contribution to the age and body of the time. But where statements of alleged fact are made which, instead of moving in "local color," are seen to involve grave reflections on public or private character, it is obvious that the chronicles of the newspaper must be carefully sifted and conscientiously verified before they are allowed to enter into the staple of the narrative. Prof. McMaster, we are sure, has sedulously sought to observe this canon of historical criticism. But it seems to us that he sometimes follows "the Froudes and Macaulays of the press" a little too incautiously. For instance, in writing down Judge Harry Innes (his name should be so spelled and not "Innis") as a Kentuckian who, in 1806, "had long been a pensioner of Spain; who had been as deep as Wilkinson in the Spanish plot, and had been charged with conspiracy by the *Western World*," Prof. McMaster not only indulges in an anti-climax, but gives the imprimatur of history to two counts of an indictment which were never proved, if they were ever distinctly formulated in the newspaper controversies of the day. We suppose ourselves to be pretty familiar with the charges brought against Judge Innes by John Wood, the editor of the *Western World*, and by Humphrey Marshall, the historian of Kentucky; and we can easily believe, with Judge Bibb, an eye and ear-witness in the discussions of that period, that Judge Innes yielded too far to the temper of his times, and to the warmth of his friendship for Judge Sebastian, a convicted "pensioner of Spain." But in view of the fact that Innes declined "unequivocally" to engage in the Spanish plot in 1797, and then declared, when approached with an offer from the Spanish agent, that he would not be concerned, "either directly or indirectly, in any attempt that may be made to separate the western country from the United States," we think the reader is entitled to ask what authority there is for now placing a stigma upon him as one who in 1806 "had long been a pensioner of Spain." Judge Innes, it is known, in view of the charge that he had at one time been engaged in the Spanish plot, asked the Kentucky Legislature to call officially for an investigation of his conduct by the constituted authorities of the United States; and when the matter was thus officially brought to the notice of the popular branch of Congress, the committee to whom it was referred made report that the accusation was not sustained by sufficient proofs to call for further procedure.

We have been specially pleased with the sixteenth chapter of this volume, in which Prof. McMaster describes the uses that have been made of the public lands in the United States; with the seventeenth chapter, in which he celebrates the spread of democratic ideas under our system of government; and with the twenty-second chapter, in which he portrays with much detail the economic state of the people from the close of the Revolution to the end of Jefferson's first term. We are at a loss, however, to perceive what relevancy the last twelve pages of this twenty-second chapter can be said to have to the rubric under which they are placed, when, describing, as they do, the Indian wars of the period at the West and at the South, they might have more appropriately served as a preface to the next chapter, in which the Government is described as "making ready for war" with England.

The proof-reading of the volume, in spite of

the list of "errata" with which it is accompanied, leaves much to be desiderated on the score of accuracy. Where reference is made to the Disunion essays of "Pelham, Gustavus, and Raleigh" in the *Connecticut Courant* of 1797 and later, we presume that "Raleigh" is miswritten for "Burleigh," a famous Disunion pseudonym in that journal. The name of Thomas Pinckney, our Minister at London under Washington, is misspelled "Thomas Pinkney," and the name of William Pinkney, our Minister at London under Jefferson, is sometimes spelled correctly and sometimes misspelled "William Pinckney." The name of James Sloan on page 230 is elongated into "Sloane" on page 235. On page 552 we are told that the Federalists of Dedham, Massachusetts, at a Fourth of July celebration, toasted Jefferson as "Jeroboam, the son of Nebat, who made Israel to sin," and Madison as "Nadab, the son of Jeroboam, who walked in the way of his father." A few lines lower down we find Madison, as "Nadab," changed by the historian into Madison, the "Nahob" of the Dedham Federalists!

WAGNERIANA.

Wagner as I Knew Him. By Ferdinand Praeger. Longmans, Green & Co. Pp. 334.

Richard Wagner; A Sketch of His Life and Works. By Franz Muncker. Translated from the German by D. Landman. Revised by the Author. Illustrations by Heinrich Nisle. Bamberg: Buchner. 1891. Pp. iv, 106.

FERDINAND PRAEGER, who was a personal friend of Wagner's for over a quarter of a century, died eight months ago, before he had been able to put the finishing touches to his reminiscences. He was himself a prolific, if a minor, composer (The "Praeger Album" contains forty-eight of his pianoforte pieces, and among his MSS. are as many as thirty-six sonatas), but, like many of his class, he will be remembered chiefly by his contributions to criticism and biography. Although he was born in the same city as Wagner, and only two years later, the two never met personally until Wagner went to London, in 1855, to conduct the Philharmonic concerts. Praeger had been in that city for twenty years, busy as a teacher and with his pen, one of the papers which he supplied with London letters being Schumann's *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik.* He had long enjoyed a special source of information about Wagner, namely, the revolutionary Roeckel, Wagner's most intimate friend in Dresden, who was locked up for thirteen years —a fate which Wagner would have shared had he not escaped by what he himself describes as a mere accident. Long before he knew Wagner, Praeger corresponded with Roeckel, whose letters, printed in this volume, throw some new light on an important episode in Wagner's life.

Praeger's book begins at the beginning of this life. Less than half of it (from page 218) is devoted to a narrative of Praeger's personal experiences with Wagner, and the title of it might, therefore, be called a misnomer, were it not for the fact that the well-known biographic facts which take up the first seventeen chapters are interlarded with various anecdotes related to Praeger by Wagner himself, and not embodied in the biographies of Glasenapp, Jullien, Dannreuther, and others. New is the anecdote (p. 17) about Wagner's reckless escapade in climbing through a ventilator on to the school-house roof to get a cap which a classmate, in his joy at an unexpected holiday, had thrown up. Later in life, "the roof of the Kreuzschule was not infrequently referred to by me; and when Wagner proposed some venturesome undertaking, I would say, 'You are on the roof again.' 'Ah, but I shall get safely down again, too,' was the answer, accompanied by his pleasant, boyish laughter." A charming glimpse of Wagner's domestic character is given on the following page, where Praeger justly attaches a biographic significance to the scene in which *Siegfried* asks *Mime*, "Who was my mother?" "Every allusion to his mother in this scene is expressed in the orchestra with an ethereal refinement and originality of conception to which one finds no parallel in the whole range of music of the past. I verily believe that Richard Wagner never loved any one so deeply as his 'liebes Mütterchen.' All his references to her of his childhood period were of affection amounting almost to idolatry."

Wagner worshipped other women besides his mother, but his recorded love affairs are not as numerous as those of some other composers, chiefly, perhaps, because he married at the early age of twenty-three. Yet the actress Minna Planer, whom he married, was not his first love. That distinction belongs to a Jewess of rare Oriental beauty, named Leah David. The unprepossessing appearance of the Polish Jews who came to trade in Leipzig had inspired Wagner early in life with an aversion towards that race, but the beautiful Leah for the time changed all that. Wagner frequently called at her house, where his passion was hardly suspected, he being looked upon as a mere boy. One day, at a soirée musicale, a young Dutchman, a cousin of Leah, played on the piano. He had technical skill and little else, but was nevertheless overwhelmed with flattery. This aroused the jealousy of Wagner, who launched out about "absence of soul," etc., and, on being laughed at, wound up with some rude remarks and left the house. The next day he received a letter from the young Jewess, announcing her engagement to his rival. It would be absurd, however, to suppose that this disappointment had anything to do with Wagner's subsequent notorious writings on "Judaism in Music." Praeger devotes a whole chapter, a very sensible one, to this question, and, while showing wherein Wagner went too far, he nevertheless points out and proves that never was charge more groundless than that which attributed Wagner's attacks on Jewish composers, especially Meyerbeer, to jealousy born of anger at the success of his rivals. After quoting one of his paragraphs on Meyerbeer, Praeger says:

"This criticism upon Meyerbeer is caustic and unsparing. Yet even now public opinion has testified to its veracity. It is not making too bold a statement to say that no musician of tas e, no musician—it matters not of what nationality or school—of to-day will accord Meyerbeer that exalted position he occupied when Wagner had the temerity to show the sham and unreal art in the man."

To which may be added that nothing, surely, could be more ridiculous and dishonest than the postulates of certain critics that Wagner should not have criticised Meyerbeer's music unfavorably, because that composer had aided him a little in getting his "Rienzi" accepted at Dresden. Gratitude is a virtue, but justice is above it.

The most valuable chapters in Praeger's book relate to the revolution in Dresden and to Wagner's four months in London in 1855. Praeger's account of the Dresden insurrection is much fuller and more graphic than those given in Glasenapp and Jullien, and the following incident, which was told to Praeger by Hainberger, and subsequently corroborated by Wagner, is new:

"It was in the morning, about eight o'clock; the barricade at which Wagner and Hainberger were stationed was about to receive such morning meal as had been prepared, the outposts being kept by a few men and women. Among the latter was a young girl of eighteen, the daughter of a baker belonging to this particular barricade. She stood in sight of all, when, to their amazement, a shot was suddenly heard, a piercing shriek, followed by the fall of the girlish patriot. The miscreant Prussian soldier, one of a detachment in the neighborhood, was caught red-handed and hurried to the barricade. Wagner seized a musket, and, mounting a cart, called out aloud to all: 'Men, will you see your wives and daughters fall in the cause of our beloved country and not avenge their cowardly murder? All who have hearts, all who have the blood and spirit of their forefathers, follow me, and death to the tyrant!'"

The two chapters on Wagner's life in London are of especial interest as showing the true character of the man; for, while in London, Wagner spent much of his time with Praeger, who became a sort of Boswell and host for the time, and minutely noted all his peculiarities: his love of animals, his sincere hatred of sham and commonplace in art, his contempt for fashion in dress and conduct, combined at the same time with a curious love of silks and finery. In a letter to Praeger, Wagner once wrote: "I am luxurious, prodigal, and extravagant; much more than Sardanapalus and all the old emperors put together." Praeger breaks a lance for Wagner's first wife, who, he thinks, has been somewhat misrepresented by biographers. He gives also the programmes with full details of the seven Philharmonic concerts that Wagner conducted in London, including some very amusing criticisms from the leading newspapers. The *Musical World*, for instance, found that "Wagner is not a musician at all," while the *Sunday Times* calls him "a desperate charlatan," adding: "In composition it would be a scandal to compare him with the men of reputation this country possesses." To fully understand the fun of this, one must know that at that time Wagner had already almost completed half of his Trilogy. But to him it was no fun, and he had to console himself with the sympathy and admiration of the Queen, a few personal friends, and a part of the public.

It is no depreciation of Praeger's efforts to say that the most valuable pages in his book are those which contain the numerous letters to him by Wagner here printed for the first time. One of the shortest (p. 315) is also one of the most interesting, for it implies that King Ludwig helped to suggest in Wagner's mind the idea of his last tragedy, "Parsifal": "The King loves me with a love beyond description. . . . He is so strikingly handsome that he might pose as the King of the Jews (and—this in confidence—I am seriously reflecting on the Christian tragedy; possibly something may come of it)."

About a year ago we called attention to the German original of Muncker's little work, and commended the admirable manner in which it combines biography and criticism in a concise sketch of the composer's career as a man and an artist. Prof. Muncker has a far more terse and lucid style than the great majority of German authors, and the translation of his writings into a foreign tongue ought to present no difficulties. The English version now before us has evidently not been done by a person "to the manner born." Not only is the wrong word often used, as "portent" for *import* in

the sentence beginning, "Of what portent is this fact" (p. 37), but the construction is uniformly clumsy, and many-jointed Germanisms stretch their unwieldy length and sprawl over every page. A collector of linguistic curiosities would find here some queer specimens of solecisms illustrative of English, if not "as she is spoke," at least as it ought not to be written. On the very first page of the preface, Glasenapp's Life of Wagner is spoken of as "an *exhausting* book." Such sentences as "a mythically coquettish and catholicly frivolous tendency," "the idea of the original, from all tendencies unmarred folk-legend," "the general, in some of its parts already detailed plan," and "the, by Wagner's opponents unmeritedly exaggerated essay on the jews," are of constant occurrence. This excessive literalness not only obscures the sense and makes the book dreadfully hard reading, but sometimes actually reverses the author's meaning, as, for example, when on p. 20 *nichts weniger als* is rendered "nothing less than" instead of "anything but." The use of small initials instead of capital letters in proper names and adjectives, such as "jews," "german," "french," "european," "viennese," produces an odd and decidedly unpleasant effect. Qualifying phrases are, as a rule, far too remote from the verbs which they are intended to modify: "he set a text-book, which he himself had written, to music"; "he understood to reproduce the atmosphere of sultry sensuality, which lies over the Venusberg, in a masterly manner"; "eyes turned longlingly to France, where the revolutionary war, for some time already, was raging against all, that until now in state and society, in religion, art and science had appeared as law." Surely, it were easy to avoid awkward and often ambiguous constructions of this sort, which even the veriest tyro in literature ought not to commit.

On the whole, Landman's translation is faithful and generally intelligible, and will serve a useful purpose as a source of trustworthy and interesting information to the hosts of American and English tourists who now make periodical pilgrimages to the *caaba* of Wagnerism in the capital city of the former Franconian margravate. The zincographic illustrations, more than thirty in number, comprise portraits of Wagner at different periods of his life, views of the principal houses in which he lived, facsimiles of his handwriting, and of the original score of the "Walküre," a plan of the Bayreuth Theatre, and numerous sketches of the stage scenery of the "Nibelungen" and "Parsifal." These illustrations are the same as those in the German original, but superior to them in artistic execution. There is no table of contents, and the index is not as full as it ought to be, but even this is an improvement on the German volume, which lacks both.

NEW NOVELS.

Grania: the Story of an Island By the Hon. Emily Lawless. 2 vols. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

Jonquille, or The Swiss Smuggler. Translated from the French of T. Combe, by Beatrix L. Tollemache. London: Percival & Co.

Eline Vere. Translated from the Dutch of Louis Couperus, by J. T. Grein. With an introduction by Edmund Gosse. D. Appleton & Co.

San Salvador. By Mary Agnes Tincker. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Capillary Crime, and Other Stories. By F. D. Millet. Harper & Bros.

Miss Lawless has again established her claim to take foremost place among living delineators of Irish life and character. It is refreshing to be able to read through an Irish story without once so much as finding mentioned constabulary, Nationalist, Orangemen, or Land Leaguers. It is a relief in a book relating to the Islands of Aran (to which a map is prefixed), to find that no attempt is made to impose upon us archæological or topographical disquisitions regarding that richest mine of archæology in the United Kingdom. Archæology, scenery, maps, and descriptions, are alone meant to serve the story. In view of Miss Lawless's family predilections (the sister of one of the noblemen who have been in bitterest conflict with the Land movement), the extraordinary fairness of her 'Story of Ireland' has already been commented upon in our columns. 'Hurrish' and 'With Essex in Ireland' still further displayed the same qualities of mind. It appears to us that the present is her ablest work, and, acquainted as we are more or less with the islands, we have read her volumes with unmixed admiration. It would be easy to point out minor mistakes and shortcomings; we might desire that some of the descriptive passages had been somewhat curtailed; but, taken as a whole, the work is admirable, and the author's conceptions of character are true and lifelike. Amid the mists, the storms and sunshine that envelope those far islands, those masses of gray rock, with their superb scenery on island and mainland; amid vestiges of the successive waves of civilization from remotest times, Irish peasants of our day are made to live and move with a truth and fidelity seldom surpassed. The story is of the simplest. The characters are few. There is no plot. We have, it is true, one catastrophe, doubtless suggested by an overwhelming bereavement which notoriously came to the author while the story was in progress. No one could read of the sweet, fierce Grania, of the saintly self-abnegation of Honor, of the bombastic selfishness of Murdoch, the noble gentlemanliness of the elder Durane, without deeper sympathy being evoked for the Irish peasantry and a better understanding of their modes of thought and their lives being impressed upon the mind; and this all without apparent intention or attempt to draw a moral. Therein lies the especial merit of the work. Sad the story is, as are all true stories relating to Ireland. What there is of abiding joy and satisfaction in the lives of persons of the class depicted, we cannot know until one of them arises to explain to us upon what such joy and satisfaction are based. Perhaps we have the key in Honor's life; in the delineation of her character we may the better understand what Catholicism has been and is to the masses of the Irish people:

> "She was at last upon the verge of that looked-for, that intensely desired country; a country which, if to most of us it seems but a dream within a dream, a floating mirage, a phantom made up of love and faith, of hope and of yearning desire—unthinkable, untenable, all but impossible—was to Honor, and is to such as Honor, no phantom, no mirage, but the soberest and solidest of solid realities; the thing for which they live, the hope for which they die. . . . Already, even while the priest stood beside her, while the prayers she had so longed for, those prayers which Grania had died to obtain for her, were being uttered, she was drifting across its borderland; already its sounds rather than his voice, rather than any earthly voices, were in her ears; already her foot was upon its threshold. And upon that threshold, perhaps — who knows? who can tell?—they met."

We trust Miss Lawless will continue true to her genius, in exercising which she is, perhaps all unconsciously, doing more than most persons whose names are before the world in attracting intelligent sympathy towards Ireland, and in there reconciling class to class.

The struggle of a vigorous nature against the fettering limitations of its environment is a fascinating study. In the development of the tragedy so often involved in such a struggle, much depends upon the writer's temperament, which necessarily modifies his insight, and sometimes leads him to bring about complications that cause a feeling of revulsion on the part of the reader. No such effect, however, is produced by the reading of 'Jonquille.' While true to the legitimate requirements of the characters he has created, the author is free from morbidness, and the story is developed naturally and reaches its conclusion inevitably. The style is simple and dignified, and brightened by touches which show an intimate acquaintance with Nature and a sympathetic comprehension of the effect of her varying moods upon human souls.

The borderland between France and Switzerland is the scene of the story. In one of the Swiss villages of the Jura lived Manuel, the son of a watchmaker, whose restless mind, and physique altogether out of proportion to the uses of his inherited trade, make his apprenticeship a rebellious one and his father's stubborn determination a rock of difference between them. The pressure of circumstances forces Manuel to work steadily at his hated trade until his faculties become so benumbed that he believes himself to have grown reconciled to his life. But the budding of the lilacs and the flight of the swallows in early spring waken him from his lethargy soon after his father's death, and the old longings for freedom press upon him. He determines to subdue his energies to the earning of sufficient money with which to emigrate to America; but, on the occasion of a holiday, he meets a comrade who is carrying on a smuggling business, by proxy, and who invites him to join the active members of the band. Manuel's instinct for adventure urges him, and, the ethical question of smuggling being disposed of by ingenious arguments, he joins the party at their rendezvous, an inn in a lonely valley near the French border. The innkeeper has a daughter, Jonquille, a beautiful, high-spirited girl, who from her inspiring influence over the smugglers is called their captain. The two impetuous natures, Jonquille and Manuel, are first repelled by, then attracted to, each other. Their marriage soon follows, and Manuel's love and stirring, adventurous life fill the measure of his happiness. As winter advances, however, the sunless mountain gorge and his enforced inactivity leave room for the old spirit of restlessness. A fierce struggle now goes on between the conflicting forces of his nature, in which Jonquille's invalid brother plays a pathetic part. The end comes quickly and tragically, yet leaves no sense of violation.

New pastures are open to English readers in a series of Dutch novels, the first volume of which, Grein's 'Eline Vere,' has recently appeared. Heretofore the intellectual life of Holland has been more generally known through other forms of art, the rather heavy style of Dutch fiction having prevented its gaining a hold on popular regard outside of its own country. But a younger generation of writers has sprung up full of vigor, and impatient with the traditions of the older writers. Their work will be watched with interest,

as it will reflect, necessarily, the good and evil of the modern spirit. The present volume is steeped in modern realism. The influence of heredity and environment in shaping character and affecting destiny is vividly shown. Indeed, so skilfully is this done, and so penetrating is the atmosphere of doom, that a feeling of leaden despair settles down upon the reader, and he wonders if the healthy vigor and steadfast purpose supposed to characterize the Dutch were not, after all, a myth. But the life depicted in 'Eline Vere' is the fashionable life of The Hague, as aimless and enervating and colorless there as elsewhere, yet flaming up fitfully at times with a lurid light. The two brief chapters depicting rural scenes glow with the soft beauty of Dutch landscapes, and awaken the hope that the succeeding volumes will give us pictures of brighter phases of Hollandish life, with a more distinctive national coloring. Mr. Edmund Gosse furnishes an introduction to the volume, but presumably has not had editorial oversight, as very crude errors of translation are left uncorrected.

'San Salvador' describes not only a castle in Spain, but a whole community as well; and an ideal community, as befits that land of dreams. It is, doubtless, the old Adam in human nature, but it is nevertheless a fact that fiction having for its motive the picturing of ideal communities is apt to pall upon the taste. To palates accustomed to the highly seasoned food furnished by tales of modern society, in which doughty deeds are performed in fields of finance and politics, the simple annals of a social state where plain living and high thinking prevail naturally seem insipid. But 'San Salvador' is so daintily wrought out that it ought to please even those who read merely to experience a pleasurable sensation. The conception is a bold one, the original members of this ideal state having been social outcasts; but the happy results that have followed the application of certain new methods in the treatment of criminals brings this idea within the bounds of possibility. Throughout the whole, the poetry and prose of life are so interwoven as to form a fabric of most harmonious coloring, and so beautiful a love-story is threaded through that the love-making of the ordinary novel seems crude and commonplace by comparison. Once or twice the author comes dangerously near the dividing line between true and false sentiment, but, on the whole, she has managed a difficult subject well.

To those who are fond of gruesome tales the collection to which 'A Capillary Crime' gives its name will prove a rich feast. They are graphically written, and have such an air of probability about them that it makes one's flesh creep to read them. In 'A Capillary Crime' (perhaps the best of the collection) the law of capillary attraction is, by an ingeniously constructed plot, made an engine of destruction, and afterwards serves as a mute witness in a case of circumstantial evidence. Strangely enough, a case has recently been reported in which the action of a natural law under unusual, but somewhat similar, conditions brought about results as curious as those which Mr. Millet's imagination has depicted. In reading these stories one is impressed by the darker aspect of student life abroad, which even the brightness of the sunny days of Bohemia does not wholl light up.

GREEK LYRICS.

The Nemean Odes of Pindar. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by J. B. Bury, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin. Macmillan & Co.

Greek Lyric Poetry. A Complete Collection of the Surviving Passages from the Greek Song-writers. By George S. Farnell, M.A. Longmans, Green & Co.

THE novel feature of Mr. Bury's work is the extent to which he pushes a theory in regard to Pindar's use of certain echoes and "responsions" of words in successive strophes. That Pindar occasionally lays stress upon names and emphatic words has been noticed by many editors and is sufficiently clear to any careful reader. The exigencies of the dance movement and of music required a skilful accentuation of significant words or phrases—required that "high lights should be thrown on them," as M. Croiset puts it; and the result was very useful and practical in bringing out with distinctness for the ears of listeners the prominent thoughts of a poem in which not every word, perhaps, was caught during a first performance. The words were surely not slighted, in our operatic manner, during the performance of a triumphal ode—far from it; yet this would not exclude a judicious and cunning distribution of emphasis. So much is granted and insisted upon by Pindaric scholars generally. Mezger has gone a little further than this. He has pointed out that it is a practice of the poet to repeat some word, or a variation of it, in the same verse and foot of different strophes. This he takes to be partly a mnemonic device for the guidance of the chorus, partly a sign and guide to the course of the poet's thought. Mr. Bury, following Mezger, outdoes him. He finds "verbal echoes everywhere, independently of the metre." He believes that these echoes indicate the train of Pindar's thought, that they are one of the keys to his method of composition and to his interpretation. In one ode the word *brass* or *brazen* is repeated in each metrical system. "Brass lends itself," says Mr. Bury, "without constraint to the central idea of this hymn, as an emblem; for, associated with contention, and as a baser metal than gold, it could suggest the state of a mortal not yet deified, or of an athlete not yet an Olympic victor, such a victory being symbolized by gold elsewhere." In another ode, "the parts of the argument are connected by *golden* links"; in another, "silver has a special significance." Other poets, Mr. Bury thinks, use this device as well as Pindar. Sophocles, in the first ode of the "Oedipus Rex," rings the changes on *gold*, *golden*, and *brilliant;* and Mr. Bury illustrates his hypothesis by applying it, in detail, to the second stasimon of the "Agamemnon," supporting an emendation of Mr. Housman by the correspondences he discovers.

Curiously enough, the more Mr. Bury explains this powerful ode, the less one understands it. The unsuspected complexities of thought and language he discovers are neither felicitous nor enlightening, nor do they add to our conception of the genius of Aeschylus. We do not deny that such threads might be interwoven in the pattern of the Greek ode; but Mr. Bury is bound to show that if they really exist, they exist for some reasonable purpose. The quality of reasonableness, ἐπιείκεια, enters so largely into the workings of the Greek mind that it is hard to believe that Pindar permitted himself puerilities or mystical undermeanings and conceits. One can believe it of Dante, on his own confession and because it belonged to the spirit of his time. We believe that Mr. Bury's process, applied resolutely and ingeniously to almost any poem, might be made to yield similar results. In glancing over Gray's ode "On a Distant Prospect of Eton," we observe half-a-dozen echoes and "responsions" between the stanzas neither worse nor better than those of Mr. Bury's finding. In short, as Prof. Gildersleeve remarks, "the discovery of the recurrent word is not the end of all controversy—there are too many recurrent words." Some years ago Mr. Piazzi Smyth wrote a work on the great Pyramid, in which he proved that the proportions of the Pyramid in different places were intended to enshrine the value of π, the exact diameter of the earth, its distance from the sun, and various other scientific data. No one hears now of Mr. Smyth's speculations, which doubtless might have been evolved with the same laborious fancy out of the proportions of the Eiffel Tower. Now Mr. Bury's speculations remind us of Mr. Smyth's. But if his hypothesis is mainly such stuff as dreams are made of, what becomes of some of the emendations he has fortified by aid of it? In this matter his temper is daring, and one cannot always agree with his estimate of "certainty."

The notes of this edition are abundant, and often unnecessarily so; the translations, though worded with nicety and taste, are often superabundant. The introductions to the odes applying in detail Mr. Bury's favorite theory are painfully elaborate, and show what M. Croiset calls "la manie de tout expliquer." The vestibule overshadows the edifice. Somehow, for enjoying poetry, there is no way like reading it; for enjoying your rose, there is nothing like smelling and looking at it again and again.

It happens that we have touched first on Mr. Bury's faults. It would be a great injustice to speak of nothing but faults. His work shows many admirable qualities: enthusiasm, taste, literary skill, painstaking study of his author—we wish we could add, judgment. We should be sorry if the promised editions of the Pythian and the Olympian Odes, which will doubtless exemplify the good qualities we have enumerated, should pursue the same bizarre fancies which make the present edition somewhat untrustworthy.

Mr. Farnell's book fills a lacuna in English aids to the study of the classics. It presents all that can be called readable of the fragments of "melic" poetry, relegating to the appendix for purposes of reference those single words and half lines which are gathered in Bergk's complete collection, and omitting the Epinician odes of Pindar, which are accessible in their entirety in many special editions. The Elegiac and Gnomic poets are not included in the collection, because their poems are not "melic," that is, originally adapted for music. The apparatus, drawn with care and judgment from many sources and sufficiently full for the purposes of the student who is not a specialist, comprises dissertations on the dialects, the metres, and the development of Greek lyric poetry, biographies of the more important poets, and a body of notes which furnish all the explanations necessary for understanding of the text. The plain, businesslike style, notwithstanding its occasional dryness and awkwardness, is satisfactory enough to the reader who has a healthy appetite for facts and prefers to be left sometimes to make his own reflections. The most obvious of these, as he runs his eye over the pages, is the thought of the ruin which has befallen this branch of literature among the Greeks—a ruin, indeed, approaching desolation. Of all the specimens here offered, not a single poem of

the best age, except Sappho's famous ode, is complete. As Mr. Farnell puts it, the case is much the same as if in English we had lost all our songs from the days of Ben Jonson and Herrick and Suckling down to Shelley and Keats and Tennyson. From these fragments we can only guess dimly the merits of their authors—we should not be safe in basing any final judgment of Archilochus, or Sappho, or Alcæus, or Simonides, upon the passages that survive, brilliant and striking as some of them undoubtedly are. We must reinforce our judgment by the testimony of antiquity, and by the hints we derive from echoes of their style and manner in Horace and Catullus. A fragment of a poem does not bear witness of the workman so satisfactorily and surely as a fragment of a statue. Hence the necessity and usefulness of Mr. Farnell's critical and introductory essays.

Another curious fact in this connection is, that, long before the dawn of Athenian greatness in literature, Sparta was the nurse and patron of lyric poetry—the foster-nurse and the importer of a genius which she seems never to have originated to any great extent. The Lesbian school, on the other hand, was by far the most powerful and original fountain of this style of composition; and here again Mr. Farnell makes an instructive comparison between the period of Alcæus and the age of Elizabeth. The general ferment and activity, the commercial intercourse, the sight of strange lands, the love of adventure which sent the brother of Sappho to Egypt and the brother of Alcæus to the army of Nebuchadnezzar—all these causes may have inspired and stirred the Lesbian mind as they did the contemporaries of Shakspere. Certainly that school has for us a strong and natural interest, because, more than Pindar or Simonides, it was akin to the modern spirit—it struck that personal and "subjective" note which is the very essence of the modern conception of lyric poetry. In this respect, Alcæus and Sappho and Archilochus need no introduction and no commentary.

Mr. Farnell touches lightly on the ever interesting riddle of Sappho's personal history and character, about which he very sensibly draws no conclusion, not feeling called upon to decide whether she would now have been an acceptable guest at the Queen's drawing-room. In substance, this was the question which agitated the breasts of Welcker and Col. Mure in the hot discussion to which Mr. Farnell alludes, and of which just one word may be said, viz., that both scholars were in the wrong. The amiable chivalry of the one and the cynicism of the other were equally misplaced, for each was applying a standard and a code of morals which Sappho and her contemporaries would neither have recognized nor understood. Apropos of this controversy, Mr. Farnell would have done well to note that the reading κοὐκ ἐθέλοισα in the first ode is Bergk's own, and to write Maximus Tyrius instead of "Maxim. Tyrannus" and "Max. Tyrann" (pp. 151 and 152).

In the dissertation on "Sapphics Greek and Horatian," Mr. Farnell discusses the peculiar cæsura which Horace adopted after the fifth syllable, as in

"Jam satis terris nivis atque dirae."

Almost all his earlier Sapphics are of this type—the type which, by the way, gave rise to the bastard rhythm of Canning's "Knife-Grinder." The later odes follow oftener the rapid and passionate movement of the normal Sapphic verse; and this rhythm Mr. Swinburne, with his usual skill and delicacy of ear, has reproduced, as far as our language permits, in one of his 'Songs before Sunrise,' entitled "Sapphics."

Skating. By F. M. Heathcote and Others. [Badminton Library.] Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1892.

If the word skate was borrowed from the Dutch *schaats*, it is tolerably certain that the art of skating is not a Dutch invention. We are told in the chronicles that iron runners were attached to a species of snow-shoes by the early inhabitants of Norway and Sweden, and that, before the iron age, bones were used for the same purpose, as is shown by some well-worn specimens in the British Museum; and it is entirely probable that the art of skating was introduced into England by the Anglo-Saxons or the Danes. Certain it is that it was a common amusement as early as the twelfth century, and that it became fashionable among the upper classes after the Restoration, when the Duke of Monmouth, who had learned to skate in Holland, disported himself on the ice in St. James's Park. The first roller-skates were made by a Belgian named Joseph Merlin, who visited England in 1760. They were probably very crude machines, and nearly caused the death of the inventor, who boldly essayed to use them at a masquerade, with disastrous results to himself and Mrs. Cornelly's furniture. At intervals during the next hundred years, improvements were attempted, but it was not till 1863 that Mr. Plimpton patented the roller-skate of to-day, which is available for both speed and figure-skating. The craze for roller-skating which existed a few years ago has largely died out, but there is much to be said in favor of this sport; and any one who learns to skate figures on rollers will find it comparatively easy to execute the same figures on the ice.

Ice-skating consists of two quite distinct parts, namely, figure-skating and speed-skating. The latter, in these days of keen competition, requires youth, great natural powers of endurance, and systematic training; but one great merit of figure-skating is that it is quite within the reach of those who have arrived at that uncertain period of life which we call middle age, and, moreover, while it is of course an advantage to have acquired some facility in boyhood, much may be done by those who make their first start in later years. As in certain other sports, individual physical peculiarities do not preclude a high degree of success, and in fact it may be said that no two skaters execute a figure in precisely the same style. But the enthusiast who takes up figure-skating after reaching years of discretion should bear in mind that certain figures are peculiarly liable to lead to falls. It is recorded of one gentleman that, after several unsuccessful attempts to master the inside back three, involving a turn from the inner edge back to the outer edge forward, he declared he would give up skating because it was too *sedentary* an occupation. On the other hand, to any one who has strong ankles and the natural instinct of balancing himself, almost anything in figure-skating is not only possible but easy, and the effect of these performances on the unsophisticated beholder is sometimes remarkable. An Irish peasant woman, watching a lady who had learned in Canada how to skate that most bewitching of all figures, the "grapevine," was heard to remark: "Sure, now, and I think the Devil is in her feet, God bless her!" The account of figure-skating given by Mr. Witham is admirably illustrated by diagrams, and leaves nothing to be desired. The reader may, perhaps, take exception to the statement that "Great Britain is far in advance of any other nation in combined figure-skating," and if he has had any experience of combined figure-skating in this country or Canada, he will make due allowance for what Mr. Herbert Spencer calls the "patriotic bias," the existence of which in other volumes of this series has been already pointed out.

Coming to the second branch of the sport, speed-skating, it is interesting to note that as long ago as in 1821 a mile was skated for a wager in 2 minutes and 53 seconds, which is the present world's record; but in the case in question the skater was allowed a flying start, which would make a difference of at least ten seconds. The very remarkable performances of Mr. J. F. Donoghue of Newburgh (not Newbury, as here stated) are of necessity referred to by Mr. Tebbutt, but his marked superiority to all English and European amateurs is somewhat grudgingly admitted. The facts, however, speak for themselves. Not only does he hold the English record at 1½ miles (4 minutes, 46 seconds), having beaten James Smart's professional record of 4 minutes 52 1-5 seconds, but he also holds the world's records at 2, 3, and 5 miles.

In order to complete the cycle of ice sports, this volume contains an interesting account of curling, ice-boating, tobogganing, and bandy. On the whole, the work has been admirably done, and the illustrations are quite above the average of English performance.

Little Brothers of the Air. By Olive Thorne Miller. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892.

Wood Notes Wild: Notations of Bird Music. By Simeon Pease Cheney. Collected and arranged with appendix, notes, bibliography, and general index by John Vance Cheney. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1892.

Mrs. Miller's work might be appropriately termed the history of the nursery life of the birds. She has observed with great care the home life and family manners of many of the birds one meets with commonly in the summer in the New England States, and she tells what she has seen in a very entertaining way. The great charm of the book, however, lies not in the facts observed, but in the interpretation put upon those facts. The actions of the birds are measured by human standards, and the various emotions of astonishment, perplexity, or joy which men and women would feel if confronted by the difficulties, duties, and pleasures that cross the paths of the different "little brothers," are so skilfully attributed to the birds as to make their brotherhood with human beings seem very real, and to make you wonder why you never interpreted the actions of the "little kings" and "the comical crow baby" in the same way.

'Wood Notes Wild' was intended for the young people of New England, as the editor tells us in the preface, and it is an attempt, not wholly successful, to set forth in print the rhythm and melody of the music of the birds. The simpler and more regular songs are well represented, and bring up the familiar calls very distinctly. This can hardly be said, however, of the complicated and rollicking melody of many of the birds whose songs are recorded in the volume. Indeed, it is difficult to see how the bubbling music of the bobolink, the purple finch, and others that might be mentioned, could be accurately set down by any

system of notation that we possess. Mr. Cheney's style is quaint and pleasing. He wrote with the combined enthusiasm of a musician and a lover of nature. But one cannot help regretting that he did not give us more about the manners and customs of the birds as they sing, instead of confining himself so closely to the songs themselves.

No pains have been spared, apparently, to make the book a complete record of what has been done in the investigation of the music of the birds, and herein consists its greatest value. There is a voluminous appendix, which is to a considerable extent a commentary upon what others have said of the songs of birds, together with the author's own ideas of the scope of his chosen field, all of which is expressed in a vigorous and animated way. Finally there is a helpful bibliography for any one disposed to pursue further the fascinating but difficult study of bird music.

Electric-Light Cables and the Distribution of Electricity. By Stuart A. Russell. London: Whittaker.

Mr. Russell's small volume is intended for the use of practical electricians, but contains a great deal of matter of quite general interest now that the applications of electricity are becoming subjects of ordinary conversation. It treats only of the distribution of electricity, a subject now constituting almost a special branch of science, the importance of which may be imagined when we reflect that at this very time not only is it proposed to transmit power from Niagara Falls to Chicago for the Exhibition of 1893, but the details of the methods by which this can be done are being worked out, and the problem will certainly be solved. The subject of distribution is here regarded both from the purely scientific point of view and in the light of actual experience. The development of the subject is first treated historically. Then we have a chapter on the material of conductors, and this is followed by others in which gradually all the very numerous details of the several methods of distribution are discussed. Probably the chapters relating to underground lines will excite the most general interest, in consequence of the disfigurement of the streets of cities and towns by the long rows of hideous telegraph, telephone, and electric-light poles. Constant reference is made to the work of American electricians. The book is very interesting and valuable, and forms not the least of the important series of electrical manuals now in process of publication.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alger, W. R. The Sources of Consolation in Human Life. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Austen, Jane. Pride and Prejudice. 2 vols. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.50.
Barrie, J. M. Auld Licht Idylls. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Beard, Dan. Moonlight and Six Feet of Romance. Charles L. Webster & Co.
Calmire. Macmillan. $1.50.
Campbell, W. W. A Handbook of Practical Astronomy. Ann Arbor, Mich.: *Register* Publishing Co. $1.50.
Churchill, Lord R. S. Men, Mines and Animals in South Africa. Appletons.
Dana, Prof. E. S. Descriptive Mineralogy. John Wiley & Sons. $12.50.
Duplessis, Georges. Les Audran. [Les Artistes Célèbres.] Paris: Librairie de l'Art; New York: Macmillan.
Hinsdale, Prof. B. A. The American Government, National and State. Ann Arbor, Mich.: *Register* Publishing Co. $1.50.
Hussey, Prof. W. J. Logarithmic and Other Mathematical Tables. 2d ed. Ann Arbor, Mich.: *Register* Publishing Co. $1.
Jannet, Prof. Claudio. Le Capital, la Spéculation et la Finance au XIXe Siècle. Paris: Librairie Plon.
Landon, M. D. Thirty Years of Wit, etc. Cassell. 50 cents.
Maxwell, J. C. A Treatise on Electricity and Magnetism. 3d ed. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $8.
McClure, A. K. Abraham Lincoln and Men of War Times. Philadelphia: *Times* Publishing Co. $2.
Miller, Rev. O. D. Har-Moad; or, The Mountain of the Assembly. North Adams, Mass.: Stephen M. Whipple.
Murray, George. Poems. New York: The Author.
Naegeli, Prof. Carl, and Schwendener, Prof. S. The Microscope in Theory and Practice. 2d ed. Macmillan. $2.60.
Netto, Prof. E. The Theory of Substitutions and its Applications to Algebra. Ann Arbor: *Register* Publishing Co. $3.
Parkman, Francis. A Half-Century of Conflict. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $5.
Payne, Prof. Joseph. Lectures on the History of Education, with a Visit to German Schools. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Sharp, W. Flower o' the Vine, Romantic Ballads, and Sospiri di Roma. Charles L. Webster & Co. $1.50.
Shoemaker, Mrs. J. W. Delsartean Pantomimes. Philadelphia: Penn Publishing Co. $1.25.
Skeat, Prof. W. W. A Primer of English Etymology. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Slosson, Mrs. Annie T. The Heresy of Mehetabel Clark. Harpers.
Smith, F. C. Introduction to Commercial German. Macmillan. $1.
Smith, F. Hopkinson. A Day at Laguerre's, and Other Days. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Spalding, Susan M. The Wings of Icarus. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Stearns, Rev. L. F. Henry Boynton Smith. [American Religious Leaders.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Sybel, H. von. The Founding of the German Empire. Vols. III., IV. and V. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
The Last Words of Thomas Carlyle. Appletons.
Winter, W. Shadows of the Stage. Macmillan. 75 cents.

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The Forum.

June, 1892.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 2, 1892.

The Week.

THE Senate is endeavoring to enact a law which will give the Federal authorities specific jurisdiction over criminal attacks by citizens of the States on the subjects of foreign nations with whom we have treaty agreements. The necessity for such a law became apparent through the massacre of Italians at New Orleans. The proposed law, which has been reported by the Committee on Foreign Affairs, is in these terms:

"That any act committed in any State or Territory of the United States in violation of the rights of a citizen or subject of a foreign country secured to such citizen or subject by treaty between the United States and such foreign country, which act constitutes a crime under the laws of such State or Territory, shall constitute a like crime against the peace and dignity of the United States, punishable in like manner as in the courts of said States or Territories, and within the period limited by the laws of such State or Territory, and may be prosecuted in the courts of the United States, and, upon conviction, the sentence executed in like manner as sentences upon convictions for crimes under the laws of the United States."

The opposition to this measure in the debates last week was so strenuous that the Senate showed a disposition to let it lie over until December. Mr. Gray (Dem., Del.) opposed it on the ground that "it transfers the administration of the criminal laws of the forty-four States to the Federal tribunals." Mr. Palmer (Dem., Ill.) questioned the power of the United States "to pass a law that shall operate differently in forty-four different districts of the same country," and declared that the act was unnecessary and mischievous. Mr. Vilas (Dem., Wis.) declared the legislation unnecessary, and said: "Every citizen of Italy, every citizen of any foreign Government, enjoys now in each of the States of the Union the same measure of protection, the same rights and privileges, that are enjoyed by the citizens of that State, so far as its criminal laws are concerned."

Without discussing the merits of this act in its form as under discussion, it is well to point out that the framers of our system of government saw clearly the necessity of giving the Federal authorities jurisdiction in the line which the Senate Committee recommends. Arguing in this direction, Madison says ('Federalist,' No. xliii):

"As the constitutions of the States differ much from one another, it might happen that a treaty, or a national law, of great and equal importance to the States, would interfere with some and not with other constitutions, and would consequently be valid in some of the States at the same time that it would have no effect in others. In fine, the world would have seen for the first time a system of government founded on an inversion of the fundamental principles of all government; it would have seen the authority of the whole society everywhere subordinate to the authority of the parts; it would have seen a monster, in which the head was under the direction of the members."

Hamilton, in paper No. lxxx., arguing that "the judiciary authority of the Union ought to extend to these several descriptions of cases; . . . (4) to all those which involve the peace of the confederacy, whether they relate to the intercourse between the United States and foreign nations, or to that between the States themselves," said:

"The fourth point rests on the plain proposition that the peace of the *whole* ought not to be left at the disposal of a *part*. The Union will undoubtedly be answerable to foreign Powers for the conduct of its members. And the responsibility for an injury ought ever to be accompanied by the faculty of preventing it. As the denial or perversion of justice by the sentences of courts, as well as in any other manner, is with reason classed among the first causes of war, it will follow that the Federal judiciary ought to have cognizance of all causes in which the citizens of other countries are concerned. This is not less essential to the preservation of the public faith than to the security of the public tranquillity."

The secret shivering of the Administration over the black outlook for the Treasury is put in evidence by the instructions sent out by Commissioner Mason to all collectors of internal revenue. His letter to Collector Wenker of St. Louis has been made public, and reads as follows:

"SIR: If possible, you will please collect so that you may report during the month of June on special taxes due for the year commencing July, 1892. You will please have your Deputy Collector notify taxpayers that they will be expected to pay the same before the beginning of the fiscal year, and report all money thus collected so that it may enter into the report of the present fiscal year. You will please make whatever arrangements are necessary to let the public know that taxes are expected to be paid in before the 1st day of July, and offer such facilities as may enable them to do so."

This letter speaks for itself, and shows how much dread exists at Washington lest June 30 should come with a deficit for the fiscal year and a powerful argument against Republican financiering. If these instructions of Commissioner Mason do not bring in funds enough to make up an artificial surplus, we advise him to offer a discount of 10 per cent. on all taxes paid in advance.

The silver-men in Washington are so considerate as to say that they do not expect to pass the Stewart Bill until after the two national conventions are held. It would certainly be embarrassing if *both* conventions should pass resolutions condemning that measure, either directly or by inference. Yet that is most likely to be the outcome, since Missouri and Tennessee, hitherto supposed to be the most fanatical pro-silver States in the Union that are not actually engaged in the production of that metal, have, in their Democratic Conventions, suggested a change in the legal ratio to correspond with the market ratio. There is nothing that the Stewart faction detest so much as a change in the ratio. What they want is a law compelling every creditor to accept 67 cents in silver as equal to 100 cents in gold. Debtors would thus have the strongest inducement to buy silver, and thus the silver-producers would "have the whip-hand" until business was completely readjusted on the new basis. After all preëxisting debts had been paid off there would be no advantage for silver-miners over other people, but in the period of transition there would probably be a considerable advantage. At all events they think so, and this is the reason why the Nevada Democrats in their State Convention added to the usual free-silver platform a protest against any change in the ratio, this being, we believe, the first time that such words have been used in any political platform whatsoever.

While only experts can judge of the wisdom of appropriating great sums for Mississippi River improvement, yet the laical mind can at least measure the size which those sums are reaching. This year's River and Harbor Bill—we take the figures from it after it reached the Senate—gives to the Mississippi River Commission for "improving" that stream "from Head of the Passes to the mouth of the Ohio River," the sum of $2,500,000. But, besides that sum, additional contracts can be made for carrying on the work from July, 1893, and three years succeeding, at a rate not to exceed $2,500,000 a year. Special and local improvements of the lower river call for $355,000 more. Then above the Ohio there is $1,500,000 for improvement, and contract power for three years at the same figure per year. Finally, there is $900,000 for the Missouri River. Thus there is apparently set apart for the Mississippi and its great tributary the sum of $5,255,000 directly, and what may be considered a Federal pledge of about $12,000,000 more. Most of these great sums are to be expended for works the permanent value of which cannot be demonstrated for many years, while some of them may be proved valueless by the next great flood.

Two points on this subject call at this time for special attention. One is the fact that the floods on the upper river and on the Missouri have wrought probably even greater havoc than on the lower waters. What, therefore, has popularly been considered a "problem" limited chiefly to the Mississippi below the Ohio, becomes a larger and more costly problem, reaching to the headwaters of the erratic stream and combining both its vagaries of drought and its wild moods of overflow. A second point is, that each Congress, before it gives these huge sums, should inform itself carefully how the works for which earlier sums

have been spent have stood the floods. For example, before the Senate Committee on Commerce in 1890 it was stated as proof of the excellence of the levee system that the great flood of that year broke through only 4¼ miles of the 1,100 miles of levees, while the flood of 1884 broke through 106.4 miles, the flood of 1883 341.1 miles, and the flood of 1882 589 miles. It surely ought to be within the power of the same Committee, when it passes upon the next River and Harbor Bill, to find out how many miles of levees have been swept away in the present flood. It may not be more than the four and a quarter miles of 1890, though the reports from the lower Mississippi indicate otherwise. But, whatever the figures, Congress ought to know them, and not pour out money without finding out results, and watching sharply the "improvement" as it goes on. It is not in the common mortal to plan and build a Mississippi levee, but he can tell when one is washed away.

In reversing its first action on the question of closing the World's Fair on Sunday, and in limiting its decision to voting that the Government exhibit should not be open to the public on that day, the House on Thursday went as far as its legitimate authority in the matter extends. The directors of the Fair should be left to settle this and all other matters of administrative detail. The excitement over the question in certain quarters seems to us to have been artificial and uncalled for. As one of the Illinois Congressmen explained the other day, it has never been proposed to have the machinery in operation on Sunday, or to compel the attendants to be on duty seven days in the week. The proposition is simply to have the grounds and buildings open, with the particular aim of giving many people an opportunity to see the gathered products of the world's industry and art who otherwise would be unable to do so. That this aim answers to a real desire of some workingmen is well shown by the attitude of the American Federation of Labor, the President of which has addressed a circular to all the trades unions in the country, "urging them to use all possible influence to secure the opening of the Fair on Sunday, as the only day on which the large majority of workingmen can visit it."

The Government has for many years encouraged the building up and development of the Smithsonian collections into a national museum, and has annually provided for the care and maintenance of collections partly derived from various expeditions sent out for other purposes, but largely procured through the Institution under whose care what is now the National Museum has been placed. The officers of the Institution have on the whole used wisely the funds placed at their disposal, and have called to their assistance, from other positions, men influenced less by the meagre compensation given than by pride in administering collections which appealed to their tastes. The Government has morally pledged itself to the continuance without abatement of the appropriation hitherto made. The officers of the Museum put in their last regular estimates on the basis of simple maintenance on the scale of the past, but these have been cut down to such an extent by the House as to inflict a lasting injury. Not only will the collections suffer greatly by neglect in various ways, but a still greater and irreparable loss will be sustained by forfeiting the services of officers who have slowly learned the special demands of a peculiar service, and who cannot be replaced like an ordinary clerical force. Looking only at the donors, it may be affirmed that by accepting the numerous gifts of which it has been the recipient, the Government has assumed the moral obligation of caring for them; and the collection consists only too largely of gifts. Whereas the British Government provides for the extension of its great Museum in all directions, and makes liberal appropriations consistently year after year, not only for the conservation of objects given, but for fresh and extensive acquisitions by purchase, our own Museum is not thus provided for. It is rich in objects obtainable in this country, and it has many derived from abroad; but it is, after all, a provincial museum, as for instance in the domain of natural history. It is less than second-class compared with the British, French, German, and Austrian museums, and it is even inferior to that of the little Danish monarchy. Such a condition is discreditable, and calls for anything but the diminution of appropriations.

Mr. Roosevelt has done a public service in showing up Postmaster-General Wanamaker as the falsifier that he is. It will be remembered that the Postmaster-General submitted to the House Committee on the Civil Service the report of two post-office inspectors on the Baltimore Post-office scandal, stating that Mr. Roosevelt's investigation was "unfair and partial in the extreme"; that his questions were "calculated to deceive and mislead, such as no committee of investigation, hunting for nothing but the truth and desirous of doing exact justice, would practise or allow," and that his report on the Postmaster's conduct was not only unjustifiable, but "malicious." Mr. Roosevelt very properly called Wanamaker's attention to the gross impertinence and impropriety of such reflections on the actions and motives of the head of one department of the Government by the subordinates of another, and proceeded:

> "But I have nothing to do with these subordinates. It is with you, the official head, responsible for their action, that I have to deal. By submitting this report without expressly disclaiming any personal responsibility for it, you seem to assume that responsibility and make it your own. I can hardly suppose that this was your intention, but I shall be obliged to treat these statements which in any way reflect upon my acts and motives as yours, unless you disavow them with the same publicity with which they were made to the Committee. I therefore respectfully ask whether you will or will not make such disavowal, so that I may govern myself accordingly, and not be guilty of any injustice."

Mr. Roosevelt sent this communication by registered mail to the Postmaster-General on May 16, and, having received no answer up to May 25, he went before the Committee and made the most complete and damaging exposure of Wanamaker's hypocrisy and double-dealing in this whole matter, pronouncing the statements of the inspectors which Wanamaker had endorsed, "slanderous falsehoods," and proving incontestably the truth of his own original report on the scandal.

Mr. Roosevelt went still further. Now that the Baltimore Postmaster and the inspectors of the Post-office Department have lied about the facts, and their lies have been endorsed by the head of the Department, he withdraws his former suggestion of leniency in the matter, and recommends the removal of the Postmaster and the two inspectors. This recommendation ought to be followed by the President without delay, though we presume nobody expects that it will be. Mr. Roosevelt made a further statement, which should have the widest possible publicity:

> "He declared that he wanted it distinctly understood that in the coming campaign he intended to do all he could legitimately, as a member of the Republican party, to assist in electing the Republican ticket; but he should also investigate every case brought to his notice by any responsible person of alleged political assessments or collections for campaign purposes, in the Democratic, Republican, or any other party, and should do everything in his power to break up this abuse, no matter where it hit."

We believe that Mr. Roosevelt is sincere in this position, and we trust that every body who learns of any attempt at extortion of the sort described will immediately bring it to his notice.

Undiluted McKinleyism is by no means likely to be the battle-cry of the Republican party in the approaching campaign. If it were to be, why should not McKinley himself be chosen to proclaim it? He could sound it forth on the truest pitch, and is entirely willing to do so; yet, with all the talk of "booms," scarcely a word is said about one for McKinley. Moreover, the cry now is all about our "enormous foreign trade" of the past year, and it is well known that McKinley thinks imports of foreign goods to be about as deadly as imports of foreign cholera or yellow fever. Then, Chairman Clarkson is giving it out that the tariff issue alone is not going to awaken unbounded enthusiasm among the Republicans of Iowa and the Northwest. Altogether, it would not be strange to find in the Republican platform the old-style plank promising a revision of the tariff by its "friends."

President Harrison's talk with the *World's* Washington correspondent on Thursday was dignified and sensible. The Blaine men will be quick to see his meaning when he said: "I do not hesitate to say that certain things have happened that I feel deeply, especially when any one has belittled some of the great public measures that have been carried out, or tried to place the credit upon others." It is to be said, however, that the President has taken great pains latterly to let the public know who is doing the work of the Department of State. All the later correspondence with Lord Salisbury was signed by the "Acting Secretary of State," although Mr. Blaine was in Washington at the time. And no sooner did the latter come to New York "to consult an oculist," than Mr. Harrison slipped in with a proclamation announcing "reciprocity" with Austria, again with Mr. Blaine's name left off the document.

The Tennessee Democratic Convention, coming immediately after that of New Jersey and adopting instructions for Cleveland in the same terms as those of New Jersey—instructions "to vote as a unit for his nomination at the Chicago Convention, which assembles June 21 prox., as long as his name shall be before the Convention"—must have an almost decisive effect upon delegates who are uncommitted, and especially on those of the neighboring State of Kentucky. It is interesting to note that the Tennessee Convention modified its free-silver resolutions by a declaration that the continued coinage of both silver and gold bullion should be so regulated "that every dollar so coined should be equal to every other dollar."

The turn given the Briggs controversy by the final action of the Presbyterian Assembly will have the effect of putting the case back just where it was last November, before the temporarily successful attempt to hush it up. The argument which carried the day in the New York Presbytery, that the further agitation of the question would be harmful to the church, was brought out in all its pathetic variations at Portland, but fell upon deaf ears. By a repeated display of their overwhelming majority, the conservatives made it evident that their blood is up, and that they are ready to push the case through to the end. It is probable that the voting was entirely unaffected by the elaborate arguments on points of ecclesiastical law which preceded it. The Presbyterian theory is that the General Assembly is a Supreme Court, where an entirely dispassionate exposition of the law of the church is given; but the absurdity of supposing that the action of a body of 600 members in exciting controversies will be marked by judicial fairness, was never more clearly shown than in the debates and majorities in this case. Prof. Briggs is left with still a year between him and the final decision, if he chooses to carry his case through all the church courts. This he will doubtless do, not so much on the ground of personal interest, as for the sake of his friends and the liberals in general, who are entitled to know what are the limits of toleration within the denomination. He has the element of time in his favor, but it must be clear to him that one year will not be time enough to overcome the present strong sentiment of his church against his theological views.

This sentiment had a very pronounced and menacing exhibition in the decision of the Assembly on Monday in the Union Seminary matter. The petition of the trustees of that institution to be allowed to withdraw from their relations to the Assembly was denied, the interpretation put upon the compact between the two by the Assembly of last year was affirmed to be the only possible one, and a boycotting resolution was adopted looking to the serious crippling of the seminary. This resolution provides, in effect, that a student in Union Seminary can receive no financial aid from the church, and will be refused ordination when he graduates. After such action, the appointment of another committee to confer with the seminary directors seems indeed a mockery, and was well described by one delegate as coming "with a flag of truce in one hand, and a club in the other to beat out the brains of the institution." The total result will undoubtedly be a troublous year for Union Seminary and for the whole Presbyterian Church.

The real significance of the demand for a universal eight hours' day is very well shown in a letter addressed to the London *Times* by Mr. Champion, the Socialist leader. His letter is perfectly temperate in tone and entirely clear in its statements. Some politicians, he declares, who desire to gain the votes of laborers without losing those of their employers, proclaim that if the eight hours' day is adopted the worker will earn his present wages by increased intensity of application to his work. If this were so, he argues, employers would not oppose the eight hours' day, nor would workmen demand it. On the contrary, the man who now works twelve hours has no idea of taking one-third less wages, or of working 50 per cent. harder, if his day is made eight hours. He is firmly of the opinion that it is desirable to have two masters running after one man, and believes that if the hours of labor were shortened the masters would have to hire more workmen to do the same amount of work as in the longer day. In short, the cry for an eight hours' day on the part of the workmen is not due to a desire for more leisure; their motive is to force up the price of labor by restricting its supply. What the movement really means is, therefore, a higher cost of production for the same amount of product owing to a larger expenditure for wages. As this might cause some establishments now pressed hard by foreign competition to close, thus throwing workmen out of employment, Mr. Champion very consistently suggests a return to the protective system of tariffs. It is scarcely surprising that with this clear exposition of the "true inwardness" of the eight-hours' movement, neither Mr. Gladstone nor Lord Salisbury felt able to offer any encouragement to its supporters.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu presents to *L'Économiste* some startling figures showing the rate of increase in the expenditure of the French communes. He complains that it is impossible to ascertain from any of the publications of the Government the amount of the loans made by these bodies, or of their debts, their accounts being "shrouded in the thickest darkness." Nevertheless, he is able by examining the product of certain fixed taxes for a long term of years to make an approximate estimate of the expenditure. Beginning with 1838, he shows that these taxes furnished to the national revenue 293,000,000 francs, to that of the departments 60,000,000, to that of the communes 33,000,000. In 1860 the share of the National Government had only slightly increased, that of the departments was over 100 millions, while that of the communes was 73 millions. In 1875 the figures were respectively 395 million francs, 144 million francs, and 143 million francs, and in 1891 they amounted to 448 million francs for the nation, 170 million francs for the departments, and 186 million francs for the communes. In other words, while the revenue derived from these taxes devoted to national expenses has increased 53 per cent., that applied to the departments has increased 181 per cent., while that expended by the communes has increased 467 per cent. These figures, it is to be borne in mind, show only the expenditure of revenue derived from certain direct taxes, but the revenue of the communes from other sources is greater than from this. The *octrois* produced 77 million francs in 1838, and in 1890 295 million francs. From other statistics it appears that the total receipts of the communes from all sources in the year 1885, the last for which the figures are returned, were 1,019,000,000 francs. These receipts exceed those for 1877, the only year available for comparison, by only 10,000,000 francs, while the total expenditures, amounting in 1885 to 1,060,000,000 francs, showed an increase of 62,000,000 francs. As M. Leroy-Beaulieu observes, the official explanation of these figures as "the result of social evolution," may be accepted in part, but the increase has been quite too great to be satisfactorily accounted for by this convenient phrase.

THE VOICE OF NEW JERSEY.

In many respects the action of the New Jersey Democratic Convention last week is the most significant event of the present popular movement for Mr. Cleveland's nomination. New Jersey is the one certain Northern Democratic State, having given its electoral vote for every Democratic Presidential candidate in twenty years. It is always included with Indiana, New York, and Connecticut as a State essential for Democratic success in the election. This year a fresh significance was given to its conduct by the confident prediction which the Hillites put forth at the time of their mid-winter convention. They declared then that the New York Convention had merely taken the lead in a general Hill movement in all the States which, in conjunction with the solid South, would be necessary to Democratic success in November, and that in due time Indiana, Connecticut, and New Jersey would follow suit. It was proposed also to make a break in the South by getting a solid Hill delegation from Georgia.

In every particular this scheme has been a failure. Indiana and Connecticut elected Cleveland delegations some weeks ago, Georgia took similar action soon afterwards, and now comes New Jersey with the most emphatic Cleveland victory of all the series. Not only were the anti-Cleveland forces completely routed in the Convention, but such of their representatives as were allowed to get upon the delegation will go to Chicago under iron-clad instructions to vote for Cleveland, so that any opposition by them to his nomination will be futile. All the well-laid plans of the Abbett-Hill Machine to prevent instructions, and to allow only a perfunctory mention of Mr. Cleveland to appear in the platform, were swept away by the popular demand for Mr. Cleveland's nomination. From the moment the delegates got on the ground they took matters into their own hands, set the Machine and its leaders aside as of no account, and, refusing to trust the tardy conversion of the anti-Cleveland men who desired to go as delegates to Chicago, declared that they would let them go only under such conditions as would make impossible any betrayal of the people's desire.

This action is all the more significant from the fact that it is practically against all precedent. In 1888 the New Jersey Democrats did instruct their delegation for Cleveland, but in that year Cleveland was the only candidate before his party, and every State convention gave instructions for him as a matter of course. But in all other years the New Jersey Democrats have held that instructions were not advisable and have declined to give any. In view of these facts, the Convention's resolution, which is a model of its kind, is most noteworthy. It assumes in its opening sentence that there is something of larger import in this year's situation than mere State interests, by saying: "With a full recognition of the responsibility of the Democracy of New Jersey towards the national Democracy, we name as our candidate for the Presidency the statesman who boldly took the decisive step in the way of tariff reform." That is the spirit which was shown in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Indiana when the "favorite son" nonsense was forced into the background in order to show the National Convention that the Democrats of those States were able to take a national rather than a local view of the situation. Coming from New Jersey, it amounts to a notification to the National Convention that the Democratic voters of that Democratic State look upon Mr. Cleveland as the strongest possible candidate. That there might be no doubt about their meaning, they instructed their delegates to vote for him "as long as his name is before the Convention."

After this demonstration, it will be worse than folly for the anti-Cleveland Democrats to continue their opposition to his nomination. Every successive State Convention has emphasized the fact that that opposition would never have existed at all but for the absurd ambition of Mr. Hill to make himself a candidate. There has never been in any State the slightest popular support for it. It has been entirely machine-made, and in every State in which it has come in collision with the popular sentiment of the party it has been defeated. We do not count the personal success of Gov. Boies in Iowa, or of Mr. Watterson in Kentucky, or the soft-money triumph of the Farmers' Alliance in South Carolina and the free-silver heresy in Colorado, as in any sense Hill victories. They may be in some ways a rebuff for Mr. Cleveland, but they are not favorable to Hill's claims. There is no argument against Cleveland's candidacy except that he may fail to carry New York through the treachery of the Hill faction. Nobody denies that he is the choice of an overwhelming majority of Democratic voters, and there is nothing between him and a nomination now except the remote possibility that his opponents may be able under the two-thirds rule to prevent it. It is not necessary to point out the position in which the party would put itself were its most popular candidate to be denied nomination in that way.

THE SILVER DEBATE IN THE SENATE.

The debate on the silver question, which was started by Senator Morgan and has been moving in a languid way for several weeks, had some life put into it on May 25 by Senator Sherman, who made a speech abounding in sound doctrine, and with perhaps the very minimum of unsoundness as a salve to the unconverted. We will merely glance at the latter, by way of showing why we cannot agree with all of his positions. He said that he voted with great reluctance for the present silver law—the act of July 14, 1890; that he accepted it as a compromise, hoping that it would cause silver to advance to parity with gold, as Senator Jones predicted that it would. It had not had that effect. On the contrary, silver had gone lower, as compared with gold, than it had been for ages. "Still, there was this about it," he continued: "there was behind every dollar of Treasury notes issued under the act of July, 1890, a dollar's worth of silver, measured by the gold standard, so that the Government of the United States could not lose very largely in the purchase of silver under that law." The Secretary of the Treasury, a few days since, reported that there had already been a loss of more than $11,000,000 on the purchases of silver under the Coinage Act of 1890, if we take as a measurement of loss the price at which the silver was bought and the present market price—that is, if we assume that all the silver bought could be sold at the present market price. But we know that it could not be so sold, the mere offering of ninety-four million ounces being sufficient to knock the price down ten points at least. But in fact none of this silver can be sold under present laws at any price. All that can be done is to go on buying. Therefore, speculations as to the amount of "silver behind" are useless as they are gratuitous.

This, however, is but a small blot on the otherwise vigorous discourse of the Ohio Senator. He exposed the folly and wickedness of the free coinage of silver in this country with an unsparing hand, showing how it would cut down wages, reduce pensions, take 33 per cent. off the value of savings, and throw all business into confusion and hotch-potch. All this was proposed to be done, too, while an international conference was in prospect "to bring about a proper parity between the two metals." This phrase stirred up Senator Stewart of Nevada to remark that the conference looked to a change in the ratio of gold to silver by international agreement, and that he hoped no such agreement would be made. Indeed, he was opposed to the conference any way, and he did not expect anything to come out of it.

We will now glance at the resolutions of Senator Morgan, upon which this debate is made to hang. They direct the Committee on Finance to report, first, the effect of the Bullion Purchasing Act of 1890 on the price of silver bullion. This is an extremely foolish question. Everybody knows, or can easily find out, what the price of silver bullion has been since the passage of that act. In other words, the effect of various contributing causes can be ascertained by reference to the commercial columns of the newspapers, but nobody can say how much of it was due to the act of 1890. Nobody can do more than give his private opinion.

The second query is "whether the Treasury notes issued under that act had been sufficient to maintain the two metals on a parity." This is more foolish than the other question. Since the two metals have not been on a parity, according to

our ratio, it needs no ghost come from the grave to tell us that neither have the Treasury notes, nor the sun spots, nor the rain-making experiments of Dyrenforth been sufficient for that purpose.

Third question: "Whether the notes had ever been at a discount, and whether they had not averted a dangerous financial crisis." That the notes have not been at a discount up to this time, having been kept at par by the Secretary of the Treasury in pursuance of the law itself, is too well known to need an official report to sustain it. Whether they have averted a dangerous financial crisis is a matter of opinion altogether.

Questions four, five, and six may be grouped together thus:

(4.) Whether there was any law now existing authorizing the coinage of any dollar, either of gold or silver.
(5.) Whether it was just to the people to put less silver in proportion into the subsidiary coinage than into the silver dollar.
(6.) What is the proportion of gold and silver coin actual in European countries and in China, Japan, India, etc.

The question whether there is any law now existing which authorizes the coinage of any dollar, either of silver or gold, might be answered either way without altering by a hair any business interests in the wide world, since we already have hundreds of millions of silver dollars more than we need, and since gold will take care of itself whether coined or not, and will answer all purposes of trade, even if Government keeps hands off.

One other question—perhaps the main one, although not printed—was answered also, viz.: "Will David B. Hill vote on these resolutions either way?" This question was answered in the negative by Mr. Hill himself, who sat silent in his chair while the roll was called.

THE EXPERIENCE OF ITALY WITH "NATIONALISM."

THE leading exponent of "nationalism" in this country, Mr. Edward Bellamy, has really rendered the public an important service by his writings, although perhaps not precisely the service that he intended. He has shown that communism is the logical outcome of most of the changes advocated by the modern sentimental school of political economists, and has thus put it in the power of the public to accept or reject these proposals intelligently. As he points out in the current number of the *North American Review*, hundreds of pulpits throughout the land are preaching every Sunday the "solidarity" of nations, adding, with a very characteristic identification of material and spiritual elements, the statement that "to be able to present this theme effectively has become the best passport of the clergyman to popular success, the secret of full houses." The new school of political economy, "with its socialistic method and sympathies, is the school to which nearly all the young and rising professors of political economy belong." These young men are not yet prepared for the full programme of nationalism, "the entire substitution of public for private conduct of business," but they have started on a road from which they cannot deviate. They have got so far as to recommend that our legislators should undertake the management of "natural monopolies," and as pretty nearly every business that is not a natural monopoly may be made an artificial one by combination, the prospect of legislative activity is most cheeringly extended. Mr. Bellamy concludes:

"If the economists of the 'natural-monopoly' school should follow the logic of their method, they are bound, in proportion as the progress of artificial monopolization abolishes their distinction, to become full-fledged nationalists. I have no doubt they will soon be wholly with us, as in spirit and tendency they now are."

Mr. Bellamy's reasoning in this passage seems to be perfectly sound; and if the "young and rising professors" do not wish to be identified with the nationalists, they will have to establish some rather fine distinctions. Upon many accounts it is desirable that they should come frankly forward and accept Mr. Bellamy's claim of brotherhood. Their hearers would then be in a position to understand what the "new political economy" means in its final result, and would not be confused by the recommendation of a number of schemes that can have no merit unless the "nationalist" aim is really a desirable one. If, taking human nature as it is known by experience to be, the evidence proves that boards of aldermen, or State Legislatures, or national Congresses can conduct business enterprises with profit, why should we stop short with half-way measures affecting only "natural" monopolies, instead of having one grand and simple system under which every American heart would be made glad with an office? But if there is no evidence that proves anything of this kind, would it not be well for the young and rising professors to give up the idea that legislative bodies will make good business managers, and devote their attention to the discovery of other remedies for the evils of monopoly? Mr. Bellamy, we observe, does not give the names of the young and rising professors whom he has in his mind. So they cannot deny the soft impeachment.

In the hope that some of this class who have not quite surrendered their intelligence to the socialistic craze, may feel an interest in inquiring whether any lessons upon this subject have been taught in the school of experience, we would call attention to the example of Italy. In a recent issue of the London *Speaker*—a journal, by the way, by no means hostile to socialistic tendencies—there appeared a letter from an Italian correspondent, giving a graphic account of the results hitherto attained by the application of the principles of "nationalism" in that kingdom. He declares that Italy is rapidly transforming itself into a State in which all action is entirely absorbed by the Government. Very naturally, politicians, "in the American sense of the word," are greatly multiplied, and "the mischief they work is nowhere so great as in Italy." In the United States and in Australia the activity of the politician is limited partly by the energy and spirit of the Anglo-Saxon races, which do not allow the politicians to get the upper hand, but still more by the fact that in these countries "the greater number of the citizens are entirely independent of the Government as regards their fortunes and their future, whereas in Italy the hopes and fears of all men, almost without exception, are concentrated on the action of the State."

Thus, the proprietors of land look to the Government to legislate with a view to raising the price of grain, rice, oil, etc.; manufacturers count upon being "fostered" by protective duties; capitalists know that banks of issue and all public works are wholly dependent on the State, which can ruin an enterprise or make it prosper according as it is directed by supporters or opponents of the Government. Even the wine-growers must be careful not to put themselves in a hostile attitude, for their interests may be easily sacrificed in the negotiation of commercial treaties. Under these conditions there has been produced a fraternity of politicians drawing its members from every social class. At the head of this "ring," as we should call it, are the deputies, whose business is to procure favors of the Government for its supporters. Then come the influential electors whose duty it is to secure the return of their deputy, and so on down by a gradation familiar in this country. A vote favorable to the Government by the deputies from a certain district is repaid by the expenditure of Government money for the enterprises in which those deputies are interested, and as a result the public business is perfectly honeycombed with jobbery; many of the railroads and public works pay no return on their cost, the public debt has grown at a frightful rate, taxation is becoming unbearable, and the condition of the working class is miserable in the extreme. Moreover, the traditions of despotic rule in Italy have not quite been forgotten, as is shown by the fact that Signor Pantaleone, a professor in one of the public institutions of learning, has just been compelled to resign for having published an article exposing some of the economic malpractices of the Government.

The picture drawn by this correspondent is not too dark in its colors. We have abundant confirmation of its truthfulness from other quarters, and it could easily have been made even more impressive. In Italy, as elsewhere, experience proves that the management of business enterprises by governing bodies, whether State or municipal, is subject to very grave difficulties. No one being interested directly to make these enterprises produce a profit to the public, there is a constant tendency to waste and extravagance, while

the necessity for legislative direction and supervision affords a constant opportunity for jobbery, and results in frequent changes of management. In a small municipality, and sometimes in a large one where universal suffrage does not prevail, it may be possible for the public authorities to conduct business enterprises upon business principles, but the evidence is overwhelming that this is not possible except under these conditions. If some of our economists were to devote themselves to a systematic presentation of this evidence, they would render a great service to the public and would furnish a sufficient practical refutation of the fallacies of "nationalism."

THE REVOLT OF CONDÉ.—II.

PARIS, May 11, 1892.

WE left Turenne and Condé after the battle of the Faubourg St.-Antoine (Napoleon himself gave the name of battle to this bloody struggle conducted on both sides with the greatest skill). If the gates of Paris had not been opened to Condé, if the Bastille had not fired on the royal troops, Condé would have been lost. Everything was ready at Saint Denis for a triumphal entry of the King into his capital; but Paris was still in the hands of the Frondeurs. The Parlement, the rebel princes, the city councillors had different objects; the populace took advantage of the situation, and great disorders ensued. Condé has sometimes been held responsible for what are called the "massacres of the Hôtel de Ville." The Duc d'Aumale tries to clear him of this accusation, and enters into a minute account of all the circumstances of this "journée," very similar to some of the "journées" of the great Revolution. There are, in all civil commotions, moments when authority is nowhere, when responsibility is no longer to be found, when the bloody and cruel instincts of humanity find free play and meet with no resistance. Anonymous crimes are committed, and they are generally attributed to those who profit by them. Had Condé anything to gain from the massacre of the Hôtel de Ville? He has been accused of having set the mob on the Hôtel de Ville in order to force the City Council to sign the "Act of Union" with the rebel princes. During the battle of the Faubourg St.-Antoine, the soldiers of the princes had put straw on their hats so as to recognize each other; on the day of the attack on the Hôtel de Ville, there was not a hat which did not have straw on it—the sedition was called "la sédition de la paille." The Hôtel de Ville was invaded by the mob; a rage for destruction seized the populace; several deputies were murdered, others concealed themselves in the cellars.

"Between eleven and twelve at night Mademoiselle, who found some difficulty in opening a passage for herself, arrived on the Place de Grève. M. de Beaufort left a mercer's shop to accompany her. Both entered the Hôtel de Ville and covered the retreat of the Maréchal de l'Hôpital, of the Prévost des Marchands, and of the few others who had escaped the searches of the rebels. In the early morning all was calm again; the place was covered with smoke; through the broken window one saw the great hall devastated, burnt in many places; the façade, blackened by the flames, showed its open doors and the image of King Henry riddled with balls."

The Duc d'Aumale maintains that Condé was not the author of the sedition. "Everything," he says, "had been prepared outside of him, against him; everything had been accomplished without him." The sedition certainly did not help his cause; he had lost the sympathies of Paris. He fell into a state of apathy; the King refused to open a letter which he sent to him. He wrote to his friend the Maréchal de Gramont, "Have you not discovered a new island for me?" His allies, the Spaniards, had sent an army into the valley of the Oise, immediately after the combat of the Faubourg St.-Antoine. Condé, though he secretly longed for peace, had to prepare for war; Turenne also was making his preparations with Mazarin. Condé effected a junction with the Duke of Lorraine, and Turenne found himself in great danger. At that very moment Condé fell ill, and had to be brought back to Paris. He had a return of the malarial trouble of which he had caught the germ in Roussillon. He was bled a number of times, after the fashion of the seventeenth century. One evening he sat behind Mademoiselle. "Do take me for your captain of guards," he said to her; "I am good for nothing else any more, for I am very ill and old, oh, so old!" (He was then hardly thirty-one years old.)

Paris was transforming itself under his eyes; the "straw" of the rebels had been replaced by "paper," the royalist emblem. Negotiations were conducted in a hundred directions in the dark. Paris really wished for peace; the Duke of Lorraine, the mercenary Prince who made a living by civil wars, could hardly show himself in the streets. On the 13th of October Condé crossed the barriers of Paris on horseback; he was not to see them again for a long time. On the 19th of October the Parisian militia went to St. Germain and conducted young Louis XIV. back to Paris. The King's entry was triumphal. His brother had gone already to Blois, where he concealed his treachery. Mademoiselle, who had given at the Bastille the signal for firing, left for one of her châteaux, Saint-Fargeau. On the 27th of October Louis XIV. held his *lit de justice*, and Condé and the other rebel princes were declared guilty of high treason.

Condé was already with his little army in the north of France; and now began the real war, the long struggle between Turenne and the man who was no longer a common rebel, a Frenchman fighting with French arms on French soil. No, Condé is now "a soldier of fortune, homeless, no longer belonging to France. Memories of the companions of Wallenstein, of King Gustavus, haunt his mind; he goes back to the dreams of his youth. . . . His ulcerated heart longed for vengeance; excited by fever, the imagination of the erring hero anticipates the great fortune of the captains who carve for themselves a sovereignty from the frontiers of the old States." The details of the campaign of 1653 are given with great minuteness by the Duc d'Aumale. The wars of the time consisted chiefly in sieges and in battles fought in order to relieve the garrisons of the besieged places. They resembled somewhat a game of chess; the armies were small, and there were few decisive actions. We are more interested in the history of the relations of Condé with the Spanish Government and with his life in exile. His style, his tone often gave offence to the proud and slow Spaniards. "His letters," writes Saint-Agoulin, one of his agents, "resemble orders of war." "It is thus that he generally behaves, even with wife, brother, and sister," answers Lenet, his confidant and factotum.

The Memoirs of Lenet are extremely interesting; they have been largely used by the Duc d'Aumale, and no better document can be found for the history of Condé. Lenet, during that period, represented Condé in the south of France; he formed a sort of Ministry with Watteville, another of the numerous agents of the Prince, and with Marchin, who was at the head of the army of the princes in Guienne. The Vice-Admiral of France, Du Daugnon, kept the fleet in the Charente; he was a real filibuster, and was bound to Condé by a treaty. An English fleet was not far off, and the agents of Condé tried in England to revive the memory of La Rochelle and the war of religion. They already announced the junction of Blake, the English Admiral, with the Vice-Admiral of France, the rising of the Huguenots, the establishment of a Protestant republic in the west of France, founded by Condé, with the help of England. Condé writes on this subject to Lenet: "You tell me that the cabal of the Huguenots leads right to the republic; that is not so bad. Certainly things will never come to this end; but by keeping up this idea of a republic, it will hinder the others from thinking of the republic and from suing for peace." The Vice-Admiral of France, Du Daugnon, knocked this scheme on the head by abandoning the cause of Condé and selling himself to Mazarin. A year afterwards, under the name of Marshal Foucaut, he took his place in Parlement and signed the condemnation of Condé.

Marchin governed in Bordeaux for the Prince with Lenet; they had to deal with the Prince de Conti and with Madame de Longueville, with the population of Bordeaux, divided into two camps, the aristocratic Parlement and the *jurats* on one side and the "Ormée" (the mob) on the other. Bordeaux was blockaded, and Conti made his peace with Mazarin. On the 3d of August, 1653, the Dukes of Vendôme and of Candale entered the town; thus ended the inglorious war of Guienne. Condé could have no more illusions; he was now completely in the hands of the Spaniards. Marchin and Lenet joined him in Brussels, as well as the Princess, his wife, who received in the Netherlands the treatment of a queen and the greatest hospitality. Accompanied by her young son she went to Valenciennes, where she established herself with her numerous suite. The politeness of the Archduke was in striking contrast with the coldness of the Prince.

"After so many trials, the courageous and devoted wife, who, always ill, and having just lost a child, conducted by fortune to the arms of her husband, had to wait a week for a single visit. . . . The Prince, in the heat of business, found no time to bring her a single word of consolation and of tenderness. At last, Claire-Clémence was summoned to Mons, where her husband on his part arrived. They spent an evening together at an inn, and the next day she returned to Valenciennes, and he left for Brussels and for the army."

Ought we to see in this singular conduct an indifference verging on contempt—a cruel punishment of some unknown fault? The Duc d'Aumale thinks that Condé wished to prove that he had nothing to do with a negotiation which was going on at that moment between the Princess and the French Court. She had addressed a request to the Parlement asking for the restitution of her property and for permission to go back to France. The permission was not granted, and the Princess remained several years at Malines, in solitude, with two or three ladies only and a few servants, seldom seeing her son, who was kept by his father, and receiving from time to time visits from her husband. Her diamonds had to be sold, as well as her horses and carriages; sometimes the necessaries of life were wanting, and she

found no credit with her butcher and baker. She became, during these years spent at Malines, the mother of a princess who was called Mlle. de Bourbon. Condé occupied himself with the education of his son, called M. le Duc, first at Namur, afterwards with the Jesuits of Antwerp. In the midst of the greatest financial difficulties he always gave him the best masters he could find.

Condé had a certain rank to keep up; to appear in public ceremonies with brilliant carriages, to give dinners, even balls; he had to return as well as he could the splendid hospitality of the Belgian nobility. He fixed his residence in Brussels, and spent there all the time which he did not give to his duties of general and of father. He was invited everywhere; the ladies were charmed by his martial and elegant bearing, his brilliant wit, his glory. He had to sit several times for his portrait; Teniers, the famous painter of the "Kermesses," transformed by the will of the Archduke into a painter of historical scenes, made a charming portrait of Condé, which is now in the galleries of Chantilly. The Prince was popular with the "Gilden," accepted their diplomas and their honors; he became very popular, more than the little court of émigrés who lived around him, who all regretted France and did not conceal their regrets.

The Duc d'Aumale describes very accurately this little court, and draws good portraits of its members. He shows us a Condé fond of literature, of art, even of philosophy. This brilliant cavalier, this patron of artists and man of letters, often had to leave Brussels and to conceal his misery at Malines with his wife, at Namur with his son. He was always tormented more or less by fever or by gout, his moral sufferings were intense. He had to carry the burden of an immense correspondence, to prepare plans of campaign; everything fell on his shoulders. This picture of Condé during the intervals of his yearly campaigns is very new and very graphic. It will be read with much interest by all who are not content with the account of battles and sieges, and who look for the man in the general.

THE CHINESE PHILOSOPHY IN JAPAN.

TOKIO, April 15, 1892.

"THE Confucian code of ethics," says the author of 'Things Japanese,' "has for ages satisfied the Far-Easterns of China, Korea, and Japan"; and Dr. Legge, in his preface to the 'Chinese Classics,' speaks of it as the material which "the minds of this many-millioned people have had to live upon for thousands of years." Such assertions are at once as true and false as it would be to declare that the Synoptic Gospels have been the sole intellectual and moral nourishment of the Christian Church for eighteen centuries. If we cannot ignore the ideas which were received at the hands of Clement and Augustine, Aquinas and Butler, Lessing and Maurice, to supply the new needs of new generations, so we must remember that China and Japan in modern times demanded new inspiration and found it abundantly in the men of later generations. To have emphasized the importance of these later developments, and for the first time to have made clear by translations some of the doctrines which have formed the accepted philosophy of modern times, is to have performed a great service; and that is what Dr. George William Knox is now doing in his essay on 'A Japanese Philosopher,' soon to be published by the Asiatic Society, and the more extensive studies of which it is the probable forerunner.

The particular interest which the student of Japan finds in this philosophy lies in the revelation which it affords as to the philosophical foundation of chivalry and its notions. Feudalism found in this philosophy a powerful ally, and every samurai drank from this fountain. A few words, then, as to the fundamentals of this philosophy and its translation to Japan, with some selections from one of its representative Japanese disciples.

Shushi, by far the greatest writer and thinker in the dominant or orthodox philosophy, lived in China 1130-1200 A. D. His commentary is to-day the orthodox exposition, his system the accepted metaphysic. Shushi was a pantheist. Nature was to him a living, breathing organism. He taught the existence of both *ki* and *ri*, spirit and law. This spirit or breath of nature corresponded to the Stoic doctrine of *pneuma*. "Between heaven and earth there is nothing so important, so almighty and omnipresent as this breath of nature. Through it heaven and earth and every creature live and move and have their being." *Ki* is not spiritual in our modern sense. It is identified with the air. It exists in all things, the grass, the trees, the human body. Man's heart is also *ki*, and shows its nature when the passions are aroused. Over against *ki* is *ri*—the law, the principle of nature. *Ri* is invisible, and is the same as the Way, or Reason. But it is an entity as real as *ki*, indeed, even more truly so, since theoretically it preceded *ki* and *ki* depends upon it. Still, in the actual world there is no *ki* without *ri*, and no *ri* without *ki*. Ethically it is necessary to study and know the *ri*, which controls and refines man's heart, his *ki*; and, without such knowledge, the best action will not avail. The fundamental proposition is that righteousness is life. A scholarship that is apart from morals, that is not expressed in action, that does not govern life, is to be contemned. Man's deepest self lies far below the changing self of act and thought and desire and will. Let the truer, deeper self be nourished, and from that strength true life will come.

This philosophy Japan accepted upon faith. Surprisingly enough, Japanese scholars attempted no systematic exposition either of the dominant school or of its heterodox rivals (to which we cannot here refer). There is not, Dr. Knox asserts, an original and valuable commentary by a Japanese writer, nothing beyond a vigorous power of adoption and assimilation. But there is a difference between the original and the transplanted system. In the latter the samurai takes to himself the place reserved in China for the literati. Loyalty takes precedence of filial obedience; and with this loyalty, in harmony with the feudal and impetuous character of the people, is an undue exaltation of the disregard of life.

The spirit and thought of old Japan are best represented in the writings of Muro Naokiyo, known as Kyuso, who died in 1734, and it is the translation of one of his miscellanies that Dr. Knox is to publish. Kyuso received the highest honors from the Tokugawa Government, and rose to great influence and authority. It was during his life that the famous Forty-seven Ronin performed their exploit, and Kyuso gave them the name by which they are still remembered—*Gishi*, or the Faithful Samurai. The following passage serves to show how he expounded Shushi's metaphysical doctrines in their Japanese home:

"Of course I cannot pretend to settle the mysterious question of the priority of *ki* or *ri* at a sitting, but I will talk a while, taking an illustration from Laotze. 'Reckoning up the wheel, there is no wheel; reckoning up the year, there is no year.' Let us see: this is the rim, this the hub, this the axle, this the spoke; but the rim is not the wheel, nor the hub, nor the axle, nor the spokes. Yet if we cast these away the wheel goes too. But the law (*ri*) of the wheel preceded it, and before the wheel was made the principle was determined. And because the law is imperishable, the carpenter follows it and makes the wheel. See then! Does the wheel come from the spokes and rim, or do these come from the wheel? If we say the wheel comes from the parts, we know its form but not its law.

"This is the meaning of the expression: 'Reckoning up the wheel, there is no wheel, and reckoning up the year, there is no year.'"

One of the constant themes of Kyuso is the duty of a samurai. Not that virtue is reserved for knights alone; but each man in his station has his destiny in life, and it was the duties of the samurai that were the chief concern of those who met to learn from him. It is in these passages that we find the precepts which ruled the life of the chivalry of Japan.

"An old samurai thus taught his pupils: 'Be not samurai through the wearing of two swords, but day and night have a care to bring no reproach on the name. When you cross your threshold and pass out through the gate, go as men who shall never return again. Thus shall you be ready for every adventure you may meet.'

"To forsake parent and lord that one may save himself by becoming a priest is indeed to forsake the world; but it is not to forsake one's self. Unless we forsake ourself we forsake not the world. The desire for fame and gain in the world, and the forsaking of the world in the hope of paradise—these differ as the pure and the impure, yet both alike come from the desire for one's own happiness. Buddhism regards our human relationships as 'borrowed,' and so teaches that parent and lord may be forsaken. Not so! If we are to desert anything, first cast away reputation, gain, and pleasure! Then there will be no need to flee the world."

"When I was in Kaga I heard a man remark: 'All sins, great and small, may be forgiven on repentance, and no scars remain, except two: the flight of a samurai from the post where he should die, and theft. These leave a lifelong wound which never heals. All born as samurai, men and women, are taught from childhood that fidelity must never be forgotten.'"

Here is the inculcation of a principle of which Japan to-day bears the indelible impression—the conventional contempt for mercantile gain and the ignorance of money matters:

"To the samurai first of all is righteousness, next life, then silver and gold. These last are of value, but some put them in the place of righteousness! But to the samurai even life is as dirt compared to righteousness. Until the middle part of the middle ages customs were comparatively pure, though not really righteous. Corruption has come only during this period of government by the samurai. A maid servant in China was made ill with astonishment and fled home in dismay when she saw her mistress, soroban in hand, arguing prices and values. So was it once with the samurai. They knew nothing of trade; they were economical and content."

There was once an American Minister in Japan who publicly said that he considered the story of the Forty-seven Ronin nothing more than a vicious tale of bloody and shameful murder. There are no doubt those who could never understand the ethical code of the samurai. But to those who have eyes to see and minds to understand something more than is given them by the narrow experience of their own time and community, the book of Kyuso will reveal abundantly the meaning of that standard of honor which so dominates Japanese traditions. I conclude with an illustrative story, a typical one, and yet the most striking in the whole book.

"In Kaga I had a friend, a samurai of low rank, named Sugimoto. While he was absent

in Adzuma with his lord, his son Kujuro, who was fifteen years old, quarrelled with a neighbor's son of the same age over a game of checkers, lost his self-control, and, before he could be seized, drew his sword and cut the boy down. While the wounded boy was under the surgeon's care, Kujuro was in custody, but he showed no fear, and his words and acts were calm beyond his years. After some days the boy died, and Kujuro was condemned to *hara-kiri*. The officer in charge gave him a farewell feast the night before he died. He calmly wrote to his mother, took ceremonious farewell of his keeper and all in the house, and then said to the guests: 'I regret to leave you all, and should like to stay and talk till day-break; but I must not be sleepy when I commit *hara-kiri* to-morrow, so I'll go to bed at once. Do you stay at your ease and keep on drinking.' So he went to his room and fell asleep, and all were filled with admiration as they heard him snore. On the morrow he arose early, bathed, dressed himself with care, made all his preparations with perfect calmness, and then, quiet and composed, killed himself. No old, trained, self-possessed samurai could have excelled him. No one who saw it could speak of it for years without tears.

"At the beginning of the affair I wrote to his father: 'Though Kujuro commit *hara-kiri*, he is so calm and collected there need be no fear as to his behavior under the ordeal. Be at peace.' But as Sugimoto read the letter he remarked: 'A child often will be brave enough as others encourage it before the cautery is applied, and yet burst into tears when it feels the heat. My child is so young that I cannot be at peace until I hear that he has done the deed with bravery.' As the proverb says, 'Only such fathers have such sons.' I have told you this that Kujuro may be remembered. It would be shameful were it to be forgotten that so young a boy performed such a deed."

J. H. W.

Correspondence.

MILTON AND PLAUTUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It would seem that Milton, in his advice to Salmasius to go and hang himself ("nihil tibi prius faciendum erit, quam ut pro libro tam longo unam tantummodo literam adhuc longam ex te facies," *Pro Populo Anglicano Defensio*, Thatcher's edition, London, 1836, p. 705), was thinking of *Staphyla's* words in Plautus's "Aulularia" I. i, ("neque quidquam meliust mihi, ut unam faciam literam longam, meum laqueo collum quando obstrinxero"). The early translation, ascribed by Toland to "Mr. Washington, a gentleman of the Temple," follows Plautus even more closely: "I think the best course that you can take will be, for this long book that you have writ, to take a halter, and make one long letter of yourself" (St. John's edition, vol. i., p. 211).

Is the idea expressed elsewhere in literature?

George Hempl.

University of Michigan, May 25, 1892.

COMENIUS ON THE EDUCATION OF WOMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of March 24, on page 231, you say: "Female education in common schools, this crowning keystone in the arch of culture—this new thing under the sun—we may claim as a Yankee notion, pure and simple."

The fact is, that female education in common schools was *not* a Yankee notion merely. It was recognized, preached, and practised in continental Europe even before the landing of the Pilgrims. It was championed by that distinguished Bohemian pedagogue, Comenius (properly Komensky'), whom Michelet calls *le premier évangéliste de la pédagogie moderne*. Comenius became school superintendent and teacher as early as 1617 at Fulnek, in Moravia. This is what he says about female education in the ninth chapter of his 'Great Didactics' (in Bohemian), written A. D. 1628-1632.

"And the schools should be open not only to those youths that are rich and more favored, but to all the young folks of *both sexes*, whether noble or ignoble, rich or poor. And this because:

"(1.) The aim of all men that are born into this world is one and the same, that is, to be men, rational beings, masters of nature, images of God. All, therefore, should be instructed in arts, ethics, and piety. . . .

"(4.) There can be no reason shown why *women* (to speak of them particularly) should be kept away from the study of languages and of wisdom. For they are human beings, images of God, just as we are, equally endowed with minds apt to understand words of wisdom, nay, oftentimes honored with a greater fineness of wit; Providence equally employs them sometimes in great things (as in governing men, districts, domains, even entire kingdoms; also in counselling kings and princes; also in the art of medicine, etc.). Why, then, should we merely teach them an A B C and then drive them away from the books? Do we fear their fickleness? The more we shall engage their minds in work, the less fickleness (which originates in an idle mind) we shall find in them. But we must not put into their hands such a medley of books as is given to male pupils (which has been a deplorable fact heretofore), but only such books as would be a real help and means towards reasonably viewing the acts of God and hence acquiring the true wisdom and virtue."

It will be seen that Comenius advocates not only the common school, but also a higher education for women. The 'Great Didactics' was translated into Latin in 1653 for the Hungarian schools and printed at Amsterdam in 1657. It is a remarkable fact that in 1654 Comenius was offered the Presidency of Harvard College.

I hope this explanation will suffice.

Yours, etc., Josef J. Král.

Ann Arbor, Mich., May 20, 1892.

[The extract proves that "female education in common schools was early preached in Europe" by one man; but not "before the landing of the Pilgrims," which was eight years before the work of Comenius began to be published. But nothing in the quotation of Mr. Král shows that such education was "practised" as well as preached at that early period. Comenius speaks of what "should be"—he does not appear to state a practice as actually existing. He argues in favor of female education as if he were introducing a novelty which those he addressed were disinclined to admit.—Ed. Nation.]

QUESTIONS FOR PROF. McMASTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the year 1798 a well-meaning gentleman of Philadelphia, George Logan, undertook of his own motion to remove the misunderstandings between this country and the French Republic. He was politely received in France, and came home bearing verbal assurances that that country was most favorably disposed towards America. He was not so well received by the public men of his own country. In fact, he was most decidedly snubbed by the President and Secretary of State (McMaster, 'History of the People of the United States,' vol. ii, p. 409 *et seq.*), and Congress passed the act of January 30, 1799, known as the "Logan Act." This act (quoting it as it stands in the Revised Statutes, sec. 5335) provides that:

"Every citizen of the United States, whether actually resident or abiding within the same or in any foreign country, who, without the permission or authority of the Government, directly or indirectly, commences or carries on any verbal or written correspondence or intercourse with any foreign government, or any officer or agent thereof, with an intent to influence the measures or conduct of any foreign government, or of any officer or agent thereof, in relation to any disputes or controversies with the United States, or to defeat the measures of the Government of the United States; and every person, being a citizen of, or resident within, the United States, and not duly authorized, who counsels, advises or assists in any such correspondence, with such intent, shall be punished," etc., etc.

On page 35 of the third volume of Prof. McMaster's History is an account of a transaction in which Don Carlos de Yrujo, the then Spanish Minister to the United States, was a principal. Prof. McMaster says:

"Not long after the convention of 1802 [between the United States and Spain] reached the United States, Yrujo, well knowing that the omission of the French claims would lead to trouble, submitted the question of their justness to five lawyers of high standing. Two of them were Jared Ingersoll and William Rawle, leaders of the Philadelphia bar. A third was Joseph B. McKean, son of the Governor of Pennsylvania and brother-in-law of Yrujo. The fourth was Peter Stephen Du Ponceau; the fifth was Edward Livingston. Concealing the names of the Powers, Yrujo stated the case in these words."

Then follows a hypothetical question, framed by the Spanish Minister to cover the assumed state of facts relating to the three Powers. The answer of all five was to the effect that "the Power B" (the United States) had, under the facts as stated, no claim upon "the Power A" (Spain). The opinion of these lawyers appears to have been greatly relied upon by Spain in the subsequent correspondence. Prof. McMaster expresses no opinion as to their conduct at this point.

On page 284, however, he treats of the treasonable correspondence begun by Timothy Pickering, the New England Federalist, with the British envoy, Rose. He points out how Pickering, who had been Secretary of State, and had procured the passage of the "Logan Act" in 1799, himself violated its every provision in 1808. Then he tells us in a note: "The first violation of this statute was in 1804 [1803?], when the Republican [?] lawyers Rawle, McKean, Ingersoll and Duponceau gave an opinion to Yrujo." For this statement he gives as his authority Wharton, 'International Law Digest,' sec. 109. In the section quoted we find that Dr. Wharton gives, without comment, the following:

"'It was probably unknown to the Spanish Government that the lawyers, in giving the opinion to which it attaches so much value (advising action adverse to the United States), violated a positive statute of their own country forbidding communications of any sort with foreign governments or agents on subjects to which their own Government is a party' (Mr. Madison, Sec. of State, to Mr. C. Pinckney, Feb. 6, 1804. MSS. Inst., Ministers)."

This section of Dr. Wharton's 'Digest' is headed "Self-Constituted Missions Illegal."

These long quotations are necessary to an understanding of the matter. I can find no record of a proceeding under the "Logan Act" involving its interpretation by the courts. References to it are made as illustrating the assertion by this Government of the right of extra-territorial jurisdiction (Whar-

ton, 'Criminal Law,' sec. 274; United States vs. Craig, 28 Fed. Rep., 801). It was clearly violated in 1848 by Nicholas P. Trist, who, refusing to recognize his recall by this Government, persisted in negotiating a treaty with Mexico. But I have not been able to find any authoritative exposition of it. The allusion to it on the part of the Secretary of State, Mr. Madison, was evidently to call Mr. Pinckney's attention to something which might be used with rhetorical effect in support of a bad case against the Spanish Government. It could have had no serious bearing upon the question at issue whether, in giving the advice alleged to have been given, these lawyers were guilty of an offence against the law of their own country or not, and the Secretary can scarcely be said, solely upon the authority of the passage quoted, to have passed upon this question. It might be added that some later experiences have not disposed us to regard the utterances of a Secretary of State as necessarily final authority on legal questions.

The "Logan Act" has been quoted. Does it in terms, or in spirit, apply to such an incident as that of 1803? If so, where is the line to be drawn? Mr. Joseph H. Choate, for example, appeared as counsel in the *Sayward* case. Surely his action was not a violation of this act. Of course it is easy to point out a distinction between the cases, but it is far easier still to point out a distinction between the cases of Logan, Pickering, and Trist, and any case in which a lawyer gives advice at the request of a foreign Government upon a point of law, whether national or international. I submit that Prof. McMaster, so far as the authorities he has cited enable us to judge, has been unduly severe.

The charge is no light one, and if it is unwarranted by the facts, it should not be allowed to pass unchallenged. If there is better warrant for it than a rhetorical sentence in a communication between the Secretary of State and an American minister, Prof. McMaster ought to show it. Dr. Wharton was himself a distinguished member of the Philadelphia bar; one of the four gentlemen named was a relation of his; certainly three of them were men whose memory he, in common with every other Philadelphia lawyer, held in the highest reverence, and had he supposed such a deduction would be drawn from his quotation of the passage of Mr. Madison's letter, we may reasonably think he would not have omitted a note of protest or explanation.

Three other questions of interest are suggested: first, What were the extenuating circumstances in the case of Mr. Livingston which induced Prof. McMaster to except him from the condemnation of his Philadelphia colleagues? second, Is the note due to the fact that the Federalist wrong-doing had to be excused by allegations of equal wickedness of the Republicans? and third, If this be so, what is Prof. McMaster's authority for classing the men he names with the latter party?

Yours truly, J. D. B., Jr.

PHILADELPHIA, March 11, 1892.

Notes.

Apropos of Prof. Wright's recent letter in these columns on "An English Glacial Myth," we are informed that the late Prof. Carvill Lewis's large collection of manuscripts and drawings embodying in detail his studies of the glacial phenomena of Great Britain and Ireland has been admirably arranged and completed by the Rev. Dr. Crossley of Birmingham, one of the leading glacial geologists of England, and now awaits publication. Two appendices have been prepared—one a critical examination of Prof. Lewis's investigations in the light of more recent knowledge, by Prof. Povey F. Kendall; the other consisting of abstracts from Prof. Lewis's studies of the living and extinct glaciers of Switzerland in the summer of 1886-'87, as bearing upon the glacial deposits of Great Britain.

Nature for April 28 announces that Dr. A. C. Oudemans, Director of the Zoölogical Gardens at The Hague, is about to issue, in English, an historical and critical treatise on 'The Great Sea-Serpent,' in which the reports of 166 appearances will be examined and largely illustrated.

A new and revised edition of Prof. Goodwin's 'Greek Grammar' will be ready in June of this year (Boston: Ginn & Co.). It has been rewritten in many parts, and profits by the improvements contained in the new edition of 'Moods and Tenses.'

Upon the completion of "The Naulahka" in the *Century*, this novel by Kipling and Balestier will be brought out in book form by Macmillan & Co.

Harper & Brothers will publish immediately 'The Puritan in Holland, England, and America,' by Douglas Campbell; 'How Women Should Ride,' by "C. de Hurst"; and 'Diego Pinzon, and the Fearful Voyage he took into the Unknown Ocean, A.D. 1492,' by John Russell Coryell.

'American Ideas for English Readers,' which J. G. Cupples Co., Boston, have in press, is a new collection of the late J. R. Lowell's speeches and addresses delivered abroad, embellished with a portrait from the bust by Partridge. Mr. Henry Stone furnishes an introduction.

Thomas Whittaker will publish shortly Canon Farrar's sermons on the Ten Commandments under the title, 'The Voice from Sinai.'

The Proceedings of the first annual meeting of the National Conference on University Extension held in Philadelphia last December have been compiled by George Francis James and published in a volume of nearly 300 pages by J. B. Lippincott Co. One-half of the contents consists of interesting reports of progress from the several States and from the American Society.

The introduction of manual training in our common schools prepares a welcome for the handbook on 'Woodwork' by S. Barter, an instructor and organizer of large experience in London (Macmillan). The book is printed in a very handsome and workmanlike manner, and very many of the 302 illustrations are photographs of hands, tools, and workmen caught in the act. It merits the attention of teachers.

The late Prof. Joseph Payne of the London College of Preceptors could not at his best have been a writer to be read with gusto; but his natural dryness is enhanced in the edition of his 'Lectures on the History of Education,' forming vol. ii. of his Works (Longmans), by the fact that we have not finished discourses, but rather notes. These, although frequently rewritten, were supplemented by extemporaneous illustration which is now lost. We have, therefore, a book of reference rather than an historical essay for consecutive reading and enjoyment. There is an interesting series of portraits of educational reformers, from old prints. The author's 'Visit to German Schools,' notes of a professional tour in 1874, is appended to the Lectures in what is virtually a third edition. It is especially occupied with observations on the kindergarten.

'The Irish Peasant' (London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners) is a plain and straightforward record of the life of a middle-class resident of Ireland. The author relates his experience without political or religious bias, and his observations have therefore an exceptional value. He describes the country and the people not graphically, but with details which those who are interested in the subject will find instructive.

Mr. Curtis's Brooklyn Institute address on James Russell Lowell makes an attractive little volume in Harper's "Black and White Series." It is accompanied by no fewer than six portraits of Lowell, some very rare, a view of Elmwood, and a facsimile of Lowell's handwriting; and is altogether a charming souvenir.

A third edition of Clerk Maxwell's 'Treatise on Electricity and Magnetism' (the second posthumous edition) has issued from the Clarendon Press (New York: Macmillan), in two volumes. It is in the main a reprint of the second edition of 1881, for Mr. J. J. Thomson has concluded not to encumber it with footnotes marking the progress of the science, but to add a volume of notes, to which something like a consecutive form has been given. This volume should appear shortly.

If any field of bibliography is trying, it is that ventured upon by Mr. I. Garland Penn in his volume 'The Afro-American Press, and its Editors' (Springfield, Mass.: Willey & Co.). To trace with particularity the origin and fortunes of journals conducted by colored men in this country is a task which a young man born since the war and bred in Virginia is hardly competent to execute. Mr. Penn's effort is praiseworthy, but it is only a beginning. His work does, however, both name and approximately fix in time and place a large number of newspapers, and give a full series of sketches of colored journalists of both sexes, with portraits. It deserves a niche in anti-slavery collections, with all its imperfections and errors, among which we will instance the strange statement (p. 57) that Dr. Delaney "was among the first Afro-Americans to graduate from Harvard College."

A publication of very great utility has been begun in No. 52 of the Harvard University Bulletins, viz., "Notes on Special Collections to be found in the United States." The Library issued three years ago a circular addressed to the principal libraries of the country, asking for information as to the character and extent of their special collections, and this (geographically alphabetical) list is the result. The first instalment breaks off in New York, and the index, which is the key to the topics of the notes, is yet to come. It should then appear how many foreign (particularly Continental) private libraries have been transferred *en bloc* to our public collections, like Scherer's at Adelbert College, Van der Meulen's at the University of Wisconsin, Beck's at the Hartford Theological Seminary, Rinck's at the Yale Divinity School, etc. Such a list as this, of which we may expect new editions from time to time, will be an invaluable guide not only to students, but to donors. For example, shall one add to the Birney slavery collection at Johns Hopkins (1,000 titles), the May collection at Cornell (1,000 volumes and 2,000 pamphlets), the Sumner-Higginson collection at Harvard (869 volumes, 2,300 titles)? There may be judgment even in giving away old directories. The Directory Library of Boston "aims to get every directory and gazetteer published in this country."

The Report of the State Librarian to the New Hampshire Legislature for the year ending October 1, 1891, forms a volume of 344 pages of considerable value. The appendices consist of a list of the State's official publications for the year in question; an index list of reports of departments, etc., 1822–1869; a check list of laws, 1789–1891; a table of sessions of the Legislature, 1776–1891; a sketch of the history of the State Library; statistics of public libraries of 300 volumes and upwards; a descriptive list of the State's historical and statistical publications prior to 1860; and an index to the historical matter contained in the New Hampshire Registers, 1772–1892, the Political Manuals, 1857–1872, and the People Handbooks, 1874, 1876, 1877, with biographical sketches of the several compilers.

The first report of the United States Board on Geographic Names, 1890–1891 (Washington), is a thin volume briefly rehearsing the origin of the Board and its achievements, and adding a "list of decisions" as to the orthography of a large number of names, and a list of counties in the United States. The Board has had more than 2,000 questions submitted to it by the Light-House Board, the Coast and Geodetic Survey, the Census Office, etc., and is now engaged in bringing order out of the Alaskan chaos. It has adopted certain principles which will guide it hereafter, *e. g.*, to spell Center in the Websterian fashion, usage being about equally divided; to use boro for borough, burg for burgh, etc.

Mr. J. H. Hickcox contributes to the Bulletin of the American Geographical Society for March 31 a list of all the topographical Atlas sheets published by the United States Geographical Survey from the beginning to June 30, 1890, arranged by States. It is a service as great as it must have been laborious. The scale, contour interval, and bounding parallel and meridian of each sheet are indicated.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for May contains an interesting but not especially noteworthy description of the Yellowstone Park by Mr. Henry M. Cadell, a member of the International Geological Congress held in Washington last summer. This is followed by an account of the results of the work of the Indian Meteorological Department, by Mr. H. N. Dickson. He affirms that, for both practical and scientific purposes, it is "the most complete and efficient in existence," and that, such is the endless variety of weather and climate in India, combined with the regularity of the annual changes, it is possible to state many of the problems of meteorological science "with a definiteness and precision impossible either in temperate climates, where the conditions are too irregular, or in tropical climates, strictly so called, where they are too uniform." In the observations of the intensity of insolation alone can the work of the department be regarded as fruitless. After an immense outlay of time and money in this direction, the conclusion reached is that a proper instrument for estimating the power of solar radiation remains to be invented. Marked success has attended for years the forecasting the date of arrival and strength of the monsoon, though the sudden outburst of rain with its coming is as yet unexplained. The latter part of the paper is devoted to the investigations of cyclones, in one of which, the False Point cyclone of 1885, the minimum reading of the barometer was "27.1 inches, the lowest ever recorded."

The *Academy* of May 7, in a notice of Mr. Fitz-Patrick's 'A Transatlantic Holiday,' says that American railway authorities have invented the term "heterophemy" to designate a condition more or less prevalent, which is defined to be "thinking one thing while saying, hearing, or reading another." Had Dr. Murray's Dictionary reached the letter H, the reviewer would or should have known that "heterophemy" was the creation, in self-defence, of the late Richard Grant White.

Alfred Grévin, the well-known caricaturist and designer, whose work has enlivened many of the French journals *pour rire* during the last twenty-five years, died at Saint-Mandé on the 5th of May. Besides his sketches in these journals, he published a number of little albums in water-color or India-ink. He devoted himself especially to observation of the Parisienne, of all sorts and conditions; and he reproduced his subjects, who were not invariably, perhaps not commonly or preferably, *grandes dames*, with astonishing cleverness. He had a light, romantic touch, great wit, much grace, much originality. He was not, perhaps, a great artist. Forain, in comparison with him, is, it may be, as Zola is to Daudet, or possibly as Zola is to Catulle Mendès. But he was indefinitely more pleasing than Forain. Grévin had been paralyzed for two years, and died of a sudden stroke of apoplexy.

More than one hundred replies having been received in response to a preliminary circular proposing the organization of a society for the preservation and publication of data having reference to the settlement and history of Jews on the American continent, it has been decided to call a meeting in the city of New York, at the Jewish Theological Seminary, No. 736 Lexington Avenue, on June 6, 1892, at four P. M., to be followed by an evening session, commencing at eight P. M.

—The publishing house of Ollendorff is just bringing out a collection of the newspaper articles of Edmond About, under the title of the 'Dix-neuvième Siècle.' What may well be the most interesting part of the book is a long appreciation of About as a journalist which M. Joseph Reinach contributes by way of preface. The *Temps* of May 13 gives nearly three columns of extracts from this "charming and substantial" study of About, from which it appears that M. Reinach has really made a luminous and complete history of him. For About was primordially and essentially a journalist. He decried his work, but he always came back to it: the passion for it was stronger than he. And, somewhat oddly, he never seemed to get much beyond what he himself described as the earliest attitude of the newspaper writer. "A man uses his first newspaper," he said in his 'Lettres d'un bon jeune homme à sa cousine Madeleine,' "as he does his first gun. Have you never met, my cousin, a twelve-year-old youngster to whom somebody has given a gun for a Christmas gift? He has powder, shot, caps: the universe is his! No human force can restrain him. He overruns the fields, the gardens, the house itself, with his new gun. He intoxicates himself with the noise of its explosions, with the smell of powder, with the delight of killing something. He fires at sparrows, at squirrels, at pigeons, at fowls in the barn-yard, at the family cat, at papa or mamma, if he chances upon no other game." If this is not an absolutely accurate description of About himself, it comes close enough to him to be amusing. It describes the sort of running-fire that he kept up for years in the *Figaro*, the *Opinion Nationale*, the *Gaulois*, the *Soir*, the *XIX^e^ Siècle*, which he created, and in many places besides.

—It is a pleasure to learn that Karl Hillebrand's 'Aus und über England,' forming the third volume of his "Zeiten, Völker und Menschen," has met with sufficient success to induce the publisher (Karl Trübner, Strassburg) to issue a second edition of these delightful and instructive essays. Hillebrand's position among German writers of the present generation is unique. Although by natural bent and early training inclined to the æsthetic ideals of Kant and Goethe, he came to be at the same time an ardent admirer of Bismarck. In his instincts and affections as German as a German well could be, he lived throughout the years of his manhood outside of the German boundaries, and spent the best of his energies in preaching cosmopolitan doctrines. Belonging to an age of specialization, himself a punctilious scholar and painstaking critic, he was wholly himself only in striving after broad and universal views, and far above the learned recluse he placed the cultured man of the world. To hear such a man give his impressions about English life and literature is indeed an uncommon privilege, and no one interested in the subject should fail to read the volume in question if he is not already familiar with it from its first edition. It is a pity that Hillebrand's widow should have considered it an act of piety to add to the present edition a posthumous essay which Hillebrand himself, we are sure, would never have allowed to go to press. It is a paper on "Defoe und Robinson Crusoe," written originally in French for a popular occasion, wholly without originality, and abounding in most un-German and even positively ungrammatical sentences.

—Dr. Scartazzini's 'Dante-Handbuch' (Leipzig: Brockhaus), though bearing the closest relations to his two similar works, should be carefully distinguished from them. His 'Dante' (Milan, 1883), occupying two volumes of Hoepli's well-known series of manuals, translated into English in 1887 by Dr. Davidson, became at once the most used handbook on the subject. Scartazzini's second work of the kind, which we noticed on its appearance, was his 'Prolegomeni' (Leipzig: Brockhaus); it formed the fourth volume of his edition of the 'Divine Comedy.' With this the present work is almost identical in subject-matter; the difference between them being that the later volume omits a section on the Italian language and literature in the century of Dante, adds a chronological summary of the history of the times, brings the bibliographies up to date, and corrects a few important errors. The structure of the two books is also very much the same. The second is, however, in no sense a translation of the first, but a reworking and adaptation of his material to the needs of German students. The tone, too, of the second is one much more characteristic of the author, to whom the sceptical mood of the Italian version, with its close adherence to Bartoli's opinions, was not altogether becoming. It is a pleasure, moreover, to find him doing honor to the memory of Witte, whom he had before somewhat slighted, and to the valuable work which has been done in America during the last decade. Mr. Lane's 'The Dante Collections in Harvard College and Boston Public Libraries' he calls "sehr brauchbar und absolut zuverlässig." Of Dr. Fay's 'Concordance' he says: "Dieses Werk . . . wird . . . ohne allen Zweifel nach und nach als eins der unentbehrlichsten Hülfsmittel für das Studium der *Divina Commedia* anerkannt werden." In short, the 'Dante-Handbuch' seems in many ways a better book than the 'Prolegomeni.' In one form or the other Scartazzini's work is

the best of its kind existing, but in both instances we must deplore the absence of an index.

—A description of the ruins of Mashonaland occupies the larger part of the May Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. To Mr. Bent's report reference has already been made, and it is only necessary to add here that the occupation of the gold districts by the Arabians, of a pre-Mohammedan era, or possibly Phœnicians, apparently lasted through centuries and ceased in some overwhelming calamity. The probability is that they were destroyed by some great irruption from the north of the ancestors of the present Bantû races. The remarkable round tower which appears in more than one of the Zimbabwe ruins "doubtless corresponded to the sacred tower of the Midianites called Penuel, or 'the Face of God,' which Gideon destroyed." Mr. Robert M. W. Swan, the companion of Mr. Bent in his researches, contributes some purely scientific notes, in which he says that though the ancient diggers must have obtained a great quantity of gold, "there is no reason to suppose that they have exhausted the reefs; indeed, I have seen at the bottom of old workings the reef continuing and carrying visible gold." He draws attention especially to the orientation of the buildings, in which the instances to the setting sun at the solstices are more numerous than those to the rising sun. In one part of the great wall of the fortress there is a very narrow doorway, not running at right angles with the wall, but north and south. This arrangement occasioned much perplexity as to the reason, until investigation proved that the line of sight to a person standing at the altar was through the main doorway of the great temple and then through this slit in the wall. It was "probably used to observe the transit of stars over the meridian, and thus to mark the time at night." These temples are of peculiar interest, as they are the only known instance of orientation in the southern hemisphere. In the discussion which followed the reading of these papers before the Society, Mr. H. H. Howorth, author of the 'History of the Mongols,' called attention to the fact that the specimens of Chinese celadon and Persian porcelain found at Zimbabwe dated from the ninth or tenth century, thus determining approximatively the later date of the history of the ruins.

DR. JOHNSON'S LETTERS.

Letters of Samuel Johnson, LL.D. Collected and edited by George Birkbeck Hill, D.C.L. Harper & Bros. 1892.

Dr. Birkbeck Hill may now be almost said to have made Dr. Johnson his own. His edition of Boswell's biography, which was reviewed in these columns five years ago, it may be presuming too much upon the gift of prophecy to declare definitive; but it is certainly safe to say that many years will pass before there is even an attempt to supersede it. Since that time, other works bearing on the same general subject or period have come out under his editorial supervision. To the previous obligations to his labors under which students of the eighteenth century lie, there is now to be added this first collection ever made of Johnson's correspondence.

It is not a complete collection in itself, for these volumes are in a measure supplemental to those containing Boswell's Life; and the letters printed in Mr. Hill's edition of that work, though recorded here, are not reproduced. Moreover, it is plainly intimated in the preface that certain correspondence which is known to be in existence could not be secured, through the refusal of its owner or owners to have it printed. But in all other particulars the work is as complete as could now be made by the most unwearied industry in collection and wide knowledge of the period in elucidation. Nothing that came from Johnson's pen has been omitted as too unimportant. All known possible sources of material have been carefully searched. Even the information contained in auctioneers' catalogues of autograph letters finds itself carefully gathered. Whenever, in such cases, extracts appear which have been given to whet the appetite of buyers, these are duly set down in their proper place, and it is not unreasonable to expect that in some instances their mention here will lead eventually to the recovery and publication of the whole text. Other unknown letters undoubtedly still continue to exist in the desks of collectors and will from time to time be brought to light; but in these two great works connected with Johnson Mr. Hill has a right to congratulate himself that he has succeeded in printing about ninety letters previously unknown to the general public. The whole number of all sorts, it may be added, which he has collected from various quarters and inserted in these two volumes, or the existence of which he has indicated, amounts to over eleven hundred.

The work is further enriched by a wealth of annotation which differs from most annotation in being exceedingly readable—in some instances, it must be said, much more readable than the matter it sets out to explain. Mr. Hill, as in duty bound, is an ardent admirer of Johnson, but this does not lead him to be unjust to adversaries. Only once have we detected in him any sign of falling from grace on that score. This occurs in his mention of Anna Seward. Her he speaks of as "an affected, tiresome, spiteful, and mendacious creature, who wrote bad verses and disgraced Walter Scott by being one of his correspondents." As if this were not sufficient to denote the degraded level to which she dragged down the great novelist, he adds that Scott even "went so far as to write a preface to what was called her Poetical Works." We are not particularly interested in championing the cause of an authoress who, in her dislike and depreciation of Johnson, often displayed a petty feminine spitefulness, but in the characterization which she receives here the sense of proportion has been lost. The measure that is meted out to her is of a much harder kind than that dealt out to far greater offenders against truth and justice. It contrasts curiously with the comparatively tender way in which mention is made of Baretti, who, though he escaped hanging for the death of a man he killed in a brawl, deserved that fate half-a-dozen times for the assassinations of private character he attempted.

The letters themselves, as has been intimated, yield frequently in interest to the annotation. Important, too, as they are to the study of the man and of the period, they cannot be said to contribute much that is new to the knowledge we already possess. The addition upon which the editor justly prides himself the most is the letter written by Johnson to his wife in 1740. In this the husband, then thirty-one years of age, addresses the wife of fifty-one as "my dear girl," and indulges in other expressions of tenderness which will excite respect in some minds and amusement in others. But about the first half of his career there exists a blank in our knowledge which the matter, whether old or new, contained in these volumes, does practically nothing to remove. The struggle and suffering which marked Johnson's early London life leave scarcely a record of themselves in any correspondence that has come down. From that source, indeed, no further light is ever likely to be thrown upon those weary years in which he was fighting that long battle with hunger and hardship and disease which he had plainly in mind when, at the age of sixty-four, he wrote to Mrs. Thrale that all he could look back upon was "a life diversified by misery, spent part in the sluggishness of penury, and part under the violence of pain, in gloomy discontent or importunate distress."

Letters covering this period and giving information as to his actions and sufferings are in truth never likely to be discovered, for the very good reason that they are likely never to have been written. He who found it so easy to talk, rarely took of his own accord to the task of composition. Nor will Johnson, in spite of the plea set up for him by the present editor, be ever known as a great letter-writer, hardly even as a good one. This is not saying that in these two volumes there is not much weighty observation, much acute comment, much that would be found interesting in itself, even did it not have the additional interest of having been written by the most famous literary man that England then possessed. But the indefinable charm of unconscious self-revelation which sets off the hastiest productions of the born letter-writer, is not to be found either among the valuable reflections or the dry details that make up no small share of this correspondence.

If any exception is to be made to this view, it is in the letters written to Mrs. Thrale, published by her in 1788, and finding, of course, their due place in this work. In them Johnson is certainly at his best, and fortunately they take up a very large share of his correspondence. To them in this edition are appended the marginal notes written by Baretti in a copy of the original work which is now in the British Museum. Brief as these are, they have all the delightful qualities which are imparted to expression when unscrupulous mendacity acts under the inspiration of bitter hatred. They are therefore almost invariably entertaining. The editor remarks that Baretti's statements are to be received with caution. This is putting the fact very mildly in regard to this Italian bravo.

The truth is that in this work there lingers a faint but still perceptible echo of the violent social convulsion which shook the literary circles of London towards the end of the last century. The public sentiment of Great Britain has never got over the sense of outrage it experienced when it was discovered that the widow of an English brewer had actually had the audacity to take for her second husband an Italian music master. The feeling does not, of course, exhibit itself here in the foul-mouthed way in which it found expression at the time. It does not take on the form of slanderous misstatement to which, at a later period, Macaulay gave wide currency in his review of Croker's edition of Boswell's Life. Still it is here; and if it can be traced in an editor so scrupulously accurate and fair-minded as Mr. Hill undoubtedly is, we can feel reasonably confident that the feeling has assumed the character of an inborn national grudge and is now transmitted in the blood. Yet there has never been any pretence, outside of unfounded and malicious gossip, that the marriage of Mrs. Thrale and Piozzi was an unhappy one. There is no question that the person principally con-

cerned never regretted it and never had reason to regret it. There is no question that she lived a much happier life with her second husband than she did with her first. Thrale was far from being the intellectual equal of his wife, nor was he always considerate of her feelings. It is accordingly easy to comprehend and to sympathize with the sense of relief that must have been hers after his death, when, to adopt the lofty language of Boswell in describing the state of things then existing, "the manly authority of the husband no longer curbed the lively exuberance of the lady."

A foreigner might well suppose that an Englishman of the present day would be glad to have forgotten the senseless howl with which the most cultured society of the land greeted at the time the second marriage of Mrs. Thrale, as, in addition to the vulgarity of its course, the act was one which did not concern it in the least. Apparently it is something that continues to be regarded with pride. The present publication of the correspondence renders it therefore appropriate to say that amid all the ribaldry which found vent on that occasion, the letter of Johnson (vol. ii., p. 405) to the woman to whom he owed so much bears easily the palm in brutality. Rough in its language and coarse in its suggestion, it is from any and every point of view utterly indefensible. The dignified reply which the recipient of this choice epistle made to the insults it contained has been preserved, and in this instance there is no possibility of resorting to the insinuation that it has been either forged or worked over. It gives the reader a high idea of her character and spirit, and of her superiority in sentiment and feeling to the crowd of reputable and disreputable busybodies by whom she was hounded. In fact, the only persons who now appear to any advantage in this sorry business are the two who were then assailed with the coarsest terms of abuse.

The letters to Mrs. Thrale in this volume are more than three hundred in number, and, as a whole, are far the most important and interesting of any that Johnson ever wrote. They have required, as the editor tells us, and as we can well believe, much the greatest amount of labor in annotation. While deprecating his doubtless unconscious tendency to put the worst construction upon her acts and motives, we have no words save those of praise for the manner in which he has performed his task here as in all other cases. These volumes, in fact, are throughout models of conscientious editing. Mr. Hill, at the close of his preface, expresses the hope that the same generous treatment will be accorded to the present work dealing with Johnson which the previous one obtained. There can be no question as to the reception that it will meet with from all students familiar with the time of which it treats. His edition of the 'Life of Johnson' received the generous treatment of which he speaks, for the very adequate reason that it fully deserved it. To the same treatment for the same reason this edition of Johnson's letters is entitled. It would indeed be a matter of discredit to contemporary criticism if the painstaking labor, the wide-embracing research, and the extensive and accurate knowledge which have been brought to bear upon the illustration of this work did not meet with the ample recognition and hearty welcome which they fully merit.

THE LETTERS OF WILLIAM LEE.

Letters of William Lee, Sheriff and Alderman of London, Commercial Agent of the Continental Congress in France, and Minister to the Courts of Vienna and Berlin, 1766–1783. Collected and edited by Worthington Chauncey Ford. 3 vols. Brooklyn, N. Y.: Historical Printing Club. 1891.

We are in no danger of lacking material for the study of the diplomatic relations of our country with the continent of Europe in the period of the Revolutionary War. During the last ten years much has been published: the four large quartos of Doniol, the twelve folio cases of facsimiles of Stevens, not to speak of such minor works as Durand's 'New Materials' and the chapter of Mr. Jay on the negotiations for peace, published in the seventh volume of Mr. Winsor's 'Narrative and Critical History.' Nor do we seem likely soon to see a cessation of activity in this rather small field. Mr. Isham promises us two volumes on Silas Deane, Mr. Stevens announces thirty-eight more of his folio cases, and Mr. Ford, while he bestows on the weary student three volumes on the trivial subject of William Lee, tells us that his brother, Mr. Paul Leicester Ford, is collecting the writings of William Lee's brother Arthur. And, after all is said and done, when the reader of American history has plodded through this enormous mass of material, how much better off will he be than his more fortunate elder brother, who relied on the researches of Sparks and Bancroft? How much did those early investigators leave to be gleaned after them? Something undoubtedly, but not a very great deal: a little more sympathy with the trials and troubles of Silas Deane, a little clearer view of the negotiations for peace, a little more gratitude for the services of Adams and Jay, a little more contempt for Arthur Lee, and a little firmer conviction that William Lee, the writer of these letters, was of no importance whatever.

The name of William Lee is not unfamiliar to the readers of our Revolutionary history. To most of them, however, it is little more than a name. They know that Arthur Lee had a brother who was an alderman of London, and that the brother did some commercial or diplomatic work on the Continent. That is all they know, and it would be as well for the reputation of William Lee that they should know no more. The editor of these letters tells us that both William and Arthur have "suffered greatly at the hands of their biographer." He refers, we suppose, to Mr. Richard H. Lee of Leesburg, Virginia, who in 1825 published a memoir of his grandfather, Richard Henry Lee, and in 1829 a Life of Arthur Lee. Let us see how William fares at his own hands and at the hands of his present editor.

We learn from Mr. Ford's introduction that late in 1766, or early in 1767, William Lee accompanied his brother Arthur to England, to engage in mercantile pursuits. In these he would appear to have met with some success, but his most marked activity was of a political character. He became a thorough-going partisan of John Wilkes, and in July, 1773, was elected a Sheriff of London. Of his conduct in that office we are given but one important example:

"In November occurred an election for a Member of Parliament, in which the contest of faction ran high. The 'ministerial' candidate was John Roberts, and against him Wilkes pitted the Lord Mayor, Frederick Bull, whose advancement had been due entirely to his wealth and his unbounded admiration for 'Squinting Jack,' as the political 'boss' of the city was familiarly called. Poor Roberts was unmercifully treated during the poll, and his descent from the hustings was marked by an outbreak in which he was jostled, trod on, his shins broken, and he was generally ill-treated. That the election was an honest one can hardly be asserted with confidence, for tricks that are still employed in political elections were fully resorted to—charges of bribery, scurrilous paragraphs, forged utterances, personal intimidation, and colonization of voters. The Sheriffs presided, and were supposed to preserve order, but in this case their partisanship appeared to have got the better of their discretion. One Hunt, who claimed to be a member of the Armourers and Braziers' Company, had cast his vote for Bull, when he was charged with being no livery-man—a charge that was true. Sheriff Lee, however, settled the matter by seizing the challenger by the collar, putting him in charge of the constables, and detaining him for some hours, while the dishonest voter went free. The injured freeholder advertised Lee in the papers as one 'whose personal capacity I despise and hold in the utmost contempt.'"

So much for the writer of these letters as a municipal officer. Presently the troubles between Great Britain and her colonies became more acute. Lee was forward in promoting the preparation and delivery of petitions in favor of the American cause to the King and the House of Commons. His election as an alderman from the Aldgate Ward showed him to be a person of influence. His advice to his own countrymen in America might, therefore, be supposed to be weighty. It was proposed in the colonies to bring the British merchants to a sense of the folly of quarrelling with their countrymen beyond seas, by stopping the exportation of tobacco from Virginia and Maryland. Lee approved of the plan and encouraged its execution, but at the same time instructed his correspondents to forward to him a large quantity of the article before the trade was stopped. It does not seem to have occurred to this perfervid patriot that every pound thus sent would tend to make the coercive measures of his friends in America less operative in England; his care in the matter was chiefly for his own pocket.

The progress of political events seems to have put an end to William Lee's commercial business in England, for in October, 1776, we find him hinting to his brother Richard Henry that "the prospect of starving is by no means agreeable," and that he would like an appointment as mercantile agent somewhere on the Continent. And the hint was taken. In April, 1777, Lee received word that he had been made commercial agent at Nantes, in conjunction with one Thomas Morris, a half-brother of Robert Morris, the financier of the American Confederation. Lee therefore proceeded to France, and immediately began to take part in the violent quarrels which divided the small set of Americans in that country. The commissioners, or diplomatic agents, of Congress were Benjamin Franklin, Silas Deane, and Arthur Lee. The last of these was bickering openly with the second, and more covertly with the first. Thomas Morris, who had had sole charge of the commercial agency at Nantes, was a hopeless drunkard. At the time of William Lee's arrival, Morris's conduct was under investigation at the hands of one John Ross, a friend of his elder brother and patron, Robert Morris. A nephew of Franklin, named Jonathan Williams, had been charged by Deane with the sale of prizes brought into French ports by American privateers. This had been done before the news of Lee's appointment as commercial agent had reached France, and was a consequence of Morris's incapacity. Lee, however, chose to take it in dudgeon. He could do nothing with Morris himself, but he did not want anybody else to do anything. He did not long retain the agency. In October he received a commission

as Minister of the United States at the courts of Berlin and Vienna. He remained in Paris, however, for some months. At the end of January, 1778, Thomas Morris died. After a squabble with Ross, William Lee seized his papers and carried them off to Paris, and thus ended the affairs of the agency at Nantes.

In Austria, Lee accomplished absolutely nothing, and he did not go to Prussia. His one diplomatic achievement was the concoction of the draft of a treaty with a Dutchman named De Neufville, representing the Grand Pensionary of Amsterdam. This draft was never adopted by any person or corporation empowered to make treaties, and would be utterly unimportant were it not that a copy of it was found in the papers of John Laurens when the latter was captured at sea by the British in October, 1780, and formed the excuse for the outbreak of hostilities between Great Britain and Holland. William Lee's commission was recalled on the 8th of June, 1779, and he sank from comparative into positive insignificance. His chief characteristics were restless activity and suspicion of those about him. His sense of personal honor is shown by the attempt, which he made while waiting in Paris to go on his diplomatic mission, to use the early intelligence he was likely to receive as minister in stock-jobbing operations in London.

The volumes which contain this collection are very handsome in appearance. Mr. Ford has performed his task with industry and care. If the letters of William Lee were to be published at all, we could hardly ask that they should be better published. The editor's notes are painstaking and appear to be accurate. It is clear that he has not printed nearly the whole of the letters which have been before him. It is possible that a different selection might have given us more of the human and social side of William Lee and his correspondents; but we fancy that the fault here lies with the writer and not with the editor. There was not much in William Lee, and what there was was not very good.

Moral Teachings of Science. By Arabella B. Buckley. D. Appleton & Co. 1892.

ANOTHER subject so important, vast, and difficult it would be hard to name—a subject which not every philosopher of the first rank would be competent adequately to treat. Not mere clear insight into one aspect of philosophy is sufficient; a full appreciation of what belongs to the spirit of all the different leading schools of thought is required. To say that the subject is far beyond the powers of the authoress is no disparagement. Nor has she attempted any thorough or philosophical discussion. It is not science which has dictated her teachings, but traditional ideas, for which she ingeniously finds considerable countenance in facts of natural history. But these facts are somewhat isolated and sporadic; they are not the leading facts of any current scientific theory. That they play so little part in science perhaps indicates a defect in scientific theories.

Two widely different things might be understood by the "moral teachings of science." In the first place, the prosecution of scientific research necessarily requires and strengthens certain moral qualities, quite independently of what the results of that research may be, and the moral teachings involved must undeniably be good so far as they go, although they may be one-sided, fortifying only a part of the moral nature, and leaving another part neglected. The first of these teachings is perfect fairness and moral indifference as to the outcome of any inquiry. Suppose, for instance, the inquiry be as to the correct reading of a text of Scripture, "Thou shalt not steal," or "Thou shalt steal." (We purposely select an impossible case, in order to free the example from perplexities.) There is a conclusive argument to be drawn from the moral nature of man that the former and not the latter must be the correct reading. Nevertheless, in estimating the force of the purely historical evidence—in order to be scientific, in order to be logical—we must for the time being remove, if we can, all such prepossessions from our mind, and look upon the two commandments with an indifferent eye; not rejecting any considerations, but putting them aside for the time being. Many great scientists go to church, and are there very unlike what they are in their laboratories. At one time they are studying one aspect of truth, at another time another. To regard either aspect fairly and honestly, the other must for the time be excluded. If they conflict, the presumption, the faith of the scientific man is, that it is because the last word has not been said, on one side or on the other; at any rate, it must at least be hoped that there is an ultimate resting-place which will be satisfactory from both points of view.

Perfect candor in recognizing facts and their bearings, without trying to explain away real difficulties so as to make out a decided conclusion, is the very first point of scientific morals. To get at the facts of observation, uncolored by any theory or doctrine, moral, political, or physical, is what the scientific man must strive for. It does not please him at all to have his observations agree too well with one another. It makes him suspect that something is wrong. An obstinate discrepancy is his delight, because it shows that he is on the road to learning something he does not yet know. It was a little discrepancy in the place of the planet Mars, of a fourth of the breadth of the moon, that forced Kepler, who would not blink it, to the discovery of his first two laws, and so made the discovery of Newton possible, and opened the way for all modern science. Nothing, it is true, is more common than to find admirable scientific men strangely incapable of seeing the force of certain kinds of evidence; as many medical men long were blind to the evidences of the germ-theory of acute constitutional diseases. Perhaps they are even better scientific men for that, within a limited field; but in a broader field it is a fatal defect. Let lawyers have their rules for excluding certain kinds of testimony if they will, but science must exclude nothing, not even the fancies and traditions of men. On the other hand, science must not confound different orders of premises. It must let instincts and superstitions have their say, unchecked, and listen to them; and then it must let scientific observation have its say, equally unchecked. Science will erect a theory which shall do full justice to both orders of facts, if it can. But whether it can or not, it will collect new facts in all departments to see whether they confirm an existing theory or suggest a new one.

But Mrs. Buckley Fisher rightly understands by the "moral teachings of science" something different from such teachings of scientific logic. She means the moral and spiritual beliefs and tendencies which are in harmony with the discoveries and theories of science. Now, to hold that *these* moral teachings of science are necessarily sound and wholesome is an utterly unscientific belief, because it is not borne out by facts, but is merely an airy optimism. Science is incomplete; it is *essentially* incomplete, for what we mean by science is the sum of human activity at any epoch in the path of discovery; and were everything once found out, this activity must cease. True science never pronounces an ultimatum. Philosophical writers are always doing so. Men like Spencer lay down the principle of the conservation of energy as an ultimate, primordial principle of the universe; but a pure scientist is puzzled to know what can be meant by such a truth. For him the conservation of energy is a principle which he may safely assume in all reasoning about large and unorganized masses, and with little hesitation for molecules and atoms, and which is certainly applicable, to a great extent at least, in regard to living matter. But what absolute universality means, or whether it means anything at all, he does not know nor greatly care. Science is dealing only with what is likely to come into the field of experience in a moderate time. It has nothing whatever to say about eternal verities, and its moral teachings are necessarily defective if such verities have anything to do with morals. But science really makes no pretence to teaching spiritual things; and what are rightly enough called its moral teachings—that is to say, the views of spiritual questions which have a general resemblance to the discoveries science has made up to date—are doctrines for which science does not vouch in the least.

Nobody who analyzes these teachings understandingly and without bias can well deny that, so far, they have been in the main distinctly anti-Christian. The first general feature of nature which attracted the attention of modern scientists was the prevalence of mechanical law; and Robert Boyle, one of the most devout of Christians, formulated the mechanical philosophy according to which the universe works like a machine. Make this proposition absolute and universal, and it jars utterly with the creed of Christendom, for it leaves no room for final causes. Boyle himself made room for them by limitations of the proposition. For instance, he held that in the beginning there was no such mechanism, until God had made his plans; and that, that done, the whole character of his action was changed. There is a fearful want of philosophical unity about such a conception. The natural "teaching" of science, though far from being a scientific conclusion, is that all appearance of final causation is illusory. Christ taught that God loves his children, and that not in an entirely inscrutable way, but humanly, so that there is intercourse between each man and God, and prayers are sent up and answered. Yet the "teachings" of science reduce God to the condition of a limited monarch, acting under laws which leave no room for personal favors. This view has penetrated so far that when Tyndall proposed a prayer test, the attitude of the clergy was less courageous by far than that of Elijah towards the Tyndalls of his day.

Recollections of a Happy Life. The Autobiography of Marianne North. Macmillan & Co. 2 vols., pp. 351–337.

MISS NORTH was in many ways a notable woman, and when she died in 1890, she left behind her this interesting record of her travels, which has been edited by her sister, Mrs. John Addington Symonds. Of many minor errors we note a few which might be corrected in a second edition: Brooklyn for Brookline, Ongar for Ogden, Tahoo for Tahoe, Denning for Deming, Alldine for Aldine, Puebla for Pueblo, Bernard for Barnard; while okra is dis-

guised as accro (which the table of *errata* says should be okery), and milreis is written millen reis. Moreover, dates are important in some books of travel, because of the rapid changes which take place, but instead of being given at the top of each page in these volumes, the years are inserted in the text in the most casual and unexpected places.

Miss North began to travel at an early age. While still a girl, her father took her all over Europe, and they were driven from one capital to another by the troubles of 1848, reaching Dresden the very day before Wagner, not yet the world-famous, led the mob which assaulted the palace. It may have been owing to this experience that she failed to appreciate what she calls "the endless weariness of the music of the future," but it is more probable that, in spite of some early training in singing, she had inherited some of her father's feeling toward music, which led him to consider it "a horrid noise which must be submitted to for the sake of others who like it." This theory finds confirmation in her confession that she disliked poetry. Before reaching womanhood, Miss North had arrived at the conclusion that English society, especially that of the country squires, was extremely dull—an opinion that is shared by many unprejudiced observers at the present time. She very much preferred wandering about Europe with her father, which she did for many years, and it is to be presumed that during this period she acquired some of the independence and *savoir faire* which characterized her later life.

Her serious travelling, during which she was almost entirely without companionship, began in 1871, after her father's death, and continued for some fifteen years. During that period she visited this country, Jamaica, Brazil, Teneriffe, Japan, Borneo, Java, Ceylon, India, Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, South Africa, the Seychelles Islands, and Chili, and several of these countries more than once. She was very far removed from the ordinary globe-trotter, who wanders from place to place in order to kill time, and sees little or nothing but the bills of fare in the different hotels. On the contrary, she had a keen sense of the beautiful in scenery, especially tropical scenery, and to a less degree in architecture, while her comments on men and manners are generally original and intelligent. Of humor she shows occasionally what mineralogists call a trace, as, for instance, in the story of a stout and fashionably dressed lady at a ball who was horrified by the cannibal King of Fiji's admiration of her arms when she learned that these are esteemed the choicest morsels of human flesh! Like other travellers, she found the Dyaks of Borneo the most truthful, polite, and contented of all savage races, although professing no religion at all. She was very decidedly of opinion that, except in unfavorable climates, the white man must inevitably drive out the colored—a view which it would be difficult to maintain successfully.

However, it was not to study sociological questions that Miss North made her long journeys. As far as possible she avoided large towns and the society of tennis-playing English people, and wandered into by-ways and remote districts where she could paint the wonderful plants and trees free from the interruptions of the idle and frivolous. This was her hobby and her life-work, and in the pursuit thereof she underwent discomforts and privations which would have daunted a less courageous soul, and which undoubtedly shortened her life. In one of her sleeping-places in Africa, she says, "Lizards and rats were perpetually on the move, but when once I knew what they were, they no longer disturbed me." To be able to sleep at all under such circumstances argues a nervous organization uncommon among men and certainly very rare among women. By dint of incessant labor, and in the face of many difficulties, she finally completed a collection of paintings covering the whole range of tropical vegetation, and these she presented to the nation, and they can now be seen at Kew Gardens. The Queen, being advised that she could not make Miss North a baronet, sent her her photograph instead, but it is probable that the successful completion of her task was in itself a more precious reward than any honor a grateful sovereign could bestow.

Our English Homer; or Shakspere Historically Considered. By Thomas W. White. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE Baconian theory of the authorship of Shakspere's plays receives a curious contribution in the work whose title we give. The author improves on the old theory by informing us that the plays were written by everybody except Shakspere. Greene, Nash, Peele, Drayton, Marlowe, Daniel, Lodge, Chapman, and "Unknown" make up the list, with Bacon as author of "Hamlet," "Timon," "Henry VIII.," and the Roman plays, and as "reviser" of the others, originally composed by the dramatists named above. The way of it is sufficiently exposed by the following extract: "We say nothing of the loose life which ruined the morals of his [Shakspere's] associates. But he is a mere Jack-of-all-trades—a man with a tiger's heart, who would allure scholars to do his work, fawn on them, suck their brains, and cast them off when they had served his turn; while, for we cannot omit this, he would represent to the world that their works were his own." The argument is, that Shakspere invented a dramatic "sweating" scheme, hired the poor University men to compose plays, paid them just enough to keep them subject to his will, and at the same time taught them debauchery in order the more surely to enslave them by necessity, and finally, as they died under his tyranny, assumed their works, had Bacon revise them, and then made the wise courtier his last mouthful.

The book is pretentious and wears a certain semblance of learning; consequently a few more quotations from it may be given in illustration of its quality. Here, first, is a passage on the origin of Greek tragedy out of the Bacchanal choruses: "From all we know of those songs, they seem to have been very similar to our old-fashioned negro minstrelsy—disconnected tirades, full of impudent allusions, and accompanied by the grotesque humor proper to those who were drunk. Nor were the Bacchanals themselves very different in appearance to our earlier sable songsters." Here is the origin of Italian drama: "When, therefore, their [the Goths'] slaves—and all the Romans spared had been absorbed either in marriage or servitude—began to compose plays for their entertainment, they naturally combined the Roman dramas of their recollection with the fairy legends they had been compelled to accept; and as the former were all imitated from the Greek, that combination arose which is seen in 'A Midsummer Night's Dream.'" Here is the origin of Venice: "Of all the world the Venetians exhibited the most violent hatred of the whole Saracen race. Rather than submit to their sway, they had deserted the fertile regions of Italy and had taken refuge on those barren sand-banks which ultimately became Venice." This is apropos of the statement that "Othello" is from the Spanish, supported as follows: "As the reader will have gathered from our remarks, we have been unable to put our hand on the Spanish piece whose existence we suggest. We have not even got notice of it from books. But that need not create any surprise." It doesn't. Did the author "get notice from books" of the statement on his first page that the "Lower Empire" was overthrown "a century later" than "the invention of printing," namely, "in 1543"?—an amusing instance of how figures can lie, since but for his words in the text his date might have gone as an obvious misprint.

Here is page after page of novelties in the way of history, but enough, surely, in the way of example has been given. This acrobatic ignorance naturally disports itself most on the ground of Baconianism, where it finds a congenial ring, and indeed the performance has new features. The proposition that everybody except Shakspere wrote the plays and poems has a humorous charm; the list, all tabulated, with ascription of each play to its right owner at last, is almost worthy of Tristram Shandy's faculty for diagrams; the staid Greek quotations on the page seem to wink and blink with suppressed fun in their masquerading learning. Excellent fooling! The "Baconian," willy-nilly, "chronicles a deal of sport."

Vermont: A Study of Independence. By Rowland E. Robinson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892.

THE history of Vermont has a marked individuality. New England and New France dissociated—as Tacitus would say, *mutuo metu aut montibus*—left the intervening spaces a wilderness until after the conquest of Canada. Then the Green Mountain region became to the older colonies, like the Northwest of our day, the agricultural land of promise. But that whole area turning out debatable ground between New Hampshire and New York, the pioneers set up a government of their own. Statehood was thrust upon them. Independence, however, cost them a thirty years' struggle. Their Constitution shows the earliest prohibition of slavery, and no slave was ever held within their limits. Their administration was simpler and cheaper than their neighbors had dreamed of. In all wars their military record has been glorious; and their children, swarming as from a Northern hive, have gone out West in crowds proportionally greater than from any quarter of the Atlantic slope.

The present historian of Vermont has uncommon skill in picturesque description. Marches, battles, the Westminster massacre, log-rolling and other bees (as raising, husking, apple-paring, and sugaring off) are well rendered in word-painting. Mention of flowers, trees, and especially birds, varying with the seasons and hours of the day, gives a charming local color to incidents. In details of this nature, which paint a scene to the life, Mr. Robinson has followed in the footsteps of Parkman. His story, thanks to this descriptive power and to terseness, is more readable than any thus far written of the State in the series to which it belongs. Nevertheless, it is a work of no great research. The manuscripts gleaned for the State archives with so much pains by Henry Stevens do not appear to have been consulted. The voluminous 'Records of Governor and Council' are rarely referred to. Little use is made of the side-lights thrown on early history by con-

temporary newspapers. Geography and chronology are the eyes of history; in this narrative they are both sometimes dim. The battle of Hubbardton would be more intelligible were we told its distance from Ticonderoga. Among the routes of Indian raids, Poultney River should have been mentioned, it being on the shortest thoroughfare between lake and river, and traversed in 1754, when so many captives were carried off from Charlestown. More dates (as pp. 207, 217, 241, and often elsewhere) would make the narrative clearer. Those given are not always correct. Thus it is said (p. 32) that Amherst in 1757 moved by the same route which Abercrombie had taken. The date of Abercrombie's movement is not stated, but it was in fact a year after 1757. There may be here a misprint.

No such excuse, however, can be made for misstatements of fact. The library of George P. Marsh is said to have been his *gift* to the Vermont University. The truth is, that, after the death of Mr. Marsh, his library was bought of his widow in Italy for $25,000 by Frederick Billings, and given by him to the University. Gen. Ransom, President of Norwich University, is set down as merely "a military instructor" in that institution. Spanish merinos are said to have been "imported by Consul Jarvis in 1809 and 1810, and *about the same time* by Col. Humphreys, and by Chancellor Livingston as early as 1802." But Humphreys made his importation seven years before Jarvis, and, according to the *North American Review* (iv., p. 98), "was the first person who introduced into this country merino sheep." In keeping with this declaration is the epitaph on Humphreys at New Haven, in which Prof. Kingsley declares that he first enriched his country with a truly golden fleece, *vellere vere aureo*. The Yankees at Bennington, Mr. Robinson tells us, stormed the breastwork with "bayonetless guns" (p. 175); but Pittsford men, while burying the dead at Hubbardton, picked up twenty-seven bayonets and had sold them to the State in time to be of service at Bennington. Indeed, ex-Minister Phelps, at the dedication of the Battle Monument, stated that half of Stark's force had bayonets. Our author needed confirmation of his opinion concerning Arnold's course in eluding the British fleet at Valcour Island. What he desiderated he would have found in Stone's translation of Pausch's Diary. Pausch says: "The batteaux formed a chain from shore to shore."

But the point where we most regret Mr. Robinson's superficial investigation is concerning Dr. Thomas Young, who not merely "suggested" but gave her name to Vermont, April 11, 1777, and also, as is highly probable, the first draft of her Constitution. The Vermonter who had spoken of him most fully could only say: "He is believed to have died in Philadelphia in the latter part of the year 1777." Files of contemporary newspapers elucidate this and other particulars, which decent respect to such a benefactor as Young calls on Vermont historians to commemorate.

Indika: The Country and the People of India and Ceylon. By John F. Hurst, D.D., LL.D. Harper & Bros.

In this very well-written book the author gives an account of his visit to India, describes its scenery and all its celebrated places, sketches its history, touches upon its numerous religions, tells us something about all the principal castes, tribes, and sects into which Indian society is distributed, examines the English administration of the country, and discusses some of the leading questions of Indian politics. His personal narrative expands after this manner in various directions, and becomes the connecting thread of a whole series of impressions taken during his travels, and of very intelligent observations upon places and people. We may add that the value of the book is much increased by many really admirable illustrations.

Dr. Hurst has evidently studied India and Indian literature from every point of view; and his object appears to be to include in this volume a brief summary of all that the general reader may find useful in taking a rapid survey of the past history and present state of this most interesting country. It is not surprising that, in taking such a wide range over his subject, he should have fallen into a few inaccuracies, or that his insight into the circumstances out of which British dominion arose in India should be occasionally imperfect. When, for example, he writes that "History utters no voice as to who suggested such a strange and far-off gift" as the cession of Bombay by Portugal to England in 1662, he is treating as mysterious what was really a very intelligible transaction. In the seventeenth century the Dutch were formidable rivals on the Indian coast to the English as well as to the Portuguese; and the cession of Bombay represented an alliance of England and Portugal against Holland. The brief notice of the French in India is not quite satisfactory; and we may remark, though it is a small matter, that "many thousands of native troops" were not slain at the battle of Plassey in 1757, but only about five hundred. On the other hand, we have a very useful and substantially correct account of Anglo-Indian administration in all its branches, with an impartial review of its advantages and drawbacks; and although one may demur to the prophecy that "the native States will diminish and in time disappear"—for the English policy is to maintain and strengthen them—yet the whole work shows a fair and well-judged appreciation of the relations between the English and the Indians, and is full of generous sympathy for the indigenous races.

It is natural that much space should be allotted to religion and to education, and to the prodigiously difficult problems raised by the rapid extension of Western knowledge, which saps the foundations of the primitive faiths, and destroys without reconstructing. Much is said about the Protestant missions: we are told, somewhat confidently, that "England has learned that the Christian religion is the real and only basis of a permanent tenure of the country"; a short chapter is devoted to "The Skeptical Invasion of India"; and two are occupied with the "Reformatory Movements" that are going on within Hinduism. Short studies of such deep and complex subjects are necessarily inadequate; nor is it clear that they are much elucidated for the earnest reader by such passing remarks and expeditious conclusions as can find room in a book of this character. The neutral attitude of public instruction in India is severely criticised; but Dr. Hurst takes little account of the immense difficulties of the situation, or of the fact that it is only by observing this strict neutrality that the English Government has been able to spread education among the jarring sects and rival creeds of this vast population. We may add that it is this reputation for careful neutrality among conflicting religions which has empowered the Government to protect and even to encourage Christian missions.

Similar exception may be taken to the two chapters on "The Opium Curse in India" and on "Intoxicating Drinks," which inevitably fail to deal with more than the obvious and indisputable aspects of questions that demand very careful scrutiny. It is easy to say that England has never made a greater contribution to the world's wretchedness than by the opium traffic, and to give statistics of drunkenness among the lower classes of the natives; but the point to be proved is whether opium-eating or drinking would increase or diminish if no revenue were raised from drugs or liquor. Into this argument, however, we cannot enter.

We can entirely commend the picturesque descriptions of the beautiful buildings that are scattered all over India, of the people, their princes, and their capital cities; there is a chapter on Bassein, "a dead Portuguese city," which is particularly striking and of much historical and archæologic interest; and in his final chapter, "What has England done for India?" the author shows a just and discriminating appreciation of the results, up to the present time, of one of the most extraordinary political experiments ever undertaken in the history of the world's civilization. He enlarges upon the expansion of education among all classes, the physical care of the helpless, the subtle bond of the English language, the development of the soil, the opening of the country for the incoming of Western ideas, and the breaking down of all doors for the free spread of the Gospel. Such books as this will be read with pride and profit by all English-speaking races; and the author will have earned the respect and gratitude of all those natives of India who desire the friendship and sympathy of the civilized natives of the West.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, J. L. The Blue-Grass Region of Kentucky, and Other Kentucky Articles. Harpers.
Barter, S. Manual Instruction: Woodwork. London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Birrell, Augustine. Res Judicatæ. Scribners. $1.
Black, W. Kilmeny. New and revised ed. Harpers.
Brace, Maria P. A Text-Book of Elocution. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 40 cents.
Burnet, John. Early Greek Philosophy. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Bury, J. B The Isthmian Odes of Pindar. Macmillan. $2.25.
Caller, Mary A. A Literary Guide for Home and School. Charles E. Merrill & Co. $1.25.
Castle, Egerton. Schools and Masters of Fence. New and revised ed. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Cavazza, Mrs. Elizabeth. Don Finimondone. Charles L. Webster & Co. 75 cents.
Clerke, Agnes M. Familiar Studies in Homer. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Crafts, Rev. W. F. The Sabbath for Man. 6th ed. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Curtis, G. W. James Russell Lowell: An Address. Harpers.
Cushing, Paul. The Blacksmith of Voe. Harpers. 50 cents.
Fawcett, Edgar. A New York Family. Cassell. 50 cents.
Gatschenberger, Stephan. Love is Lord of All. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Gay, G. E. Business Book-keeping. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.55.
Genone, Hudor. Inquirendo Island. 3d ed. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Goss, E. H. The Life of Col. Paul Revere. 2 vols. Boston: J. G. Cupples Co.
Grant, Robert. The Reflections of a Married Man. Scribners. $1.
Habberton, John. Well Out of It. John A. Taylor Co. 30 cents.
Haggard, H. R. Nada the Lily. Waverly Co. 50 cents.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. An Edelweiss of the Sierras, and Other Tales. Harpers.
Hatch, F. H. Mineralogy. London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Hawthorne, N. The Scarlet Letter. John B. Alden. 20 cents.
Holst, H. von. The Constitutional and Political History of the United States. 1859–1861. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.

Hyslop, Prof. J. H. The Elements of Logic, Theoretical and Practical. Scribners. $2.
Landor, W. S. Imaginary Conversations. Vol. 6. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Lindsay, Prof. W. B. Compendious Manual of Qualitative Chemical Analysis. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Lummis, C. F. A Tramp Across the Continent. Scribners. $1.25.
Lydekker, R. Phases of Animal Life, Past and Present. Longmans, Green & Co.
Marcotti, J. Guide-Souvenir de Florence et Pays Environnants. Florence: G. Barbèra.
Masson, Prof. D. Edinburgh Sketches and Memories. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $3.75.
Moyle, J. B. The Contract of Sale in the Civil Law. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.60.
Nansen, Fridtjof. The First Crossing of Greenland. New abridged ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Nicholson, Prof. J. S. The Effects of Machinery on Wages. New and revised ed. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Page, T. N. The Old South; Essays, Social and Political. Scribners. $1.25.
Pain, Barry. Stories and Interludes. Harpers.
Pennell, Joseph. The Jew at Home. Appletons.
Phillips, Henry, Jr. German Lyrics. Privately Printed.
Price, J. M. From the Arctic Ocean to the Yellow Sea. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $6.
Raymond, Prof. Robert R. Typical Tales from Shakspere. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1,25.
Redgrave, G. R. A History of Water-Color Painting in England. Scribners. $2.
Ridgeway, Prof. W. The Origin of Metallic Currency and Weight Standards. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $6.
Romanes, G. J. Darwin and After Darwin. I. The Darwinian Theory. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $2.
Saintsbury, George. Seventeenth Century Lyrics. Macmillan. $1.
Saintsbury, George. The Earl of Derby. [The Queen's Prime Ministers.] Harpers.
Saunders, Frederick. The Story of the Discovery of the New World by Columbus. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Savage, R. H. The Little Lady of Lagunitas. American News Co. 50 cents.
Schubin, Ossip. Felix Lanzberg's Expiation. Worthington Co.
Shackford, Prof. C. C. Social and Literary Papers. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Shahan, Rev. T. J. The Blessed Virgin in the Catacombs. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. $1.
Sparhawk, Frances C. Onoqua. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
The Church in the British Isles. 2d ed. E. & J. B. Young & Co. 50 cents.
The History and Teachings of the Early Church. 3d ed. E. & J. B. Young & Co. 50 cents.
The Post-Restoration Period of the Church in the British Isles. 2d ed. E. & J. B. Young & Co. 50 cents.
Todd, Adah J. The Vacation Club. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Watson, Rev. R. A. The Book of Job. [The Expositor's Bible.] A. C. Armstrong & Co. $1.50.
Werner, F. L. Z. The Brethren of the Cross: A Dramatic Poem. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Winter, J. S. Confessions of a Publisher. Waverly Co. 25 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 9, 1892.

The Week.

No great party ever had a more troublesome idol than the Republican party has in Mr. Blaine. He is perpetually subjecting it to unexpected strains, which leave it rent with new dissensions, and weakened by fresh defections of men who can invent no further excuses for his extraordinary conduct. He cost his party thousands of votes when he induced it to nominate him for the Presidency in 1884, and cost it also its self-respect by forcing it into a defence and condonation of his public record. In 1888 he again subjected it to the strain of defending the sincerity of his professions that he was no longer a candidate, while his confidential friends were working like beavers to "set up" his nomination in the Convention. This year's strain has been the severest of all, and the party as a whole has shown less ability to withstand it than on any previous occasion. As a member of President Harrison's Cabinet, Mr. Blaine was bound by etiquette not to be a candidate against his chief before the Convention. He has himself recognized the binding nature of this etiquette in repeated public and private utterances, and only a few months ago he did so in the most formal manner possible by sending a letter to the Chairman of the National Committee of his party, declaring that he should not be a candidate before the Convention. His party accepted this letter as sincere. Yet three days before the Convention meets, he himself declares, in effect, that what he wrote was not sincere, that he has all the time as a member of the President's Cabinet been intriguing against the President's nomination, and that he is in the field as a candidate against him.

This is not a hostile interpretation of Mr. Blaine's curt resignation from the Cabinet, but the interpretation which men hitherto his devoted friends at once put upon it. These agreed that it meant a declaration of his own candidacy and of hostility to Harrison's candidacy. Mr. Chauncey Depew, for example, for years one of Mr. Blaine's most ardent admirers, declared his course to be "nothing less than indecent," and predicted that "his duplicity and insincerity will drive him out of the race and out of politics." The changed attitude of the Republican press is as significant as this and similar utterances of the party's leading representatives. In every other dramatic and sensational episode of his career, and especially in previous assaults upon the Presidential nomination, Mr. Blaine has had the enthusiastic support of the New York *Tribune*, the Philadelphia *Press*, the Boston *Journal*, the Milwaukee *Sentinel*, and other leading newspapers of his party. All of these, as well as the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, the St. Louis *Globe-Democrat*, the Burlington (Iowa) *Hawkeye*, and other equally conspicuous party organs, are in favor of Harrison's candidacy in preference to his, and many of them are openly condemning his present course. It is plain from these defections that he is weaker with his party than he has ever been before, and that if he should be able to persuade its delegates into committing the blunder of nominating him, he would go before the country with a following greatly diminished from that which he had when he was defeated in 1884.

The purely factional nature of the division in the Republican ranks forbids the hope of so salutary a schism at Minneapolis as that which destroyed the ante-bellum Democratic party at Charleston in 1860. There is no principle or line of public policy for which Blaine or Harrison can be said to stand as contradistinguished one from the other; in fact, they are in the ludicrous position of contending each for the sole glory, such as it is, of the present Administration. The choice of Mr. Sherman, on the other hand, which cannot be considered remotely probable, would mean the taking of a definite attitude on the silver question; that of Mr. McKinley would accentuate the tariff issue; that of Mr. Reed, perhaps, would mean an intimation, at least, of a revival of the Force Bill. The platform will glance at all these issues, but the nomination depends on the party orthodoxy of no man—for there is no such thing as Republican orthodoxy—but solely on "availability." Whoever can "get the votes" or "carry," is a good-enough Republican for this occasion; and never was our political gambling more undisguised than at Minneapolis at this moment, where not a ray of honest enthusiasm for a cause or a moral idea is visible. War-whoop tactics, with brass-band and bunting accompaniments, are the order of the day; buying and selling openly takes the place of discussion and persuasion; the most discredited bosses, Mahone, Quay, Platt, Foraker, Clarkson, direct the intrigues in the interest of public plunder and against the renomination of the present head of the party.

While, at the present writing, Mr. Harrison still seems likely to be made once more the candidate of his party, the more important question is, what good the nomination will do him when he gets it. At best his chances of a reëlection have never been promising. The first popular verdict upon his Administration, at the Congressional elections in 1890, was the most overwhelming rebuke ever administered to a party. There was no evidence that Harrison's personality did anything to weaken the force of this blow. Nor is there any indication that he has gained strength personally during the past two years. On the contrary, there is abundant evidence, accessible to any one who will make inquiries among Republicans, that the President has a singularly weak hold upon his party, and that thousands upon thousands among those who voted for him four years ago to-day are either doubtful whether they will take the trouble to go to the polls next November, or say that they shall go there and vote for Cleveland if the Democrats give them a chance.

The situation at Minneapolis and the Republican outlook for the campaign both emphasize the folly and the weakness of the spoils system. Harrison's cause at Minneapolis is greatly hampered by the fact that so large a proportion of the delegates and "workers" for him are Federal office-holders, whose bread and butter is at stake. Such supporters always do a man more harm than good. Even if he gets a majority of the Convention through the votes of these office-holders, his cause will be quite as much hampered during the campaign by the hostilities which the distribution of the patronage has provoked. A host of men from Platt down oppose Harrison's nomination because he has not given them what they wanted. These men are not going to work for his election, because they know very well "there is nothing in it for them." The result is that Harrison, in 1892, with all the offices, will be far weaker than he was in 1888 without one, while Cleveland will profit as much as Harrison loses by the reversal of the situation in his case.

The Syracuse Convention did its work thoroughly well. It adopted an excellent platform of principles, elected a strong delegation to the National Convention, and approved the ticket for Presidential electors framed by the "Snap" Convention, to which no objection has been raised by anybody. Hardly any opposition was manifested to the idea of choosing a contesting delegation, as almost everybody recognized the absurdity of doing anything else. Whether this delegation is admitted to the National Convention in whole or in part is a matter of little consequence, but it was of the very first importance that representatives of this movement should go to Chicago with full authority to state the reasons for its existence and for its recognition. So far as the nomination of Cleveland is concerned, the votes of this delegation will not be needed; and when he is nominated, its action regarding Presidential electors leaves but one ticket for De-

mocrats to support. The strongest testimony to the wisdom which characterized the Convention is furnished by the disappointment expressed alike by the Hill Democrats and by the Republicans.

There was a protracted and hot debate in the House last Friday and Saturday over a section of the Post-office Appropriation Bill proposed by the Committee on Appropriations, providing that all railroads should have their charges for carrying the mails fixed by the Postmaster-General, and that such charges should not in any case exceed one-half the amounts paid by private parties for similar service. This attempted confiscation of private property was strenuously opposed by Mr. Hayes of Iowa, Mr. Castle of Minnesota, Mr. Hooker of Mississippi, Mr. Weadock of Michigan, and others, and was finally defeated in Committee of the Whole by a vote of 51 to 104. Subsequently, Mr. Holman moved to recommit the bill, with instructions to report an amendment restricting the compensation of land-grant railroads to 70 per cent. of that allowed to other railroads. This, too, was voted down by 87 to 110. There has hardly been anything in the proceedings of the House this year more happily illustrative of the value of debate than the proceedings on this measure. The result demonstrates again, and perhaps for the fortieth time, that Mr. Holman, the Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, has lost the confidence of the House, if he ever had it, and that he is estimated at his true value, as an antique humbug and demagogue who will bear watching.

The passage of the Anti-Option Bill by a very large majority in the House recalls attention to an undoubted evil in our system of legislation and government, namely, the practice of suppressing or hindering lawful occupations by Federal taxation. If this Anti-Option Bill *prohibited* trading in grain, cotton, etc., for future delivery by appropriate words, it would be unconstitutional, and would be so pronounced by the courts as soon as they could get at it. But coming in the form of a Federal tax, having the same effect as prohibition, it cannot be, or is not likely to be, upset by the courts. Thus we have the solecism which President Lincoln, in one of his debates with Douglas, repudiated and ridiculed, that there is a constitutional way to violate the Constitution. The first time that this power was used was in the 10 per cent. tax on State bank notes, which is now threatened with repeal. A later instance was the tax on oleomargarine —as flagrant a usurpation and as gross an abuse of power as can be found in the dominions of the Czar or of the Sultan. And now we have this tax on contracts for future delivery—an odious measure, carried out by unwarrantable means. There is no reason why the buying and selling of broadcloth or of cotton cloth should not be prohibited by the same means. There is no reason why this boasted land of liberty should not be turned into the most intolerable despotism. We still have hope that this measure may be stopped in the Senate or by a veto.

Victims of "corners" in commodities are doubtless protected to a considerable extent by the statutes; but the chief protection against such schemes, after all, is the series of pitfalls with which natural and commercial conditions have surrounded the would-be cornerers. The lately collapsed "corner" in corn for May delivery illustrates this fact. The calculations of the two young gentlemen who undertook to corner the Chicago market, and, by controlling the whole supply of May corn, to force their fellow-brokers to pay any price demanded, were cleverly made. There is a story that they even persuaded the largest "dryer" of corn, on whose output expectations for May delivery had been based, to announce that his corn would not "grade," and could not be delivered before June. Whether this device was, or was not, a part of the scheme, the "corner" worked famously, and on the last day of May the price had risen from 40 cents to $1 a bushel. Unfortunately for these calculations, it was found that two could play at the game. The manipulator of a "corner" defies both written and unwritten law, and he cannot expect to enjoy the courtesies of trade. The cornered brokers who had previously sold corn at fifty cents for delivery on the last day, came coolly into the market offering the same corn to the manipulators at a dollar a bushel. Asked for an explanation, they quietly announced their intention of defaulting on their earlier contracts, and seeking shelter under the law against "corners." This was certainly not a very reputable procedure, and it resulted promptly in the collapse of the "corner" and the ruin of the "corner's" organizers; but it is not easy to apply principles of common morality in a controversy where both parties proclaim their indifference to such principles. The wholesome lesson of this episode, as of many of its predecessors, is that the schemer for a "corner" is a commercial outlaw. Every man's hand is against him, and the public's best protection is the certainty of bad faith among the manipulators.

It was reported last week that the Reading Railroad was about to enter into competition with the Pennsylvania Railroad in supplying bituminous coal to Buffalo and to this city. Should this report prove true, it would only furnish another illustration of the great difficulty which even the most powerful monopoly finds in securing anything more than the normal rate of profit. It was argued at the time of the combination of the coal roads, that any attempt to force up the price of anthracite coal beyond a figure that would afford a fair return on the capital invested, would defeat itself by stimulating the consumption of soft coal. We may now see the very agency to which such horrible designs have been attributed by some excited journals, such as the *World* and the *Christian Union*, compelled by the force of circumstances to adopt measures that must necessarily result in reducing the price of coal of all descriptions. For if the Reading, supported by the New York Central, proposes to engage in the soft-coal traffic, there will be a rate war with the Pennsylvania, which, of course, means cheaper coal to the consumer. And if bituminous coal becomes cheaper, it will to a certain extent be used in place of anthracite, in which case, the supply of the latter being in excess of the demand, its price must fall.

The reduction by one of the largest banks in the city of New York of the rate of interest allowed upon the deposits of out-of-town banks is a very significant occurrence. It is one of the peculiarities of our National Banking Law that the "country" banks are allowed to place a certain part of their deposits in the custody of the banks in the great cities, while counting this money as a part of their "reserve." The country banks have made some interest on their reserves, the city banks have earned a margin of interest over what they have paid, and money has been collected where it was most in demand. The condition of the business has been of course the ability of the city banks to earn more interest on this money than they paid, and the amount paid has varied with the amount earned. When the demand for money was brisk, there was a natural competition among the city banks for the deposits of those of the country, and the reduction of the interest allowed, even by one bank, shows that competition is not active, and that the demand for money—at such rates as have prevailed—is not brisk. This state of things seems to have astonished many commentators on financial affairs, but there is much reason for maintaining that so many causes are tending to produce this result that the only perplexity in the matter arises in determining which cause is most potent.

Eleven months of the fiscal year are now past, and the situation of the Treasury is more critical than it has been at any time since the resumption of specie payments. On the operations of the month of May a deficit of $4,250,000 appears. The net cash balance is down to a trifle over $26,000,000, of which $14,459,497 is in unavailable subsidiary coin. Last December, Secretary Foster estimated his cash balance "available June 30, 1892," at $39,728,145—only 30 per cent. out of the way. What the apparent deficit at the end of the year will

be, no mortal knows; but what the real deficit will be, on the basis of receipts and appropriations, can easily be figured out. No one will deny that the actual expenditures of 1891–'92 should be as great as those for 1890–'91; in the latter year they were $388,696,824, exclusive of the postal service, and so far this year they have been but $332,408,035, leaving $56,000,000 for this month, when the receipts cannot go much above $30,000,000. There is a deficit of $26,000,000 for June alone, and of $33,000,000 for the entire year, all on Secretary Foster's own estimates and reports. If the true measure of appropriations for the fiscal year were applied, the deficit would be so enormous that we do not wonder the Administration dares not face it, and systematically keeps back payments.

Before the Republican band gets to playing too deafening an accompaniment to "the triumphant march of the American hog through the markets of Europe," it will be well to state precisely what has been done. Mr. Blaine made a characteristic attempt to claim the admission of our hog products into Europe as a new achievement of "reciprocity," but he was promptly squelched by the President and Secretary Rusk, who showed that the repeal of the European prohibition of American pork was entirely due to our retaliatory law, and to our adoption of a system of meat inspection satisfactory to the foreign authorities. In other words, that system was forced on us by foreigners, and it is costing us a pretty penny, too, as Secretary Rusk asks Congress for $1,000,000 extra on that account. We can all imagine the patriotic shrieks that would have greeted an admission by a Democratic Administration that a foreign system of meat inspection was better than ours, to say nothing of the weak acceptance of any methods at foreign dictation and the laying of a tax of $1,000,000 on our hard-working farmers to pay for the same. Looking solely at the business aspects of the case, the transaction comes down to this: In 1881 we exported $104,660,065 of hog products—the largest amount on record for any year. In 1890, when the European prohibition was in force, our exports amounted to $85,281,174. The difference, $19,000,000, is all that can be attributed to the prohibition and all that we can expect to gain by its removal. That is equivalent to saying that, in order to get a business of $19,000,000 at a profit of not more than $1,500,000, we are compelled to pay $1,000,000. If the American hog will stand that, it will stand anything.

None of the "reciprocity" treaties has fallen flatter than the one recently announced as having been completed with Austria, and the reason is not far to seek. In the list of articles upon which concessions in import duties are made to the United States, there is scarcely one in regard to which we do not have to protect ourselves against European competition, and the duties upon which were not raised by the McKinley Bill upon that express ground. How are we going to get an Austrian trade in cotton goods, on the basis of "reductions of from 5 to 9 per cent.," when we have to defend ourselves from like goods of European manufacture by customs taxes of from 30 to 60 per cent.? The same question arises in regard to manufactures of iron and steel and brass and leather. Either the treaty is a self-confessed sham, or the claim of the McKinleyites that we need discriminating duties against European imports is a fraud. The reciprocity organs have, in fact, scarcely been able to pretend that there is any question of actual trade involved in the agreement with Austria, and content themselves with profound metaphysical disquisitions on the subtle distinction between taking off tariff taxes under the name of reciprocity and under that of free trade.

Commenting upon the decision of the Pope sustaining Archbishop Ireland's plan of union between public and parochial schools, the Paris *Temps* remarks on the interest of the question "to the French in America." It refers particularly to the French Canadians in New England, where they already form 120 parishes, with 60 parish churches. The French Catholic press, says the *Temps*, has "vehemently defended Archbishop Ireland," and this may be taken as an indication of the readiness of the French-speaking Catholics of New England to favor the Minnesota plan. There can be no doubt that the French-Canadian immigration into the New England States, assuming larger proportions every year as it does, involves many social problems, not the least of which is that of the education of the children of the immigrants. That the latter would be better off in public schools than in the parochial schools, which can be but inadequately equipped among so poor a constituency, does not admit of doubt.

Minister Egan is understood to be on his way to this country, on a sixty days' leave of absence from Chili, which the Chilians make no secret of hoping will be indefinitely extended. At his departure he left a pleasant little memorial behind him in the shape of a claim for $1,000,000 against the Chilian Government. He presented this in the name of an American firm now extinct, and it naturally dates back to the time of the war between Chili and Peru, and with equal naturalness relates to guano deposits out of which the firm expected to get rich, but did not. "It is said," we read in the Panama *Star*, "that a settlement had been nearly effected with Balmaceda by Egan." The Dictator's fall closed a good many other brilliant openings for Americans in Chili, it will be remembered.

The Government of Austria-Hungary, in submitting to the Reichsrath and the Hungarian Diet its bill for the regulation of the currency, has not only joined the ranks of the States which have adopted the gold standard, but has taken the first serious step towards the resumption of specie payments. The Austrian Minister of Finance, Dr. Steinbach, remembering the scepticism with which similar promises of his predecessors were received, has offered what the *Neue Freie Presse* calls a "guarantee of good faith" by proposing to raise a loan for the conversion of the Austrian paper money, both State and bank notes, into notes redeemable in gold. The share of Cisleithania is 183,500,000 gold florins, representing 70 per cent. of the entire paper circulation of the Empire, and that amount of gold, when procured, is to be deposited in the vaults of the Austro-Hungarian Bank, and to be used only when the day of resumption arrives. The recommendations of the Hungarian Minister of Finance with regard to the conversion of the Hungarian quota of the paper money are practically identical with those of his Vienna colleague. The *Neue Freie Presse* thinks that resumption could be brought about in four years by the Government's entering into an agreement with a syndicate of bankers for an annual purchase of gold to the amount of 10,000,000 pounds sterling. Still, it warns the Government against fixing definitely the date of resumption before the gold is actually stored away, and would have the Government await the most favorable opportunity for the purchase of the metal.

The situation is a little difficult for foreigners to understand. Austria has the single silver standard. Her unit of value is the silver florin. But there was and is a gold florin in the Austrian system struck at the ratio of 1 to 15.30. Now that the gold standard is to be adopted, the question comes up, What would be equitable as regards debts having a long time to run, but not specifically payable in gold? The present *market* ratio of the two metals is 1 to 23.57. The ratio adopted as the basis of the new law is 1 to 18.22, although the ratio ceases to be operative when the coinage of silver is stopped. That portion of the Government debt which is payable specifically in gold florins of the old issue will be paid in the new florins at the rate of fifty of the latter for forty-two of the former, this being the exact equivalent in weight of pure gold. The unit of value under the new system will be the crown, two of which will be equal to the new florin. The smallest gold piece coined will be ten crowns. The florin under the new system will be equal to 40½ cents of our money. The old silver florins, worth about 35 cents, will continue to circulate as subsidiary coins until further notice, but no new ones will be coined.

SENATOR SHERMAN'S SPEECH.

THE two days' speech of Senator Sherman on the Stewart Silver Bill may well be esteemed the greatest speech he ever made. It is interesting to note that, after speaking two hours and a half on Tuesday week, he said that he was not at all tired and was ready to go on and finish then. This was said in reply to a suggestion that the Senate should adjourn. For one who has passed his sixty-ninth year this is surely a remarkable exhibition of mental and physical powers. His speech, covering not only the silver question, but the whole range of national finance, cannot be reviewed in detail within the limits of a newspaper article. All that can be said about details is that Mr. Sherman has not merely a mind well furnished on the whole range of topics embraced in his discourse, but so well furnished that there is no point too small to have escaped his attention or his memory. Consequently, he cannot be tripped at any stage. Anybody can see that if he makes concessions here and there to the silver folly, they are only such as he considers necessary in a political sense. Give him a clear field, such as the statesmen and financiers of Europe have, where there are no wrong-headed and befooled constituencies to be reckoned with, and he would easily be their peer.

Nobody can have failed to notice what Mr. Sherman said of the national-bank note in the course of his speech. He has virtually, we think, proclaimed the doom of the system in these words:

"The people of this country, whether rightly or wrongly it is not for me to say, are not in favor of the continuance of the national-banking system longer than is necessary to wind up and pay off the outstanding bonds. These bonds have been reduced to so low an amount that the people care very little whether they are continued or not. The bonded debt has ceased to be a phantom, although at the close of the war everybody who knew anything about finance brooded over the twenty-nine hundred millions of dollars of debt. In addition to that there was a floating debt of probably a hundred millions more, so that we owed three thousand millions. Therefore, I repeat that the people will not tolerate the continuance of the national-banking system longer than the continuance of the bonds. They are unwilling to take any less security than the security of the United States. As to the amount of currency, my own opinion is that the amount now outstanding will be about sufficient. It does not follow that if there is more money in circulation the poor and needy will get it. We cannot distribute it per capita to the poor and leave out the rich."

The authority of Mr. Sherman upon this point is great, and it happens to tally with other authorities possessing high influence in the world of finance. The only question we need to ask is, whether the people are likely to change their minds during the small interval between now and the maturing of the 4 per cent. bonds, and if so in what way they are likely to change. There is not the smallest probability that the people will consent to an extension of the national debt in order to furnish security for national-bank notes; and when the question comes up, What shall we substitute for national bonds? there will be such diverse views and such unconquerable prejudices that probably nothing will be done. That is to say, the system, or, at all events, its note-issuing function, will expire. And with it, most likely, will expire the discriminating tax on State-bank notes, if, indeed, that is not sooner swept away.

As regards silver, what could be more true or felicitous than Mr. Sherman's statement that free silver is not now an issue between parties, and does not represent any national interest, but is only a "local" or "provincial" question concerning the silver-producing States? Most significant of all, however, was his admission that the Republican Silver Law of 1890 is a dangerous law that ought to be repealed:

"There are possibilities in the future in regard to that law, miscalled the Sherman Law, which make me as anxious for its repeal as I was reluctant to pass it. In the absence of any provision for the sale of silver, if the price of silver should continue to decline, I should be desirous, as far as I could, to arrest the further purchase of bullion. With a circulation of $127,000,000 on the hundred millions pledged, and only $27,000,000 surplus, to talk of maintaining the two metals on a parity is the wildest scheme of imagination. This very effort to bring about free coinage of silver is, in my opinion, doing more to disturb the finances of the country than anything else. The task of maintaining the two metals on a parity is herculean. How can we do it? Shall we sell bonds for gold? The very effort would probably impair our credit and degrade us from our high position among the nations of the world. Shall we sell our silver? We have over $400,000,000, and only six or seven millions in circulation. The rest is stored away in vaults and cellars as security for the various forms of paper circulation. Dare we sell that silver? I wanted to provide in the law of 1890 for power to sell it, but the parties would not agree. Now, to attempt to sell that silver on a falling market would only be adding misery to ruin. I do not like to talk of these things, but it is my duty to do so."

It appears, therefore, that those Democratic conventions which are calling for the repeal of the "Sherman" Silver Law can count upon the hearty support of Senator Sherman himself. The President would oppose such repeal, however, as he is choosing this highly opportune time, when the free-silver lunacy is in its final stage of impotency, to announce through his now faithful organ, the *Tribune*, and his Secretary of the Treasury, that he is "a firm friend of silver."

Mr. Sherman's speech was well calculated to admonish the delegates of the Republican party assembling at Minneapolis that the silver peril is very real and very near, and to remind them that they have a statesman not openly in the lists for Presidential honors who possesses the *mens sana in corpore sano* which is denied to some persons more talked about.

FLOUR-MILLING IN THE NORTHWEST.

BEFORE the Inter-State Commission at Minneapolis, in the case now pending for lower railway rates to that city on wheat from northern Minnesota and North Dakota, Mr. C. A. Pillsbury, the well-known miller, made some startling statements. Asked what the effect would be if the present rates on flour and wheat continued in force, he said:

"The effect will be that the milling interests in Minneapolis will be utterly destroyed. Not only must the Minneapolis mills go out of business, but all the mills in southern Minnesota and all in Milwaukee as well. In four years, yes, in three years, with a continuance of the present régime, Duluth will have a milling capacity greater than Minneapolis has to-day. The mills of Minneapolis have made the wheat market here. This market will go to the dogs, too, and every elevator in the city as well."

The situation in which flour-milling in Minneapolis finds itself to-day, and the causes leading to it, form a most interesting story of the workings of commercial forces. Flouring mills established themselves there originally because of the valuable water power. The introduction of the middlings purifier and the steel roller revolutionized the manufacture of flour, making Minneapolis the great centre of that trade, with command of the wheat market of the Northwest. The output of Minneapolis flour, only 2,000,000 barrels in 1880, was 5,250,000 in 1885, 8,000,000 in 1891, and is expected to reach 9,000,000 barrels the present year. It was partly by the demand for wheat thus created that the new Northwest became so great a grain-producing section. About $7,000,000 is invested in mills at Minneapolis, the terminal elevators costing $4,000,000 more. Cooper-shops and other businesses dependent upon milling make up the larger part of the city's trade and of city values.

Of this large output of flour, fully 80 per cent. seeks an outlet through the great lakes, half of it being exported to foreign countries. The milling at Minneapolis has grown to such proportions that the contiguous parts of the Dakotas and Minnesota cannot furnish wheat enough: supplies must be drawn from the Red River Valley and other northern sections where the famous "No. 1 hard" is grown. This part of the wheat lands is as near Duluth as Minneapolis, and the railways serving the territory quote the same rates to both places, with the result that prices for wheat tend more and more strongly towards the same quotations in both cities. From some of its own territory Minneapolis gets wheat at rates two cents per hundred or more under Duluth tariffs, but the quantity thus secured at reduced rates amounts only to one-fifth of the necessary supply. Flour at Minneapolis, when sold at the East, costs fifteen cents a barrel to transport to Chicago or Duluth. So long as enough wheat was brought to Minneapolis at a proportionately lower charge, the thing equalized itself; but now that northern fields must be drawn upon, the farmers there will send their grain to Duluth at the same freight rate if that market is a penny higher. Under these conditions the milling industry has increased greatly in Duluth and Superior, and promises to become as important as at Minneapolis. Mr. Pillsbury stated the average profit in flour manufacture as 10 cents per barrel, which seems very low. Wheat prices and other

things being equal, the 15-cent rate on flour from Minneapolis to Duluth leaves the millers of the former city with a loss on the greater part of their output.

The suit mentioned is brought to force a lower rate to Minneapolis than to Duluth on wheat from such towns as are nearer the former city. As before mentioned, the lines of the Northern Pacific and Great Northern are of about the same length from the wheat sections to either place; there are other roads, the St. Paul for example, whose lines by reason of position lead naturally to Minneapolis, and yet which are compelled by competition to quote the same rates as the two first named. It is these roads, in the case of which distance favors Minneapolis, that the millers of that city are charging with unjust discrimination. What can the Inter-State Commission or any other body do? It will not order the rates to Duluth advanced, nor can it easily ask for lower charges to Minneapolis, since the distance warrants the tariffs now in force, which, indeed, do not cover the same lines to both places. "One can appreciate the seriousness of the situation without seeing clearly how it is to be avoided," is the comment of the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*; for even if the Chicago, Minneapolis and St. Paul (which has no line to Duluth) be brought under subjection to Minneapolis, the vast wheat supplies of the Red River valley cannot be taken from the Lake Superior towns.

As to cost of manufacturing, while Minneapolis has water-power (whose limit has been reached or passed), Duluth has cheaper coal; all things considered, there is not much to choose in this respect. Minneapolis has, however, a large local market in all the States south and west, which cannot be taken from her. If, therefore, the millers of that city would be content to buy contiguous wheat, and supply those markets which can be reached at a profit, Minneapolis would long remain a great milling centre. But it seems inevitable that the greater part of the future increased demand for flour in the East and in foreign countries should be supplied from mills on Lake Superior. With the best wheat as low in Duluth as in Minneapolis, with the cost of manufacturing substantially the same, the railway rate from Minneapolis to any lake port, no matter how small it may be, must, to that extent, be a handicap upon any further growth of Minneapolis. It is useless as well as economically wrong to put the blame for this conclusion upon the discriminating rates of Minnesota railways, for these rail carriers did not make Minneapolis an inland city, nor did they cause North Dakota wheat to grow so near Duluth. In short, the railways are not themselves the discriminators, but only the registrars of the discriminations of nature and commerce.

PROFITS OF "INDUSTRIALS."

OUR readers are familiar with the reasons which in England have led, and in the United States are leading, many large industrial firms to reorganize as corporations, and to offer for public subscription a large proportion of the new capitalization. There is no doubt that the rates of dividend—8 per cent. on the preference and even more on the common shares—have attractions for the investing public as contrasting favorably with the scant 4 or 5 per cent. received from good railway stocks and bonds.

The question first asked, of course, is whether there is any guarantee that the profits of the past, as set forth in the prospectuses, will continue for the future. Upon this point and upon the general subject of the value of the bonds and stocks of new industrial corporations, much stress is laid in the prospectuses upon the certificate of the chartered or expert accountants employed to examine the old books and report. With but few exceptions these specialists in accounts stand well in the community, being known to be honest men. This very fact of acknowledged honesty at times leads investors to put more confidence in the accountants' certificates, or, more properly, to draw more inferences from these certificates, than are warranted or wise. Occasionally there appears in these certificates a juggle with words or figures, conscious or unconscious. In England, where industrial corporations have greatly flourished, the Bohemian Breweries Company was started in 1889. The conclusion drawn from the report of the chartered accountants was that these breweries in 1889 earned $207,000 profit. They were capitalized at $1,890,000, fully two-thirds being paid to the vendors in cash. In 1890 the profits were $62,000, and in 1891 only $42,000, which is a fifth of the accountant's expected sum. A committee of shareholders had the accountant before them. His excuse was that he had been careful to ask the shareholders to inspect his full report at the office, wherein he had given no certificate of profits. After examination, the Committee reported that, "under the circumstances, Messrs. Deloitte, Dever, Griffiths & Co. should have refused to report, and that, having reported at the instance of the directors, the latter made a grave error in judgment in the issue of a prospectus based upon that report"—a very mild censure.

A large number of American concerns which have in the last few years been incorporated, and the stocks sold on the London market, are now turning out less profitable than was anticipated. This is the case with many American breweries, though not so with all; with manufacturing concerns like the Otis Steel Company of Cleveland, with the Pillsbury-Washburne Flour Mills Company, and others. In all these instances bookkeeping statistics (no doubt honestly made) were produced showing value of plant and the profits for a certain number of years.

Valuable as a statement about a business must be when given by an impartial bookkeeper, it must nevertheless be remembered that an accountant, though honest, cannot and does not go behind the face of the books; that is to say, he is an expert in figures, but not in the details of the business under examination. A chartered accountant might be set to examine the books of a railway, for illustration, and might report to the best of his ability, and yet lead everybody astray as to the future. For a crafty railroad manager, if so inclined, could arrange for a favorable exhibit which would be no criterion of future profits, and yet would deceive any accountant not thoroughly familiar with railway management. So with manufacturing: a firm looking forward a year to incorporation and sale could make unusual profits, whose fallacy as a ground for valuation no mere bookkeeper could easily detect. Sometimes an accountant is asked to state in his certificate the average profits for three years, and perhaps the last year's gains separately. This covering of three years was originally intended as a safeguard, but by stating only the average, an average raised by the exceptional prosperity of the last year, the fact may be concealed that the former years were much less profitable.

The question of profitableness in the long run is the vital one, and really determines the price which can safely be paid for the plant and good-will. The amount of money originally invested by the first partners is no concern to the public. The problem is to find what amount of capital can be invested so that in good and bad years, all debts and depreciation being allowed for, it will receive a fair return. Oftentimes in industrial prospectuses a certificate is printed giving the value of the premises and machinery. Here again the appraiser is sometimes instructed to value the plant for the purposes of that particular line of business, thus rendering the certificate useless as an appraisal of the property in the event of failure. So far, however, as such a certificate throws light upon the amount paid for good will, it is to be welcomed; though, as we have said, the whole business is to be valued chiefly for its earning power.

The great falling off in expected profits in a few of our incorporated industries shows conclusively enough that we have not yet learned to distinguish clearly between the good and the bad. Industrial incorporation is yet a new idea. We must wait for the knowledge which comes from experience before learning to separate the profitable from the unprofitable, or to discriminate between the stable and the fluctuating. Fortunately, most of those whose shares have been offered to the American people have so far proved worthy of public support, nor can there be any doubt that the corporate form is capable of great service in our manufacturing. Yet, in our present comparative ignorance of the real details of these concerns, we may expect that

some worthless industries will appeal for subscriptions along with the good. Evidently the chartered accountant's statements and certificates, important as they are, are not the only information needed about industries whose shares are offered to investors.

ENGLAND AND HER COLONIES.

SOMEWHAT more than a year ago a resolution was moved in the House of Lords inviting the Colonial Governments to send representatives to London to confer upon the advancement of trade in her Majesty's dominions, and Lord Salisbury expressed the opinion that for the present the summoning of such a conference was not expedient. He pointed out that the real question before such a conference would be that of retaliatory duties, and declared that the state of opinion in Great Britain made it impossible for any statesman, whatever his own opinion might be, to propose such duties. He added, however, that whenever such a modification of opinion took place as to make the idea of discriminating duties in favor of the colonies a fiscal possibility, he should be the last to oppose such a resolution as that before the House. And some months later he pointed out to a deputation from the United Empire Trade League—which included fifteen members of Parliament—that to give "a preferential treatment" to the colonies meant to alter the established trade policy of England, which was to be accomplished only by effecting a change in public opinion. According to appearances, he has since made up his mind to take some part in effecting this change.

Whether encouraged by Lord Salisbury's suggestions or not, the colonial advocates of federation have been recently moved to renew their supplications. In the Canadian Dominion the Government recently carried a motion pledging them to reduce the duties on British manufactured goods as soon as the Imperial Parliament "admits Canadian products to the British market on terms more favorable than it grants to foreign products." This is perhaps the most formal and explicit offer that has yet been made by the Federationists, and it was received by the London *Times* with great consideration. The offer, it said, if backed by the other colonies in Australasia and South Africa, could not be disregarded. The rigorous doctrines of free trade must not be pedantically applied, and it might well be worth some sacrifice "to bind the great self-governing colonies in close and permanent commercial alliance with the mother country, securing not only a vast reserve of political strength, but the command of large and rapidly growing markets." The wisdom of this utterance is certainly not unworthy of any American "organ" of protection, and the Canadian statesmen may well congratulate themselves that the proverb, "In vain the net is spread in the sight of any bird," is not without its exceptions.

The complementary proposals from the other side of the globe are, of course, not lacking. A professor in an Australian college has recently published a book showing exactly the sacrifices that England is expected to make. The existing commercial treaties, which contain clauses providing that no higher duties shall be imposed upon the products of foreign countries than upon those of her Majesty's possessions, must be cancelled, and duties imposed upon those products until either reciprocity or non-intercourse results. Now, at present, the total foreign trade of England is about £742,000,000, whereof only £187,000,000 is with her colonies, or a little more than one-fourth of the whole. The Australian Professor anticipates, however, that nations with which trade to the amount of £152,000,000 exists would join the "Britannic Commercial Alliance," and there would be an increase of colonial trade, so that England would surrender trade to the trifling extent of only £250,000,000, and the total trade of the British Empire would fall off by a matter of only £540,000,000. This looks rather serious, the colonial Professor admits, but then if imperial federation is worth anything, it is worth some sacrifice, which, of course, would be only temporary. England now obtains but one-third of her imported food from her colonies, but, if it were made an object to them, they would supply the mother country with all that she requires. Indeed, if England, instead of abolishing the corn laws, had only "taken the trouble to inform herself as to the cereal capabilities of her own dominions, she would by this time be enjoying a cheaper loaf, the United States would be an out-at-elbows, shin-plastered collection of communities without any trade at all, and the British Empire would be the most powerful confederacy in the world."

It is refreshing to turn from these absurdities, which, emanating as they do from the colonies and repeated in the mother country, furnish proof that there is nothing new under the sun, to the grave comments of the London *Economist* upon Lord Salisbury's recent speech. That journal calls attention to the fact that, in the first place, the war of tariffs in which England is invited to join, is acknowledged by the Powers that have been engaged in it to be ruinous in its effects. In the second place, as England's treaties insure her the treatment of the "most-favored nation," she has received the benefits of the reciprocal concessions made by the belligerents without engaging in the fight. In the third place, Lord Salisbury's idea that England could carry on a war of this kind by levying duties upon luxuries is idle. The other Powers do not hesitate to tax the bread of their subjects in order to force the fighting, and for England to confine herself to taxing luxuries would be like opposing a pop-gun to a repeating-rifle. In the fourth place, a duty upon such a luxury as wine would be paid principally by English consumers, so that the suffering would be chiefly on England's part. In the fifth place, since it is evidently useless to go into a fight of this kind unless you mean to fight it out, the only thing to do would be to adopt a system of wholesale protection. And in the sixth place, since Lord Salisbury admits that such a policy would be suicidal, it would have been more judicious for him to have kept his opinions to himself, and not have aroused in other nations apprehensions of a hostile commercial policy, which will stimulate them to reprisals.

The *Economist* might have added that this speech will make a great deal of trouble for England in her colonial relations, but its criticism can be read by no impartial man without giving rise to the conviction that the whole scheme of Imperial Trade Federation is utterly impracticable. As the *Economist* says, there is nothing sacred about free trade. It is simply a means to an end. But dismissing what Lord Salisbury calls free-trade dogmas, the plain common sense of the *Economist* makes an end of his theories. So long as that journal represents the dominant thought of England, so long will colonial protectionists sigh in vain for exclusive privileges in the English markets.

A TREASURE TROVE.

VENETIA, May 20, 1893.

SOME five and thirty years ago, when Enrico Mayer and F. S. Orlandini, following in Mazzini's footsteps and assisted by his counsel, undertook to edit the published and unpublished works of Ugo Foscolo, they applied to Count Giuseppe Albrizzi for the letters which the poet had written to his mother, a beautiful Greek lady, Countess Isabella Albrizzi, *née* Teotochi, one of the many ladies of the time who kept an open salon and received all the native and foreign celebrities of the day. Foscolo met her first in 1796, and, about 1804, commenced a regular correspondence with her during his residence in Milan, Brescia, Pavia, and throughout the years of his exile in London. Her son answered that he intended to publish a collection of all the letters addressed to his mother by Lord Byron, Lord Aberdeen, Hobhouse, Pindemonte, Canova, etc., and that he was unwilling to allow Foscolo's letters to be published separately.

Many years later the editors of Foscolo's works, in the preface to the sixth volume, which is the first of the correspondence, wrote: "We have waited in vain, and with an impatience not untinged with bitterness, the publication of Foscolo's correspondence with the *saggia Isabella* [the title bestowed on the mother of Count Giuseppe Albrizzi]." They waited long, and if alive would be waiting still, for the son died without giving any of the letters from Foscolo or others to the public. All these papers, with a valuable collection of diplomatic correspondence from Carlo Pisani, ambassador of the Venetian Republic, from Madrid, Paris, and London, are now in my hands. Their proprietor has decided on their sale to some public library or museum at home or abroad, where their contents can become available for the students of the eventful period of Italian history which unrolled itself during the last quarter of the eighteenth and the first of the nineteenth century. With the owner's permission, I select a few here and

there, sure that their contents will be interesting to readers on both sides of the Atlantic.

Lord Byron evidently thought highly of the talents of the lady whose house he frequented during his long sojourn in the city he loved so well, as, in writing of contemporary celebrities, he says: "Italy is not behind other nations. She has Monti, Pindemonte, Foscolo, and the Albrizzi, but the world has only one Canova." Byron had introduced John Hobhouse to the Albrizzi, and, on his return to London, Hobhouse writes on May 30, 1818:

"MADAM: I take the liberty of sending you Lord Byron's last poem on Italy, with some illustrations written by myself. If you should ever read the latter, perhaps you will favor me with some observations which may assist me in another edition of the works. . . . The bearers of this little present are Mr. and Mrs. Smith, two very good friends of mine who will feel highly flattered at making your acquaintance, and who are charged to convey my best acknowledgments for all your kindness to myself during my stay at Venice. Present, I beg you, my best compliments to your son. Tell him to bring you to England that I may assure you in person how much I am, Madam,

"Your faithful and obliged servant,
"JOHN HOBHOUSE."

But the little present never arrives, and on December 4 the following letter explains the reason why. It is written in French none of the best, so we give the translation.

"MME. LA MARQUISE: I must either deceive you or speak frankly; anyway I fear that I shall sooner or later incur your displeasure. It would be very easy for me to allow you to believe for the moment that I had either forgotten the poem or my promise, and with any other person than yourself I should so act, for a fib more or less matters little in this life of falsehood which politeness imposes upon us. But as I desire to be held in your esteem as a sincere man rather than an adept in the practice of *les convenances*, I deem it my duty to confess that I was indiscreet in promising you the poem, and to avow that I cannot send it to you. It is not my property, it has never been published. The verses are not flattering to our Prince, who, though it must be admitted he is not *grande chose*, is no worse than the other viceregents of God upon earth; and at any rate he is our sovereign, and his subjects have no right to blazon his vices abroad, but remember Napoleon's fine saying, that dirty linen should be washed at home.

"It is very likely that Lord Byron, who knows nothing of my promise nor my scruples, will give you the verses. That is his affair; for me, nothing remains save to express my deep regret that I should have troubled you and your son by my imprudence at first, and now by my confession. Believe me when I say that my vexation is enhanced by the recollection of all your kindness, which will, Mme. la Marquise, always maintain me,

"Your most devoted servant,
"JOHN HOBHOUSE."

So many are Byron's strictures on the Prince Regent, the George the Fourth of Thackeray's unflattering portrait, that it is difficult to fix on the special offender. I strongly suspect that it was the "Ode on Venice," written in 1818, which grated on the loyal ears of true-born Britons, not so much for the allusions to the monarch as for the profound admiration expressed by the poet for the

"One great clime,
Whose vigorous offspring by dividing ocean
Are kept apart and nursed in the devotion
Of Freedom, which their fathers fought for, and
Bequeath'd—a heritage of heart and hand,
And proud distinction from each other land,
Whose sons must bow them at a monarch's motion
As if his senseless sceptre were a wand
Full of the magic of exploded science—
Still one great clime, in full and free defiance,
Yet rears her crest, unconquer'd and sublime,
Above the far Atlantic!—She has taught
Her Esau-brethren that the haughty flag,
The floating fence of Albion's feebler crag,
May strike to those whose red right hands have bought
Rights cheaply earn'd with blood.—Still, still, for ever
Better, though each man's life-blood were a river,
That it should flow, and overflow, than creep
Through thousand lazy channels in our veins,
Damm'd like the dull canal with locks and chains,
And moving, as a sick man in his sleep,
Three paces and then faltering:—better be
Where the extinguish'd Spartans still are free,
In their proud charnel of Thermopylæ,
Than stagnate in our marsh; or o'er the deep
Fly, and one current to the ocean add,
One spirit to the souls our fathers had,
One freeman more, America, to thee!"

It seems probable that Byron did give a copy to the Countess, as he refers to a translation which she wishes to make, but he adds: "I doubt whether some of the expressions are not too strong for the censor."

In presenting her to Prof. Pictet at Geneva, he speaks of the Countess Albrizzi as a lady well known in Italian literature, and more particularly distinguished as the illustrator of the works of Canova. The son having thanked the poet for ranking his mother among the best writers of the time, Byron answers:

"DEAR COUNT ALBRIZZI: Your letter would have been acknowledged sooner (as it ought to have been) but I have been unwell. Mr. Hobhouse's address is Whitton Park, Hounslow, near London, where he resides with his father, Sir Benjamin Hobhouse, Baronet, which answers to *Cavaliere* in this country. In mentioning your mother amongst the few illustrious persons whom the narrowness of my limits out of my experience permitted me to name as the present lights of Italy, I merely echoed the voice of her country. Your favorable opinion does me great honor, and affords me equal pleasure. I beg my respects to the Countess your mother, and trust that you will always believe me

"Most truly and affectionately your obliged and faithful and humble servant,
"BYRON.

"VENICE, Nov. 2, 1818."

Foscolo's letters are intensely interesting to those who regard him as the first propounder of Italian unity, who believe in his unwavering patriotism and in his sterling character maligned by envious satellites of every rising sun, and especially by Monti, for whom he entertained to the last a deep and regretful affection, although he criticised his translations and deplored the fetters laid on his genius by his sojourn in the court of Rome. To the *saggia Isabella*, who was the intimate friend of his sister and worshipped mother, living then in Venice, he pours out all his hopes and griefs, his pecuniary troubles and the reasons of his self-chosen exile. Foscolo was an *egotist*, not an egoist: his admiration of genius or talent in others was never marred by envy or jealousy. Both Foscolo and Monti had translated the 'Iliad'—Foscolo, born in Zante, from the original; Monti, without knowing a word of Greek. He gave the manuscript to Foscolo, who printed the first canto, translated by Monti, side by side with his own, and sent them to him with a letter, saying, "If Italy ascribes to you the palm, as I believe she will, the 'Iliad' will have the good fortune of the greater poet, and I shall not regret the toil spent more for love of Homer than for the desire of fame. The little book will, I think, be prized by you as a token of our old friendship. May you live long to enjoy your glory."

"Monti," writes Foscolo to *la saggia Isabella* in 1808, "has just recited to me the seventh canto of his 'Bardo della Selva Nera,' and he saw me weep. Either the magic of his voice touched me more profoundly than usual, or that poem is the finest of the beautiful things written by my friend; certainly it is the most affecting picture painted in Italian poetry. Pity it is not in blank verse. I preach and pray in vain; he promises, seems convinced, but continues to write his *ottavi* [eight-line stanzas] in a metre that is not his own. They do not suit the subject, nor evolve, in my opinion, the virtue of the poem. Oh, if his soul would but keep on high—and he has a soul lofty as that of Parini, as that of Alfieri. But the court of Rome has spoiled him. He will win great but not holy fame. For myself, I aspire to posthumous fame rather than to contemporary admiration, if posterity should care at all for me who think so much of the future! Alas, I have so little time for study: I have to perform my duties as military advocate, to go every day to the court martial, now to plead for the liberty of a deserter, now for the life of a homicide. The laws are so stern that a special pleader may exhaust all the powers of his eloquence without any scruples of outraging justice. What is justice? It is the handiwork of men, born of their interests and of their passions. Legislators and judges ply their trade distinguishing virtue from crime; I only distinguish *fortune* and *misfortune* in the actions of our poor humanity."

Monti was for long the fast friend and a fervent admirer of Foscolo. Apropos of the poet's preface to the 'Epistle to Pindemonte,' Foscolo writes to the Albrizzi:

"The dedication written by Vincenzo Monti to my 'Epistle to Ippolito' was so profuse in praise of me, and so partial, that I have absolutely declined to publish it. It would seem as if I went begging literary fame under the protection of powerful friends. I have prayed Monti to change or, at least, to modify it. He answers: 'So, or nothing.' I wanted him to gratify Ippolito, not me; he praises Ippolito, but exalts me. Therefore I answer, 'Nothing,' and nothing will appear. If you have not shown my yesterday's letter to the Chevalier, do not do so. If you have, show him this also, and tell him that Monti will seek some other occasion to render justice, and beg him to accept my letter void of other praise. The world will see that the letter comes from the inmost sanctuary of my heart. I hope that my fellow-citizens and posterity (if posterity remember me) may not deem me unworthy to have been his friend and contemporary. And you, dear Isabella, love me as I love you, warmly and tenderly. What would become of me if my few friends were to abandon me? All your letters are precious—write more frequently. Kiss Pippi [the little Count Giuseppe], and talk to him of FOSCOLO."

His first letters from London are chiefly letters presenting celebrated travellers, such as Samuel Rogers, William Rose, etc. A letter of 1818

"is sent by Mr. Everett, who has left the United States to see all Europe, and especially Italy and Greece. He is one of my best friends, and, though quite young, he is *letteratissimo* and Professor of Greek in one of the Universities of his country. He is also of the sweetest disposition, and therefore I know that you, *donna gentile*, will welcome him as a friend, and that your friends will enjoy the conversation of one who has travelled and observed so much, and that you will help him to know and pity our unhappy Venice. He will bring you news of me; and as far as the outward man goes, they will be true tidings. But what is really true of me no one knows save myself. I have escaped shipwreck, but navigate in tempestuous waters. Salute your son, Leopold, Saranzo, and remember your friend,

"UGO FOSCOLO."

Later:

"SAGGIA ISABELLA MIA: Neither my long silence, not the distance which separates me from you, condemns me to this bitter exile, and deprives me of the sight and sound of Italy, must induce you to think that I ever forget you, or the name by which you are known among worthier friends than myself. I send this letter to the *saggia Isabella* by Mr. Milman, the celebrated poet of 'Reason,' Professor of Poetry in the University of Oxford. He will tell you how I live—studying little, writing day and night for daily bread—and how it is probable that never more shall I have leisure for study and for writing after my own heart. Thus the muse whom I courted as a lover is now, alas, treated as a wife, loved always but sometimes perforce; and affection born of necessity is not the best in the world. I have to write in a tongue that is not my own, and this I do rather than allow others to

translate (*tradire* or *tradurre*, oftener *betraying* than *translating*).

"I know that I may count on hearty welcome from you and all your friends for Mr. Milman."

The latest letters, of 1824, relate to the works of Canova illustrated by the Countess Albrizzi. Foscolo, when in Milan, had revised them with the greatest care, both in manuscript and in the proof sheets, and when he was almost too ill to attend to his own writings, he supervised the translation, and writes on July 30, 1824:

"SAGGIA ISABELLA E CARA: I, feeling sure that Signor Vendramini would prove a faithful messenger, gave him sixteen or eighteen numbers of your descriptions of Canova's works, and I should have sent them all had you not asked for two only. The editor declines to sell them separately, and I cannot let you remain without the whole collection, which are elegantly executed and give pleasure to the eyes and to the mind; so, when the entire series is complete, you shall receive it. I did not write to advise you of the mission intrusted to Vendramini because I had no doubt of his care, and also because I never, if I can help it, and save in the case of urgent necessity, trust letters to the post. This will be brought to you by another friend of mine, Signor Crawfurd, but, as I write after midnight, and he starts for Calais to-morrow morning, I have only time for a few lines," etc., etc.

But the *saggia Isabella* does not receive her numbers, and writes a long and affectionate letter to her friend in London, telling him how Vendramini had consigned the packet to Signor Neumann, secretary to the Austrian Ambassador in London; how he had transmitted it to Count Strasoldo, Governor of Milan, etc., etc. She still gives him tidings of his sister—his mother being dead—and through her he sends such help as he can. She gives him news of all his old friends, even of those turned foes. Monti, who had threatened "to scatter the dust of Foscolo's 'Sepolcri,'" that beautiful poem on burials and burial-places, she tells him, "is aged and deaf, half blind, and inconsolable for the death of his and our Perticari." "Pindemonte is flourishing, and is now reposing on his laurels after his translation of the 'Odyssey.' This is the first winter that he has abandoned Venice, but he promises to return in the spring."

No news to the last of the missing numbers, nor can I ascertain whether the translation was ever published entire, as so far I have not been able to find it in the Catalogue of the British Museum. In the many letters written by Canova from Rome to her "Excellency the Countess," always sent by hand by some illustrious foreigner, he tells her of his work, his projects, and his hopes, and expresses himself delighted with her descriptions of his sculptures. First he has only seen the frontispiece, though the Countess has sent all the numbers for his approval. He presented "his faithful friend" with the bust of Helen of Troy, which is still to be seen in the Albrizzi palace, and tells her of his commissions for the Duke of Devonshire (who, by the way, possesses the fine bust of Madame Letizia, mother of the first Napoleon). He sends her the first engraving of his monument to Senator Giovanni Falier, which Canova presented to Venice in gratitude to his first patron; of the statue of Napoleon now in London, while a bronze copy is in the Brera at Milan. About his colossal group of Hercules and Lichas, modelled as early as 1795, which is still in the palace of the Marquis Torlonia, Duke of Bracciano, he writes: "You are right in imagining that I have tried to reproduce the different attitudes which Euripides apportions to the three figures called sons of Hercules; but they are only three, and I, using the authority of Pindar, model *eight*. . . . I heartily wish that your Excellency could see a gigantic group which I have just completed in clay of Theseus triumphing over the Centaur." This group was destined to Milan, but was carried off to Vienna and placed in the imperial gardens after its completion in 1819. Besides the letters of Antonio Canova, there are a number from his brother, who informs the Countess of all the surprises that "Canova the great" is preparing for her. He was a great friend and admirer of Pindemonte, and in all his letters to the Countess sends his "warm affection and admiration."

Pindemonte's letters, of which I may yet send a selection, are 500, and are extremely interesting as showing the views taken by a Venetian of Venice on the point of "ceasing to be." "Pindemonte," writes Byron to his publisher, Murray, "is a thin little man, with fine and agreeable features; his manners are courteous and gentlemanly, he looks like a philosopher. He is about sixty, and, after a somewhat wild youth, has turned devout, says his prayers, and preaches himself so as to exorcise the devil; but, after all, he is a very agreeable little old man." Of all the friends of Isabella Teotochi Albrizzi, he was the earliest and the most constant. Certainly his early letters are "quite other" than devout, or at least his devotion is reserved for mundane objects; but when, after Byron's death, John Hobhouse write to the Countess Albrizzi to induce Pindemonte to subscribe to a monument to Lord Byron, he answers her: "Signor Hobhouse has written and printed that I, grown old and infirm, have become bigoted, and that the greater part of my time is devoted to religious observances. Would that this latter assertion were the truth. At any rate, you will understand me and judge whether I can contradict myself and contribute in any manner to honor a man who outraged religion to such a point as to merit a public reproof from the Grand Chancellor of England" !! J. W. M.

BOISSIER'S SAINT-SIMON.

PARIS, May 28, 1892.

IT is a bold enterprise to write a book on Saint-Simon, to pass judgment on a man who speaks so well for himself, to "review" a writer who has left us an account of half a century, with innumerable details, with the most minute analysis of a thousand interesting characters. M. Gaston Boissier has done this, however; he has added a small volume to the collection of "Les Grands Écrivains Français" which is published by Hachette.

Few men are more competent to write upon Rome and Latin literature than M. Boissier; he has just given us a new volume on the last days of the Roman Empire and the transformation of a pagan into a Christian society. We are very willing to be introduced by him to these curious times; he is at home there, having lived in familiarity with all the Latin writers, and he can teach us not a little about the great men and writers of the first centuries of the Christian era. Can he tell us more than we all know about Saint-Simon, or Louis XIV., or Mme. de Maintenon? Here *we* feel quite at home; we know Versailles as well as he does himself. I had already made such remarks to myself when M. Boissier gave us a 'Madame de Sévigné.' I had been all my life familiar with the amiable Marquise, and I felt a little surprised at M. Boissier's attempt to explain her to me. Still, I must candidly confess that I read his little volume with much pleasure. Madame de Sévigné wrought a new miracle: she reconciled me to her biographer, she gave to his style a peculiar lightness, to his manner an unwonted delicacy. I found only one fault with M. Boissier's 'Madame de Sévigné,' and I said so to him: he is not quite just to her when he lays her virtue almost entirely to the credit of a cold temperament. This is too materialistic a view. We have no right to say of a virtuous woman that she has no merit in being virtuous because she is not tempted. Madame de Sévigné was often tempted, and her wicked cousin Bussy said of her: "On lui fait voir bien du pays, mais elle en revient toujours."

I opened the volume on Saint-Simon with some alarm: it begins with a complete account of the Duke's life. The origin of the fortune of the Saint-Simons is well known. "Among the pages of young Louis XIII. there was one who belonged to a noble and ruined family of Vermandois. The King hunted constantly; he had to change horses from time to time, and he noticed young Claude de Saint-Simon, who always presented him the fresh horse so that he was not obliged to dismount and could spring from one saddle to another." Of such trifles is made the fortune of man. Saint-Simon became a favorite; he obtained many offices, and in 1635 was made a Duke and Peer. His son expresses no astonishment at such a favor: "We are," says he, "issued from Charlemagne, at least, on the spindle-side; there can be no contention on this point." M. de Boislisle, the new editor of Saint-Simon, contests it, however, and he is probably right.

Claude de Saint-Simon had only a daughter by his first wife; he married again in 1672. He was sixty-four years old, his new wife, Charlotte de L'Aubespine, was thirty-five years younger. Three years afterwards, on the 15th of January, 1675, was born the child who became the author of the Memoirs. His opinions, prejudices, hatreds, preferences, came to him naturally. His passion for rank, for the privileges of his birth, was in his blood, and was a part of his devotion for the people he had seen around his old father, and for his father himself, who seemed a remnant of old times at the end of the seventeenth century. Saint-Simon stayed a short time in the army; he became rapidly a colonel, saw two sieges and one battle, and resigned because he was not appointed brigadier as soon as he wished, and began the life of the court. Versailles became his world—the Versailles of Louis XIV., which was the seat of the French monarchs, the centre of all authority, the fountain of all favors. Nobody knew better what he calls the *mécanique* of the court—the succession of small duties and of fatiguing pleasures which constituted life at court. For twenty-four years he led this monotonous life, assisted in the morning at the *lever* of the King, followed him to the chapel, saw him take his repasts, accompanied him in his promenades. Louis XIV. prized, above all, assiduity; why did he not like Saint-Simon, and why did not Saint-Simon like him? Louis XIV. was helped by his instinct: he hated in this little duke his judge; the proud nobleman, passionately fond of the rights of his caste; the virtuous husband; the man who felt contempt for Mme. de Maintenon; the friend of his grandson, the Duc de Bourgogne, who was preparing plans of government in secret; and afterwards, when the Duc de Bourgogne was cut off in his prime, the friend and adviser of the Duc d'Orléans. Saint-Simon hated the absolute King,

who ignored the privileges of his nobility; who was always using men of the people, nobodies, upstarts; who could bear no superiority; the slave of women, the tool of Mme. de Maintenon.

The King and the courtier were, so to speak, born enemies; and they both felt it, though their hatred was almost unconscious. They represented two different political ideals. "L'État, c'est moi," was not an empty word in the mouth of Louis XIV.; as for Saint-Simon, he has explained to us explicitly his political ideas. He wrote out at his leisure long plans of government. The four Ministers who were the incarnation of the will of the King, the Minister of War, the Minister of the Navy, the Minister of the King's Household, the Minister of Foreign Affairs (they bore only the name of Secretaries of State), with the General Comptroller of the Finances, were odious to him. "They were," he says, "the five Kings of France, who exercised their tyranny in the name of the true King, and often without his knowledge." He wished to replace them by councils, which were to be composed of the best and most important men of the kingdom. In the eyes of Saint-Simon, the King is the true representative of the nation, but on one condition—if he be surrounded by his Peers; the royal decisions are legal only if they are sanctioned by the Peers. They are a part, an essential part, of the sovereign power. Saint-Simon often becomes ridiculous when he insists upon the difference between the "ducs et pairs" and the other members of the Parlement; he stands for "l'épée" against "la robe"; he hates the "gens de robe et de plume" who have usurped all the places, the intendants. He shows us the legal advisers of Saint Louis sitting on small benches, giving their opinions on their knees; he cannot bear the idea of their successors standing face to face with Peers; he becomes almost mad with rage when the presidents of the Parlement talk to the dukes with their bonnets on their heads: he fills page after page with this "enormous usurpation of the bonnet." This bonnet is his perpetual nightmare; he becomes terribly eloquent when he tells us the story of some of the *gens de rien* who have emerged from their *néant* and have become the real rulers of the country.

We must not forget, however, one thing: under all these prejudices, these dislikes, these pretensions, there was a great idea. Saint-Simon was, in one sense, a precursor of parliamentary government; he hated absolutism and the instruments of absolutism; he wished to establish in France a sort of "House of Peers" like the English House of Lords. He did not go so far as a House of Commons, a permanent legislative assembly; but he advised the Regent to convoke the States-General; he wished them to assemble every five years, and would have assigned to them the laying of the taxes and the administration of the finances.

Saint-Simon suffered all his life the torture of Tantalus: he had hoped to obtain a commanding influence when the Duc d'Orléans became Regent, but the Regent found him too intractable. He was himself irresolute, weak, changeable. After a long conversation, in the course of which Saint-Simon had attacked Dubois with the greatest violence, the Regent said, with all the air of perfect sincerity: "Well, we must dismiss this rascal," and a short time afterwards he made him Prime Minister. The Regent had great good-will for Saint-Simon; he liked in him the man who had great hopes of him, who wished to make him play a great part; he disliked at the same time his severity, his unflinching seriousness. All their instincts were different: Saint-Simon stood for the Spanish alliance; the Regent had a leaning towards England. Saint-Simon was sent as Ambassador to Spain for six months. On his return he was seldom consulted. The Duc d'Orléans died on December 2, 1723, and with him ended the political career of the Duke.

Saint-Simon spent the last years of his life in complete retirement at his château of La Ferté-Vidame, between Chartres and Dreux. The château has been demolished; the immense park and the forest are still there. In this great solitude, surrounded with books, with portraits of Louis XIII. (there was one in each room), he finished his extraordinary and admirable memoirs. He had begun to write them in 1694 in camp. He noted afterwards all his conversations with the Duc de Beauvilliers, with the Duc de Bourgogne, with the Duc d'Orléans. Later, having read the 'Journal de Dangeau,' a sort of diary of the Court of Louis XIV., he found it "d'une fadeur à faire vomir," but it gave him a sort of groundwork for his own Memoirs. Dangeau's chronology, which is so exact, helped his memory.

M. Boissier speaks of the reasons we have for not trusting Saint-Simon entirely. The Memoirs were written when Saint-Simon was old; his notes have been lost, and we do not know what they were exactly. He was passionate to injustice. This is all very well. Saint-Simon may have committed, and he certainly did commit, some errors of detail; but he was fundamentally sincere; he conceals nothing. We understand him well; he is always the same. We can make an allowance for his prejudices and his passions. On the whole, he has given to us a living image of the *grand siècle*, such as cannot and never will be forgotten. There is an intensity of life in his Memoirs which will make them immortal.

M. Boissier writes a special chapter on Mme. de Maintenon and Louis XIV. He finds fault with Saint-Simon for having so much abused Mme. de Maintenon, for having mentioned the accusations brought against her before she was Mme. de Maintenon; it seems to him that such details do not belong to history. Why not? Are not Mlle. d'Aubigné, Mme. Scarron, and Mme. de Maintenon one and the same person? Saint-Simon is not the only man who has injured the memory of Mme. Scarron; we could cite in the printed correspondence of Scarron letters which are as damaging to her as anything can be. M. Boissier is too indulgent, and so is M. Geffroy, the last editor of Mme. de Maintenon. Posterity will not have for her the admiration which was felt by Dangeau, and will side with Saint-Simon.

Correspondence.

THE BLAME OF IT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the line of fair play I beg leave to say a few words. This is heresy where "lynching" has lately been the dominant sentiment; Maryland enjoying for this lawlessness no enviable notoriety. A negro man, brought from the country where the crime is committed, taken into the town, handed over to the lawful authorities, and then the jail taken possession of and the man dragged out and hung in the town under the shadow of the court-house—this frightens every woman and child in the town. It terrifies the innocent negro element so that they do not feel safe to go out at night, and are not sure that they are safe in bed. When and where men are given over to lawlessness, it is useless to ask for pity or justice; but even the reckless might pause and consider the unfairness to the timid, the helpless, the innocent. If they are resolved to do without law courts, let them do their deeds of vengeance where the crimes are committed. A race war seems almost inevitable because of the bitterness and the aggressive attitude of affairs amid an innocent and ignorant population.

This is not all. The negroes who made the attack and brutally murdered Hill went out of the village a drunken and disorderly crowd, and, in a "local-option" county, the white men make the laws and are responsible for their faithful keeping. No one sells liquor, and yet the evidence is everywhere, and is the root of the evils that they would extinguish by "lynching." Where does the blame lie? Who is the innocent man to throw the first stone? Certainly not the one who enriches himself by demoralizing the black as well as the white American.

Victor Hugo wrote 'Les Misérables' to show that it is civilization that creates its own thieves and scoundrels. That may or may not be true, but it is not a paradox to insist that law-breaking on the part of the whites must answer for the crimes among the blacks. Perhaps if the end we seek is truth and not plausibility, we may find the three R's are responsible. It is not always easy to lay one's finger on the beginnings of things. But there is no doubt that much of the unsoundness of our national life is due to demagogism, drunkenness, and democracy.—Respectfully,

B. B. Ellets.

Maryland, June 2, 1892.

PLACES AND MEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Probably no department of administration in our institutions for higher learning gives more trouble than that of filling vacant chairs. The same, indeed, is true of the lower schools as well. I recall that ex-President White once said that this feature of his work at Cornell gave him much concern, although he was not tied by any bonds of party or sect. At present there seems to be no effectual way of bringing together the places and the men. The teachers' bureau is a very imperfect method, even when conducted with care, as some are. It is able to give no assurance that an appointee is suitable for the place. And it is a sorry fact, but nevertheless true, that the recommendations of officers of instruction are so much tinged with ulterior purposes that often they are worse than of no value. Under these circumstances it becomes largely a matter of experiment whether the right man is chosen for a given place. Institutions often suffer, as some the writer knows of at present are suffering, because all ordinary means have failed to procure suitable instructors. The common opinion that our institutions, and foreign ones, are providing ample material for such openings, may be true, but where is that material? How can it be discovered when needed? The waste incident to improper elections, the disaster of finding one's self in the wrong place, are drawbacks painfully felt by institutions and men. Whoever will suggest any, even an imperfect, means of bridging over this difficulty, will certainly receive unstinted thanks from both parties interested.

Charles M. Moss.

Champaign, Ill.

PIG SILVER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The London *Times*, a few weeks ago, in commenting on the proposed international conference to bring about an enlarged use of silver, says it is not easy to see what "enlarged use" can mean. It adds that "the result of the employment of the American Treasury as a pig-silver warrant storehouse has not been so satisfactory as to encourage imitation." Certainly not as to "enlarged use." We ought, however, to thank the *Times* for an apt characterization of what used to be called bullion as "pig silver." This expression gives it its proper place with pig lead, pig tin, pig copper, pig iron, and the like. Its superabundance takes it out of the level with gold, and it should no longer be called bullion, but pig metal.

J. S. F.

Boston, May 30, 1892.

Notes.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in preparation 'Norway and the Norwegians,' by C. F. Keary; 'Conversations and Correspondence with Thomas Carlyle,' by Sir Charles G. Duffy; 'The Wrecker,' by Robert Louis Stevenson; 'First Aid in Illness and Injury,' by Capt. James E. Pilcher, U. S. A.; a translation, by the Rev. John Wilson, of Wendt's 'Teaching of Jesus'; and 'Our Moral Nature,' a brief system of ethics, by Dr. McCosh.

Macmillan & Co. announce 'The Life and Letters of Charles Keene,' fully illustrated, and 'The Autobiography of an English Game-Keeper,' edited by Arthur H. Byng and S. M. Stephens.

'Earth Burial and Cremation,' by Augustus G. Cobb, is in the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, have nearly ready a volume consisting of the Prefaces to Wordsworth's 'Lyrical Ballads' (1798–1815) and the controversial essays they evoked, the whole edited by A. J. George.

A work of no small value to bibliographers is 'Die Elsässischen Druckerzeichen bis Anfang des 18. Jahrhunderts' (Strassburg: Heitz & Mundel), with an introduction and explanatory notes by Prof. K. A. Barock. The vignettes or printers' signs have been collected by Paul Heitz, and are to be chronologically arranged according to cities or places of publication and reproduced in facsimile. The edition will be limited to 300 numbered copies.

'Die Denkmäler der Renaissance-Sculptur Toscanas' (Munich: Bruckmann), with text by Dr. W. Bode, is announced, and will be published in seventy parts at twenty marks ($5.00) each. Each part will contain five plates printed on large imperial paper.

About a year ago the Berlin Geographical Society, with the financial aid of the Prussian Ministry of Education and Worship, sent Dr. Konrad Kretschmer to Italy to collect materials for a "Festschrift," which should celebrate in a worthy manner the approaching fourth centenary anniversary of the discovery of America. The success of Kretschmer's exhaustive researches in Italian libraries and archives surpassed his most sanguine expectations, and the results will be issued in August by the German Imperial Printing-House in two volumes, of which the first will contain texts and the second maps illustrating the subject. Of these early maps thirty-one have never yet been printed, and will be a valuable contribution to cartographical science. The German Emperor has given fifteen thousand marks towards defraying the cost of publication.

Nansen's 'First Crossing of Greenland' (Longmans) has passed into a popular edition without losing anything of importance to the narrative proper, though with some abridgment and with certain excisions necessary to bring the work into a single volume of 450 pages. Very few of the illustrations have been dispensed with. The work may even be thought to have been improved by this condensation, judged by literary canons. It still remains one of the most readable in the whole library of Arctic adventure.

The 'Toilers in Art' commemorated in the volume edited by Henry C. Ewart (New York: Thomas Whittaker) are nineteen in number, and vary greatly in the degree to which the sensational title applies to them. The sketches, by half-a-dozen hands, are of artists, especially in black and white, beginning with John Tenniel and ending with Bewick and Flaxman. Some are straightforward accounts, some flowery and discursive, and there is no pretence at chronological or national arrangement. Noticeable is the group of contributors to *Punch*—Tenniel, Charles Henry Bennett, Frederick Walker, Frederick Eltze—who are somewhat intimately described; and concerning all the strictly contemporary artists, like Oskar Pletsch, Léon Lhermitte, Josef Israels, and Alexis Harlamoff, is given information perhaps not easily to be found elsewhere. In almost every case there is a portrait of the artist and one or more examples of his work, not very carefully printed. There is an odd symptom of political bias in the selection for a frontispiece of Tenniel's cartoon, "The Order of the Day" (murder and rapine in Ireland), which his Scotch biographer calls "full of force and salutary lessons."

Two of the latest numbers of "Les Artistes Célèbres," published by the Librairie de *l'Art* (Macmillan), are "Raffet," by F. Lhomme, and "Les Audran" by Georges Duplessis. Raffet was one of the best of those artists who have owed their reputation to the French love of military glory rather than to the real qualities of their work. The Audrans were a very large family of engravers of considerable merit.

'The Trade Policy of Imperial Federation,' by Maurice H. Hervey, a professor in an Australian college (London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners), is a statement of the conditions upon which a commercial union between England and her colonies can take place. The argument is that, as the colonies will not give up their protective duties, England must impose duties upon the products of foreign countries until her trade is transferred to her own dependencies. Mr. Hervey seems to contemplate a British trade alliance something like the "Continental system" of the first Napoleon. His work is marred by many mistakes of fact.

'Kilmeny' and 'In Silk Attire' are the latest volumes in the new and revised edition of William Black's novels which the Harpers are bringing out in a neat and convenient form.

The return of the tourist season is marked by a number of guide-books, new and old, which have reached our table. A thin and naïve souvenir of European travel is 'To Nuremberg and Back: A Girl's Holiday,' by Amy Neally (E. P. Dutton & Co.). Its only excuse for being lies in its photographic views, which are well chosen. From Houghton, Mifflin & Co. come new editions of their 'Satchel Guide to Europe' and of Sweetser's incomparable 'White Mountains,' 'New England,' and 'Maritime Provinces.' No changes of importance appear to have been called for in them. One always expects a good deal of rewriting in Mr. Charles Eyre Pascoe's unconventional guide-book, 'London of To-Day' (Roberts Bros.), and the current issue, which is the eighth in England, is dubbed American in virtue of some new preliminary chat about the ocean voyage to England. In the chapters which lend themselves to it, the usual freshening is observed, but those which deal with the street routes and the chief public buildings are mostly stereotyped. The pictures are a medley of new and old. The unpretentious but well-edited 'Visitors' Guide to Salem, Mass.' (Salem: Eben Putnam), first published in 1880, has been extensively overhauled for the current year. The twelfth chapter contains a list of historic portraits accessible to the public in Salem. The illustrations are rather pallid. The 'Gossiping Guide to Harvard,' published by the Cambridge *Tribune*, is adapted to hasty sight-seeing, but no more.

A new-comer, 'Guide-Souvenir de Florence et Pays Environnants,' by Dr. J. Marcotti (Florence: G. Barbèra), will meet with a warm welcome as being much needed. An enormous amount of information is packed into pocket compass, with cuts and maps, and the editor's collaboration has been of the most authoritative. As a key to the art treasures of the city this guide-book has never been equalled. It opens with a frank discourse on the character of the Florentines, whose dialect, it says, is less intelligible to foreigners than the Roman, and fortunately so, as their speech is too often gross; on their manners and customs, *e. g.*, their May and November "movings," in spite of Franklin's proverb, here rendered "lo sgombero costa come un incendio"; on their dress, *e. g.*, the general absence of the stove-pipe hat (*cilindro*) except, by municipal regulation, on the heads of cabmen. A brief outline of the city's history follows, with a bibliography. The rest is itinerary, winding up with an alphabetic list of the chief artists mentioned. We have but one criticism to pass on this admirable performance, and that is that the index is far from being adequate. It furnishes no answer to questions like these: Where shall I find Michael Angelo's "Night and Day," where Botticelli's "Spring," where the cyclopean remains and Roman theatre in the suburbs, etc.?

Seventy-four pages of the annual report for 1891 of the State Geologist of New Jersey are occupied by "A Preliminary Paper on Drift or Pleistocene Formations of New Jersey," from the pen of Prof. R. D. Salisbury. This is a most lucid popular exposition of glacial action, illustrated with maps, diagrams, and views from nature in New Jersey, and is highly to be recommended to any one who is curious regarding the subject. The rest of the volume consists of the usual matter, with especial stress again on Southern New Jersey, of which the agricultural possibilities of the oak-land and pine-land belts are set forth in detail by C. W. Coman. The Russian Jews planted by Baron Hirsch in this section have, it is said, thus far "proved industrious and economical, and have gained a good reputation for prompt settlement of debts." C. C. Vermeule deals with the water-supply and water-power of the State, which are shown to be unexpectedly good in the flat portion, but capable of being indefinitely supplemented by electric transmission from the greater powers to the north, with much social and economic advantage. Progress is reported on the making of a surface geological map of the State; one sheet of it will shortly be ready for printing.

While Prof. Sayce is announcing, through the *Academy*, that he has found the clue to the Hittite inscriptions, Prof. Cyrus Thomas states, in *Science* of May 27, that he has "discovered at last the key which will unlock the mystery of the Maya Codices, and, probably, of the Central American inscriptions."

The first number of the new quarterly, the *Yale Review*, which succeeds the *New Englander*, contains very good matter. The editorial comment is judicious, but somewhat limited in range, while the articles are of more than average merit. Three of them are the result of much research: "The Demarcation Line of Pope Alexander VI.," by E. G. Bourne; "Massachusetts and the Saybrook Platform," by Williston Walker; and "Labor Troubles between 1834 and 1837," by Evans Woollen. Prof. Hadley contributes a thoughtful paper on "Legal Theories of Price Regulation," reaching the conclusion that the safest policy in dealing with monopolies is judicial prevention of discriminating rates, while Mr. Henry Villard and Prof. H. W. Farnam discuss "German Tariff Policy, Past and Present." A fair allowance of space is given to book reviews. The *Review* is published by Ginn & Co., Boston.

The address of Dr. Stanley Hall, delivered some time since before the School of Pedagogy of the University of the City of New York, has just been published. It is entitled "The New Movement in Education," and dwells particularly on the advances made in education during the last year, in Europe as well as in this country. The new movement Dr. Hall considers to mean three things: that the physical sciences are rapidly coming to underlie all the arts of peace and war; that the study of the biological sciences in the widest sense is modifying the chief conceptions of morality and religion; and that governments can be made strong and stable only by education. It follows that the work of schools of pedagogy is of great and increasing importance. The address is prefaced with a brief but interesting account of the school before which it was delivered.

We have received from Bernard Quaritch Part I. of 'Contributions towards a Dictionary of English Book-Collectors, as also of some Foreign Collectors'—namely, those whose libraries were incorporated in English collections, or whose books are met with chiefly in England. The contemporaneous libraries of Archbishop Cranmer and of Bilibald Pirkheimer of Nuremberg are first treated of, by Edward Burbidge and M. Kerney respectively. A biographical sketch of each is succeeded by a scholarly catalogue of his books, with marginal and other annotations. Facsimiles of Cranmer's signature, with Dürer's etched portrait of Pirkheimer and woodcut book-plate, and Pirkheimer's beautiful copper book-plate (perhaps Dürer's design), embellish this portion of a very entertaining publication. On the woodcut plate, one remarks the ante-Grolierian "sibi et amicis." Pirkheimer's Latin Ptolemy was the first to contain a map bearing the designation *America;* and the same book, ridiculing the literal Scriptural account of Judæa as "flowing with milk and honey," played a part in the condemnation of Servetus for heresy.

One of the most attractive features of the Munich International Art Exhibition, now open, should be the hall of old masters, arranged by Prof. Lenbach in accordance with his conception of what such a gallery ought to be, both in construction and decoration, as well as in the method of lighting it. The contents have been carefully selected, and consist of rare masterpieces, most of which have never been publicly exhibited. The Empress Frederick, Prof. Knaus, Baroness Todesko, Dr. Fiedler, and other connoisseurs and collectors in Berlin, Leipzig, Hamburg, Munich, and Vienna have furthered Lenbach's project by placing the choicest of their art treasures at his disposal. The sculptural and pictorial decorations of this ideal of an art cabinet have been executed by Rauch and Rudorffer. Radical changes have also been made in the interior of the Munich Glass Palace, by which the space for works of art has been considerably increased and the architectonic effect of the whole vastly improved.

The German Committee formed for the purpose of aiding in replacing the library of the University of Toronto, recently destroyed by fire, has already brought together 8,800 volumes, including a handsome gift from the Emperor. Additional contributions are expected, and every effort will be put forth to make the collection as complete as possible in Germanistic literature and philology.

The most noticeable plate in *Sun and Shade* for June (New York: Photo-Gravure Co.) is a portrait of Mr. Howells from a photograph by Cox.

Prof. Butler writes to us from Madison, Wis.:

"Among private libraries which have been transferred *en bloc* to our public collections, you mention (No. 1405, p. 413) Van der Meulen's as at the University of Wisconsin. This library is not at the above University and it never has been. Its local habitation is in the rooms of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin, a mile from the University. The institutions have no official connection. The Society, however, has always granted University students the largest liberty in consulting its accumulations, which are stored in the State Capitol. The Van der Meulen Library (4,812 volumes, 374 pamphlets) remained at Zeist in Holland till 1867, when it was presented to the Wisconsin Society by his daughter, Mrs. Otto Tank of Green Bay."

—The June *Atlantic* opens with a comprehensive discussion of the sort of education which is needed as a means of strengthening and preserving civilization in the negro race. It is written by Dr. W. T. Harris, and is annotated by some others whose knowledge of the conditions of the problem gives interest to what is said. The policy of concentrating charitable aid upon the secondary and normal schools, in which the more intelligent and progressive youth, the selected minds, are trained, is approved, and attention is directed to the importance of industrial education for the whole mass. The ideas advanced are not new, but the emphasis with which they are stated and their reasonableness shown, is very striking, and it is to be hoped that the beliefs and faith of the writer may be contagious. It must be added that the optimism and confidence of the text are somewhat shadowed by the comment. Mr. Fenollosa, in a paper upon the traits of the Chinese and Japanese, makes some noticeable historical parallels which seem to bring the development of those nations nearer to the Western mind, and especially he protests against the contrast usually accepted between the two as one of conservatism with flexibility. The stagnation of China is related to its past, he suggests, as that of the Byzantine Empire was to earlier Greek ages. At present, he thinks, the Japanese exhibit a likelihood of falling back again upon their artistic temperament as their means of grace in the new world opened to them, instead of directing their energy to a competition with the West in the things characteristic of Western civilization, and he ends with a hazard of prophecy in accordance with which our old and overworked friend, Macaulay's "New Zealander," must hail from the shores of Japan. Other papers of particular note are Janet Ross's sketch of her grandfather, John Austin, and Prof. Searle's account of Dr. S. C. Chandler's observations of the star Algol.

—*Harper's* is distinguished by the first of Mr. Lowell's papers on the Elizabethan dramatists, which has the agreeable trait of resembling talk more than essay, and is full of literary appreciativeness; but it will be more convenient to speak of these lectures when they are complete. Dr. Waldstein writes with his usual discrimination and felicity of comparison concerning the relief of Athene found on the Acropolis, and is inclined to connect it with a funeral memorial; he uses the occasion to quote at length the two greatest of funeral orations, Pericles's and Lincoln's. Mr. Courtenay de Kalb writes of the social and intellectual condition of one of the least known parts of the semi-civilized world, Eastern Peru. He makes its past and its present equally real, and tells a strange tale of the contact of religion with savagery, ending in an institution of serfdom which still continues. It is a depressing story; but as the country has been open to the modern world only since 1866, little was to be expected. The Christianized Indians, so called, though not slaves, are practically bound for life by debtor laws, and even if they break them and free themselves from attachment to the soil, they have no place to go to. The customs of the community, however, in which the condition of these serfs is tempered by the kindness of their masters, seems not ill-fitted to the stage of civilization reached, and some regeneration of the individual by moral and mental agencies must precede any social betterment. The account of the masters themselves is equally interesting as a picture of the patriarchal land-holding system which has almost vanished from our observation in nearer regions. A paper upon Kentucky, which celebrates this year the centennial of her admission to the Union, is timely, and recalls especially her Revolutionary glories.

—The *Century* discloses one of the sure magazine weather-indications in the paper upon the Sea-Serpent. He appears only in the summer. Generally he is permitted to retain the atmosphere and distance of a myth—a myth of science possibly, but not more nigh to reality. In this instance there is no such paltering with our senses. The sea gives up its wonders; in fact, it gives up its dead. We have on the page a drawing—after the description, it must be allowed—of the carcass of the monster discovered on a remote spot of the Florida coast in 1885, and beside it a representation of the skeleton of the clidastes found in the Bad Lands of Kansas. The two are very like. The writer, J. B. Holder, recounts again the oft-repeated testimony of the many unimpeachable witnesses who saw the sea-serpent on the Massachusetts coast early in the century, and he entertains no doubt of the existence of the creature of which the Florida carcass is probably an example. If it is ever captured and catalogued, the credibility of human testimony should be distinctly greater than ever before; but until then doubt may still be expected to invade the minds of all who are not dwellers on the Cape Ann shore, where expectancy of the marvel is always a pleasing incident of the summer. An elaborate article upon Budapest; an account of Mt. St. Elias, with some novel ice-views; some

highly interesting examples of primitive political caricature in this country, annotated by Mr. J. B. Bishop; and Castelar's continuation of the life of Columbus, are the remaining papers of novelty or importance in the number, which besides fitly commemorates the public-spirited character and career of the founder of the magazine, the late Mr. Roswell Smith.

—*Scribner's* is characterized by two philanthropic articles. The first is Mrs. Burnett's realistic narrative of the origin and growth of the Drury Lane Boys' Club, in which she became interested and for which she did some private benefactions. It is a chapter of boy-life among the poor of the city of London, told with a master pen. The instinct of self-help, acting in a natural and unconscious way, was the source of the little club, which met with the usual kind and humble friends and the equally common difficulties, but had enough vitality in its boy-interest to make it become a useful centre of good morals and intelligence in its neighborhood, and an example to others through the English world. A more hopeful story of the boys' clubs has not been told. The second paper, upon the tenement-houses of this city, is also optimistic in tone. The writer, notwithstanding his long experience, does not undertake to make a sensation by recounting a catalogue of horrors, as he could easily have done; but, taking good with evil, he finds improvement, and reminds us again that these districts are not a permanent home, but a stopping-place through which the new arrivals pass on their way to Americanization and higher standards of living. The population is shifting in the sense that its children go on to better homes. Their places are filled, and the work is to do over again, but it is a work of civilization, and should be welcomed. The means of improvement, however, are far from being exhausted, and the writer enumerates a number of new agencies which he advises—first among them, apparently, being the institution of public baths, with reading-rooms and restaurants. He directs attention to the mutual helpfulness of the tenement class among themselves, and gives some admirable instances showing a sound spirit in the people themselves. He illustrates, of course, the really large amount of undeserved suffering and hardship incident to the economic and domestic conditions of poverty. The article is, altogether, well-considered and enlightening, and should have a wholesome effect upon both sentiment and labor. A third paper, upon the problem of rapid transit, with its definite proposition for this city, is of municipal interest.

JULIAN'S HYMNOLOGY.

A Dictionary of Hymnology: Setting forth the Origin and History of Christian Hymns of All Ages and Nations, with Special Reference to those Contained in the Hymn Books of English-speaking Countries, and now in Common Use. Together with Biographical and Critical Notices of their Authors and Translators, and Historical Articles on National and Denominational Hymnody, Breviaries, Missals, Primers, Psalters, Sequences, etc., etc., etc. Edited by John Julian, M.A., Vicar of Wincobank, Sheffield. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892. 8vo, pp. xii., 1,616.

THIS long title has nothing of vain pretence: it is simply and exactly descriptive. The pages are double-columned and closely printed, with a minimum of margin. The object has been to cover the whole field of Christian hymnody, which is much larger—especially the English portion of it—than is generally supposed; and the degree of success in compassing this ambitious aim is remarkable, considering the comparative, one might almost say the absolute, lack of precedents. The previous work on this line has all been recent, and it has been attempted on anything like a corresponding scale only by Daniel and Mone for the Latin hymns, and by Knapp and Wackernagel for the German.

With those who use the English language the word hymnology was till lately supposed to mean "a collection of hymns"; and the thing it really stood for, which was, of course, the special study (it can hardly be called a science) of hymns, has existed only within the last half century. Till about 1840, nobody, so far as is known, had thought to gather and compare hymn-books, except for the scissors-work of the compiler. The fashion was set by Daniel Sedgwick, an humble and untaught dissenter of strongly Calvinistic opinions. Originally a shoemaker, and a poor one at that, his tastes led him into the second-hand book trade, and his little shop in Sun Street, Bishopsgate, became the resort of men of all creeds and connections when they wanted information about hymns. The tree of English hymnology is of his planting, and Mr. Julian's book should be dedicated to his memory.

The first volume on this topic was by Burgess, a Wesleyan, now forgotten, and not commemorated by Mr. Julian. It was a small affair, and dealt with the provision of his own sect merely. So did the larger book of David Creamer, a Baltimore Methodist, in 1849. Ten years later Dr. J. Belcher, a Baptist of Philadelphia, put forth 'Historical Sketches of Hymns,' a rambling production, but not confined in its scope. Far more valuable was Josiah Miller's 'Our Hymns,' 1866, based on the British Congregational Hymn-book; and his 'Singers and Songs of the Church,' 1869, has been the most extensive and useful publication on the subject till now. Others followed, usually containing, like the recent American works of Hatfield and Duffield, more blunders and less facts, or, like most of the English efforts, offering more for edification and entertainment than for information. At home Putnam, Nutter, and Burrage did some good work in illuminating each his denominational corner of the field.

Mr. Julian's big book differs from its predecessors in containing more solid matter than all of them put together, and in presenting it in an entirely new shape. On the first head there is little to say except by way of the praise due to immense research and successful industry. As to the handling and arrangement of the matter the case is different. Both the general plan of the work and the irregular way in which that plan is carried out are open to serious exception.

The dictionary, or cyclopædia, method requires a strictly alphabetic order, and places all subjects on a level: if you want Cheese, or General Grant, or Zanzibar, you know where to look for it. But it was, or should have been, a question from the start whether this method was applicable here. Names of authors and first lines of hymns do not mix well together; only one collection out of thousands has been known to group the two in a single index. The natural order is that hitherto pursued, *i. e.*, under each writer's name, after the facts of his life, to gather such of his hymns as are worth mentioning, preferably in the order of their publication. That is here done in part; to do it entirely would have saved much precious space and some trouble to the reader. Every Latin or German hymn of any note (presumably) has an article to itself, and so have a multitude of English ones, but few or none of American origin. Thus one may find "Rock of Ages" on p. 971, but not "My faith looks up to Thee" on p. 778. On looking for the latter in the index, on p. 1406, one is referred to Dr. Ray Palmer, on p. 877. Or if the reader is of antiquarian tastes, and wishes to look up such a once-popular piece as "Thou sweet flowing Kedron," he may at length discover the line on p. 1609, and then travel back to Maria De Fleury on p. 1559—for beyond the main indices of First Lines and Authors (which it has been thought necessary to keep apart here at least) is an Appendix with indices of its own. All this is clumsy, and should have been obviated; but after reading at the start (p. v.) that "the first pages were completed more than ten years ago," one is prepared to believe that many additions and corrections were afterwards needed.

To revert for a moment to first principles: every student or collector, in whatever field, knows that with more than a few dozen books, or specimens, or titles, arrangement on some definite plan is important. When the subjects mount up, as here, to many thousands, the arrangement makes all the difference between perfect utility and chaotic uselessness. This 'Dictionary' is not a chaos, but its order is not orderly enough. It might have been better to give it another name and abandon the effort at alphabetic sequence, except in the indices. Then the splendid array of the Latin hymns (which are mostly anonymous) could have been set forth in chronologic order, preceded or followed by the Greek and Syriac. The German lyrics could have had several hundred pages to themselves, authors being arranged by periods and schools, as in T. Kübler's admirable companion volume (wholly overlooked by Mr. Julian) to the two of 'Lyra Germanica.' The Italian, French, Dutch, Scandinavian, etc., would stand each by itself — as here mainly, not wholly. The vast bulk of English material, almost entirely the product of the last two centuries, would be treated like the German: first, that prior to 1700, then Watts, the Wesleys, and their followers, and so on; America, with its moderate native provision, bringing up the rear. Fatherless hymns in any of these sections would fall into line according to their dates. Then alphabetic indices, one set for the first lines and another for the writers, editors, etc., in their different departments, would (especially in the former case) probably be better guide-posts than one each—not to say two, as here—for the poetry and the poets. If one wants to find a German hymn, for instance, he will surely know that it is German, and look for it more easily among its near relations than in a hodge-podge of a dozen languages. To cite the extremest case, there is an awkwardness in mixing the Greek with our own alphabet, and placing Φῶς ἱλαρὸν next to Greville Phillimore, as in the body of this book, or to *Peuple Chrétien*, as in its index.

Such an arrangement as above suggested would have made the contents of the 'Dictionary' more valuable, both for reading and for reference. In the case of so expensive a publication, appealing to a limited class and little likely to be revised, everything should have been done to make it at once as complete as possible and as attractive as is consistent with sound scholarship. But where no regard is paid to Mr. Lincoln's advice about

swapping horses while crossing a stream, where plans are radically changed while the work is in process, where a number of contributors work each after his own lights, some confusion is inevitable. For "Italian Hymnody" and other topics we are referred to the peculiar heading "Various." Under "Various," p. 1205, the seeker is informed that "the expansion of the work far beyond its original limits," etc., etc., "have necessitated an Appendix, which will be found at p. 1307." At p. 1307 begin the indices. Journeying on to p. 1525, the pilgrim finds the promised Appendix, which contains, mostly in very small type and severely condensed treatment, a great many topics that ought to have been thought of earlier. Here are the old names, well known to every hymnologist, of R. Burdsall, Mrs. M. F. Cowper, M. De Fleury, T. Greene, G. Heath, R. Lee, J. Marsden, J. Peacock, M. Pyper, Mrs. E. Rowe, A. Serle, Mrs. Clare Taylor, Wm. Taylor, and J. Wingrove, nearly all of the last century; the more recent but not less important names of D. E. Ford, R. Nicoll, W. Palmer, G. Robinson, Lord Selborne, Abp. Whately, the Whittemores, and E. Wigleswortb; poets of such note as W. Blake, T. Chatterton, Eliza Cook, Giles Fletcher, Hans Sachs, James Shirley, and Lord Tennyson, whose slightest connection with hymns should have put them into Mr. Julian's memoranda years ago; and such Americans as Eliel Davis, H. F. Gould, J. H. Hopkins, A. Kneeland, J. G. Lyons, F. P. Mace, B. Manly, D. March, M. F. Ossoli, G. Robins, and R. Turnbull.

Besides these worthies, preserved by a happy afterthought from hymnologic oblivion, the Appendix (which has two parts and a brief supplement) gives long additional lists of hymns "in common use" by familiar authors like Alford, Bathurst, Beddome, Bonar, Collyer, Doddridge, Ellerton, Faber, Kelly, and Lyte. These lists might be extended indefinitely. With the two leading hymnists of the eighteenth century, the editor's patience happily gave out; thus, he remarks of Dr. Watts, "Nearly 100 hymns, additional to those already annotated, are given in some minor hymn-books"; and presently of C. Wesley, "In addition to nearly 1,000 of his hymns which are annotated in this Dictionary, there are many more in C. U. which we have not space to notice." There is a moral in these confessions. If our diligent editor had strung out the thousand hymns of C. Wesley in one long row and in order of time, each set headed by the title and date of the book or tract in which they first appeared, instead of giving half of them six or eight lines apiece, repeating the same statement on many different pages, and dwelling needlessly on minute changes of text, made for the most part unintelligently at the caprice of conscienceless compilers, he would have saved a great many pages. Nobody need object to the handling at length (as is here done) of *Dies Iræ*, or *Veni Creator*, or *Ein' feste Burg;* but there are not many English hymns that have more of a history than can be told in a few lines, and between a vicious arrangement and the amplification of trivialties much space is here wasted.

What with two main parts of the book and two pairs of indices, it would be dangerous to attempt to detect omissions. The probability is that nearly every name or first line of any note which may have been overlooked in the first 1,500 pages has been caught for the Appendix. We cannot find Robert ("Satan") Montgomery, whose pious lyrics were not so bad as his epics, though none of them is much used—in fact, they seem to have sunk under the weight of his reputation; and the research of weeks might detect other oversights hardly to be called criminal. If a name does not appear in either of its proper places, it may usually be found in one of the indices: thus, E. Cooper, T. Gisborne, and Lady Lucy Whitmore are bundled away under the head of Staffordshire, and a number of minor Unitarians under their denominational title. These invidious discriminations—though with no malice prepense, for sectarian bias is happily wanting—are a small feature of the book. Foreigners who used a tongue other than Greek, Latin, or German have no rights that need be respected; thus, Savonarola is relegated to "Italian Hymnody," p. 1533, and nothing is said of a striking piece, said to be translated from one of his, which occurs in so notable a book as Dr. Kennedy's 'Hymnologia Christiana,' 1863. One curious case may charitably be supposed unique, in the absence of similar charges against the accused. The beautiful Communion hymn, "Shepherd of souls, refresh and bless Thy chosen pilgrim flock," is much used in America, and most of it is anonymous. The index, p. 1451, refers to p. 119, where a brief lyric of J. Montgomery's is cited as forming the closing stanzas of this piece, "(q. v.)" But alas, there is no "q." to our "v."; at least the texts in S and the indices, being further entreated, are dumb. Such accidents may happen in the best-regulated books, when of these dimensions, but the fewer of them the better.

Biography, in which Miller and his imitators revelled, is not Mr. Julian's strong point. This will be a disappointment to many, for the human element is precious, and the older English writers had few black sheep among them. Most of their views would call forth a smile or a frown to-day from members of the same bodies, and they produced many dreadful verses; but personally most of them were estimable and lovable people, about whom one would be glad to know more than is told here. By way of exception, Dr. Grosart is unduly explanatory concerning George Wither: "How sorrowful the wrongheadedness of the King who compelled such a true man to forsake him and prefer the kingdom to the King, as [*sic*] many others who with pathetic reluctance became Roundheads!" As A. Ward once remarked, "Too true; it's a scandalous fact."

Of style not much is expected in a dictionary, and the style of Mr. Julian and his helpers, over whose contributions he is said to have freely exercised the editorial prerogative of revision, is at times erratic. Under his own initials he speaks (p. 1291) of "several Congregational congregations"; and he or they are fond of saying that So-and-so became a pastor or professor and "retained the same" for so long, or was born at such a date, and "subsequently" or "afterwards" emigrated, or what not. The doubt whether Dr. Nettleton "ever did or ever could have written" a hymn may be well founded, but is not prettily expressed.

What little there is of criticism goes far to reconcile us to the lack of more. "Amongst modern hymn-writers, Dr. Irons ranks with the first," though "his hymns have not been largely used outside of his own congregation." Oh, no; his version of *Dies Iræ* is in almost universal use, and it is the only thing of his of any special note. Seven of T. Kelly's "rank with the first hymns in the English language." In quality, not one of them does; he was a good man and a useful versifier, but of very limited faculties. Bishop Mant "is known chiefly through his translations from the Latin." On the contrary, these, with possibly two exceptions, are inferior to his originals, and much less used. Dr. M. W. Stryker of Chicago will feel doubtfully complimented on learning that his productions are "full of dogmatism and fire"—two qualities which in hymns have not usually helped each other since the days of Toplady. Dr. Grosart cites as "very fine" and "still finer" two unused and ordinary pieces by E. Perronet. Dr. J. H. Overton, who as rector of Epworth may be expected to enthuse over the Wesleys, says "it is perfectly marvellous how many there are which rise to the highest degree of excellence" among the 6,500 sacred songs of Charles; and of his sister Mehetabel (Mrs. Wright, far less known to fame), that she "had an exquisite poetic genius," and "it is a great temptation to go on quoting this exquisite writer." Those who write for dictionaries should learn to resist such temptations. It is Dr. Overton again who "caps the climate" of alleged criticism in asserting that Dean Stanley's "poetry is prosaic. The divine afflatus is wanting. . . . That exquisite taste and felicity of diction which distinguish more or less all his prose writings seem to desert him when he is writing verse." This is as wide of the mark as well could be. Three or four of Stanley's pieces have come within the range of recent collections, but others, found only in the Westminster Abbey Hymn Book, are too delicate, too subtle, too fine (in the stricter meaning of the word) for common use.

In statements of fact the book may be held to have attained, as was its business, a high level of general accuracy; at least, bad blunders are few. Dr. Joseph Beaumont did not die September 3, 1652, but November 23, 1699. The one hymn credited on p. 1586 to Prof. Phelps of Andover was published by Charles Wesley in 1762, and is so mentioned on p. 1264, No. 339. W. B. Rands, better known as "Henry Holbeach," was a precocious youth if he died at the age of twenty; and Dr. W. H. Furness accomplished an unexampled feat if he "graduated at Harvard in Arts and Theology 1820"; the date 1823 should be added. American names, of course, are full of pitfalls for the unwary Briton. "Bowd*o*n College" (p. 108), "Brown's University" (p. 316), "H. W. Bellowes" (p. 400), "Higham" (p. 810), and perhaps "*G*all River" (p. 685), explain themselves to a native, but "Eaton," twice on p. 451, needs to be interpreted into Easton, Pa., and "New Haven," in at least four places, into New Hampshire, a State apparently unknown to Mr. Julian and his proofreader. Moncure *Dana* Conway (p. 1195) disguises a family surname (Daniel). Little slips of this kind are numerous, and are accounted for by the fact that this edition is reprinted *verb., lit., et punct.* from that of Murray in London.

To sum up, the 'Dictionary of Hymnology' comes as near exhausting the bibliography of its subject as could be expected or reasonably desired. It contains a huge mass of information, imperfectly digested, and presented with inadequate regard to proportion, economy, and order. The German part is far ahead of the English, in quantity and quality; and the same may be said in a degree of the Latin, which has been committed to several hands. The volume should go into every public library and upon the shelves of such as care for extended consideration of its topics. As a book of reference it has no rivals, and is unlikely to be superseded for a long time to come. But

its technical character and approach to scientific methods will make it caviare to the general: it has few pretty stories to tell at prayer-meetings or round out a sermon with, and these are what most people want in connection with hymns. The more serious reader will often be disappointed by the difficulty of finding what he is after, the paucity of biographic data, the crude feebleness of occasional comments, and the general lowness of the literary tone. If Mr. James Mearns, who was assistant editor towards the last, had extended his cares from the German to the native English hymns and been allowed to direct the whole, or if some competent writer—say Mr. W. T. Brooke, whose brief notice of his master, the late D. Sedgwick, shows a discriminating mind and an apprehension of the uses of language—had been commissioned to handle Mr. Julian's huge accumulations and thrash them into shape, it would be possible to praise with less qualification this large result of long-continued and arduous labors.

MARSHAL MACDONALD'S RECOLLECTIONS.

Recollections of Marshal Macdonald, Duke of Tarentum. Edited by Camille Rousset (Member of the French Academy); translated by Stephen Louis Simeon. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. 356, 380.

MARSHAL MACDONALD'S personal recollections add another to the list of valuable contributions to history which have recently come forth from the seclusion of French family archives. The book carries in every page the evidence that it was written, as it professes to be, purely from memory, dashed off at speed, without revision by the aid of documents. By the same evidence, Macdonald's memory is shown to be tenacious and reliable, and the occasional slips which are inevitable in such a memoir are neither numerous enough nor important enough to diminish the substantial value of the narrative. What might be lost in fulness of historical detail is more than made up in the lively and vigorous presentation of the Marshal's own personality. He stands vividly before us for what he was—a brave, honest, and blunt man, half Scotch and half French, whose military eminence was fairly won and honorably used.

Such memoirs, when honestly written, have an authority which is unique. Every student of history is conscious, from time to time, of an overpowering wish to interrogate the actors in great events. Their character, their bearing and manner, their freedom of disclosure, and their reticences, all are full of meaning. It is perhaps unnecessary to make the qualification that such memoirs should be honestly written, if the material be abundant enough and the witnesses sufficiently numerous. No writer ever attempted more deliberately to construct history in his own interest than Napoleon; but the story dictated at Saint Helena has its perversions of the truth exposed by the overwhelming mass of the Emperor's current correspondence, and the sinister light thrown upon his character as a ruler makes the self-exposure one of the most important helps to the truth.

It is not long since the rules of our courts of justice excluded all interested parties from being witnesses; but a short experience has taught us that, for the purposes of discovering the truth, the cross-examination of the contestants themselves is worth more than a cloud of other witnesses. An analogous conclusion holds good in history, and nothing helps more to turn the lay figures of a formal historical drawing into living and comprehensible men than to set them to talking. Their memories will, of course, differ as to minor matters of detail, but it will not be hard to discover who is most trustworthy or who is seeking to give a false gloss to the facts.

This is well illustrated in comparing the story Macdonald tells of his escape across the Elster after the rout at Leipzig, with that of Marbot. Macdonald's command was the last to leave the lines in front of the town, and, when he reached the bridge, it had already been blown up and the mob of fugitives was crowding into the stream to meet death in another form. The Marshal succeeded in getting out of the confusion on one side, and some distance from the bridge he found that two trees had been felled on the bank of the stream, side by side, and by laying shutters and doors on the trunks a swaying bridge had been made, over which some were escaping across the narrow stream. The trees separated and the flooring fell. Macdonald dismounted and clambered across the trunks; but, as he neared the other side, the shaking caused by others who were following him, threw him into the water. He could, however, reach the bottom, and waded out, dripping and muddy. One of his grooms had stripped and swum across, bringing to him a wallet and papers which he had left with his cloak on the other side. He says that Marmont furnished him with a horse, and the naked soldier walked beside him towards Markranstädt, where the Emperor was. Marbot was in command of a brigade of cavalry which sought to hold back the Allies and cover the escape of the French fugitives, and was witness to part, at least, of the scene. He saw the naked man, but supposed it was Macdonald, and that he had stripped and swum the stream. He says that he sent a led horse of his own to the Marshal. Both accounts have only just become known, and were, of course, written each in complete ignorance of what the other said. Marbot was most likely to be mistaken as to the Marshal's stripping to swim the river, where Macdonald's statement is conclusive; but we can understand how the former, busy with his own combat and seeing a group in which stood a naked man, would be honestly misled. As to the loan of the horse, Marbot, to whom it belonged, is the stronger witness, and the Marshal most likely to be mistaken. Thus the minor differences are such as would naturally arise, and the concurrence in the more important facts establishes these beyond dispute.

A similar analysis makes Macdonald's testimony of decisive importance in relieving Marmont from the charge of traitorous conduct at the fall of Paris in 1814. Napoleon, on his return from Elba, justified his invasion of France by the assertion that his abdication would not have occurred except for what he called Marmont's treason. Macdonald's circumstantial statement shows that Napoleon consented at Fontainebleau to abdicate on the representations of his generals (not including Marmont) that further contest was useless. Macdonald, Ney, and Coulaincourt were made commissioners to treat, on the part of the army, for the best terms which could be obtained. On their way to Paris they passed Marmont's camp and informed him of their mission. He had fallen into the error of entertaining negotiations for separate terms for his own command, but accompanied them to Paris, and notified the allied sovereigns that he should make solid cause with the others, and this was acceded to. In his absence, and contrary to his orders, his subordinates marched the troops within the allied lines, the occasion for it being some peremptory orders of Napoleon's that they should march to Fontainebleau. This seemed to indicate the withdrawal of the abdication and a new appeal to arms, and Marmont's generals of divisions cut the knot by marching in the other direction. Macdonald describes Marmont's dismay when first learning how grave a mistake he had made, his appeal to Prince Schwarzenberg to place him again in the same situation as the rest, his manifest joy when this was done, and his grief and wrath when he learned that his subordinates had prematurely surrendered. Marmont's own memoirs have long been before the world, and have been supported by sufficient corroboration to make the scale turn in his favor; but the circumstantial narrative of Macdonald, an impartial and honorable witness, must be held to be conclusive of the controversy.

The Marshal's account of the Hundred Days is as thrilling as anything can be. He points out the faults which had produced a general reaction against the Bourbons, so that the army, at least, was ready to desert them when Napoleon landed at Fréjus. He accompanied the King's brother to Lyons, and tells how the troops passed from apathy to sullenness, and then to open revolt as Napoleon drew near. It was with difficulty that Monseigneur got away, and only extraordinary vigor and shrewdness saved Macdonald from being carried to Napoleon as a prisoner. His return to Paris was full of adventure, and he gives a vivid picture of the change in the garrison and in public sentiment as Napoleon drew near. Finally the King fled to the frontier almost alone, and Macdonald, leaving him, then returned to Paris, but refused to join Napoleon, and shut himself up in his own house. Marshal Davout, Minister of War, forced himself into the apartment and begged Macdonald to declare for the Emperor, but he answered that the new revolution was contrary to the interests of France, and refused to have anything to do with it. He was able to give Davout the first news of the outlawry of Napoleon by the Congress of Vienna, and of the renewal of the European alliance against him. Davout in substance acknowledged that this made the situation desperate, as the Emperor had hoped that Austria would prevent it. We are made to feel the suspense before the battle of Waterloo, and the dismay which seized upon all true Frenchmen when France was more prostrate than ever before the allied invaders. The brilliant insanity of Napoleon's last stroke, its selfish disregard of the true interests of the country, and the utter ruin it brought to the army and the military chiefs who had made it possible, are told as only one could tell who kept his head cool in the midst of it all, and who had a high enough standard of personal honor and duty to keep him from catching the unthinking enthusiasm of his comrades. Macdonald mourned over the folly which threw away reform for revolution, making absolute Bourbonism possible for the next fifteen years; and we are helped to understand how the revolutions of 1830, of 1848, and of 1852 became not only possible but inevitable.

If the passages we have referred to have the greater general interest, it is not because others are lacking in it. The opening sketch of military service during the Terror, though a mere outline, is full of instruction; so is the Italian campaign of 1797, that of 1809, and the field of Wagram. Macdonald perhaps slurs a little

his defeat at the Katzbach in 1813, but still he shows enough of the effects of storm and flood, of misunderstanding of orders, and of official insubordination under any but Napoleon's own hand, to make it evident that it was not for lack of capacity to handle an independent army that he suffered that reverse.

The book is sure of a high place in military history, and the lovers of that department of literature will only wish there were more of it. The English version is in excellent form, beautifully printed, and illustrated with copperplate engravings from paintings by Charpentier, Horace Vernet, Girardet, and others. The frontispiece is a photogravure after David's portrait of the Marshal. The translation is satisfactory, though a few slips are noticeable. In the synopsis at the head of chapter iii. of the second volume, "Naples" is printed for Tilsit. On page 264 of the same volume the French "brigadier" is rendered by the same word in English, which is erroneous and misleading, as the *brigadier* in a French cavalry regiment is a non-commissioned officer of the rank of a corporal of infantry.

Germanic Origins: A Study in Primitive Culture. By Francis B. Gummere. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892. Pp. 490.

It was time to summarize for English-speakers the facts and theories up to date concerning the civilization, home, religion, the social and physical status of the early Germanic tribes. The general public, and even the scholar, will be grateful for such a work. It requires a man of broad sympathies—we are thinking of the narrow spirit shown by Germans and Frenchmen when they try to determine the original Aryan type—and of very wide learning in philology, ethnology, and archæology. The scope of this book is somewhat narrower than the primer or résumé we have in mind. The author aims to give an account of the founders of "the great English-speaking race while they held their old home, their old faith, their old customs." His use of the word "race" shows well his position as to ethnology, which should go hand in hand with philology. He scorns the "witness of the skull"; for him there is only the "witness of speech," as the late Prof. Freeman expressed himself. Putting the primitive Aryan and Teuton on a level with other savages is, in his eyes, an abomination. He calls it the *Interpretatio Africana.* In the chapter "Men and Women" our ancestor, clad in skins and a bit of linen, and living in the forest, is a "huge, keen-eyed, florid, yellow-haired person, impetuous, melancholy, cruel, passionate, fitful, with dreams of conquest, with longings dull and indefinite, with a contempt for civilization, and an eagerness to touch and keep some of its nobler elements." This is "rhetoric" of the sort of which Prof. Gummere frequently and justly complains in his sources, for instance in Sidonius Apollinaris and in Tacitus. From a sober, scientific point of view there is no English-speaking race at all. English is spoken by different races which are grouped politically in separate nations. The above beautiful portrait is that of a man who, in the later chapters on "Worship of the Dead," "The Funeral," "Form and Ceremony," is depicted as given to ancestral worship, guilty of sacrificing wife, friend, child, and slave. The father exposed his children. The old and feeble were killed or exposed. Again, we are told how our ancestor drank mead excessively, mixed blood and honey, and sipped this beverage from the skull of friend or foe; how he wooed and won the fair without really being in love—just like any other savage, forsooth. The only concession Prof. Gummere makes to the demands of ethnology is the admission of ancestral worship. But he prefers to assume a separate origin for the worship of Nature, though "doubtless much of this worship once belonged to ancestors, but it soon ceased to be regarded as such. From the start man must have felt that the water, or the cloud, or the cave had a population not entirely dependent on emigration from the living world of men: he must have recognized at the outset a *natura naturans.*" This view is a remnant of the antiquated mythology of Simrock, Grimm, and Max Müller.

In the chapter on "Land and People" the author clings to the old tradition that the home of the Aryan "race" was in Asia. Is it not time to throw this notion overboard? It is not settled where in Europe it was, but a non-Asiatic home of the Aryans is all but a certainty. Müllenhoff thinks that the Germans considered themselves autochthonous. Why not treat them as such for the purposes of this book? If Prof. Gummere was not willing to do that, he might have briefly given the reasons for and against, or referred the layman to Taylor's 'Origin of the Aryans,' or Rendall's 'Cradle of the Aryans,' two books that treat scientific facts and speculations without rhetoric, yet popularly and clearly.

The sources consulted in the making of the book our author gives in foot-notes and partly in the introduction. He has at his disposal all the necessary material, from the last section of Paul's 'Grundriss' back to Pytheas. The main sources of our knowledge of the primitive German are three: (1) the contemporary classical writers, *e. g.*, the 'Germania' of Tacitus; (2) early Germanic literature, *e. g.*, 'Beowulf'; (3) survivals, *e. g.*, the church festival of All Souls. Prof. Gummere lays a great deal of stress on 'Beowulf,' which is pardonable in a professor of English. He himself calls a very long extract from it in the chapter on the Germanic home "somewhat tedious." The translations from 'Beowulf' and German poetry are made by himself, and they are excellent.

The book is well written. It is bright and interesting, even brilliant in places. There runs through it a vein of enthusiasm and good humor, a mine of first-hand quotations and anecdotes, that will attract and amuse the general reader.

The Art of Entertaining. By M. E. W. Sherwood. Dodd, Mead & Co.

What To Do. By Mrs. Oliver Bell Bunce. D. Appleton & Co.

If we are to take without sceptical reservation the word of the Scriptures that in the multitude of counsellors there is wisdom, who is there who should be so wise as that much-counselled representative of her sex's beneficent activities, the young housekeeper? It is professedly in behoof of this typical and interesting personage that the last portly addition to the "Portia Series" delivers its precepts at "full-throated ease." Several reasons, however, suggest themselves why the young housekeeper should hesitate for a while before committing herself irretrievably to a perusal of these thirty-seven chapters and a preface.

It is to be feared, in the first place, that unless she have an unusual devotion to the tenth commandment, she will find it difficult to preserve a due respect for the decalogue while she reads all about the table-cloths of duchesse lace, the cups of Russian gold filagree for cordials, and the "splendid bouquets" at those ladies' lunches that cost a thousand dollars, without counting "the cost of the china, the glass, porcelain, cloisonné, Dresden, Sèvres and silver, which make the table a picture"; or about the delightful doings, so intimately described, of those "many opulent people" who keep thirty servants and live "with much of European elegance"; or about the menus and the functions in those sublimated spheres, "our best country houses." Unless, indeed, she be a very angelic, or else herself an "opulent" young housekeeper, it is even conceivable that, in view of the state of her wardrobe, she may not find it conducive to a virtuous frame of mind to be assured that, whether high in the neck or low in the neck, "the dinner dress must be handsome."

Another and different sort of difficulty that the young housekeeper will have to encounter in these pages is that of keeping the thread of the discourse. If she be of very strong mental texture, it may not rend the serenity of her mind to be called on, when she seems to be just on the point of getting at information that will be of practical usefulness in her own modest station in life, to learn that "the royalties, all blessed with good appetites, eat eggs on toast, hot scones, and other good things at five o'clock tea, and take often an *avant goût* also at seven." In fact, we will venture to assert that more is to be learned from this book about the appetites of "the royalties," past and present, than from any other book of its size and scope in existence. If the young housekeeper is anxious to increase her knowledge in this direction, or to remember, in case of a possible emergency, that it might be a compliment to Mr. Stanley, by way of contrast to the Dark Continent, "to ornament the ball-room with Arctic boulders, around which should be hung the tropical flowers and vines of Africa," it would be well for her to put away 'The Art of Entertaining' for future reference. Otherwise, she may safely let it go where Mr. Henry James says the bad novels go—"to some unvisited limbo, or infinite rubbish-yard, beneath the back windows of the world."

'What To Do' is not a plethoric volume. It is, on the contrary, a thin compilation of seventy small 18mo pages, whose contents are suggestive of exceeding thinness of individuality on the part of those who would be likely to claim their services. Not that we do not hold, with rustic *Audrey*, that it is "no dishonest desire to desire to be a woman of the world." The wish to have the best manners is only second to the wish to have the best feelings, which they should express. Unfortunately, however, these things are not to be come at by dipping into pocket manuals of etiquette. What innate dignity, good feeling, common sense, and observation cannot teach the "plain" man and woman, must be left to time and association. Better an honest admission of ignorance of social forms than the regulations of a *Touchstone* who admonishes gentlemen to stay in their rooms in bath-robes and slippers, and ladies not to eat sweets or rattle their programmes in a theatre.

The Life of Charles Sumner: The Scholar in Politics. By Archibald H. Grimké. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 1892.

Charles Sumner. By Anna Laurens Dawes. [Makers of America.] Dodd, Mead & Co. 1892.

To say our ill things first: Mr. Grimké's book

has been printed with extreme carelessness, as if the publishers had no conscience for the niceties of the printer's art. There are fewer typographical mistakes than in Mr. Grimké's 'Garrison,' in the same series, but we have counted them by scores, and the misspellings and grammatical errors for which the author must be held responsible are many. The book is written in an easy, flowing style that tends to diffuseness and to a vivid rhetoric which is sometimes of doubtful taste, as where we read of Sumner's "mastiff glare and spring," and, in the same sentence, of "his powerful lance." There is a great paucity of dates, with too little definite statement and too much moralizing by the way. The book is not well proportioned: 161 pages are devoted to Sumner's early life before he entered the political field, and only forty pages to the eleven years of active service following emancipation. But this is readily accounted for by the fact that only the first two volumes of Mr. Pierce's unfinished biography were available to Mr. Grimké.

His book is written in terms of hearty admiration. There is more discrimination in the body of it than in the preface, where we are told that "Garrison more than any other man embodied the moral forces of the conflict," while "Sumner was the impersonation of the political movement against the giant evil of the country." But what Sumner really stood for was the moral element in politics, for a hatred of slavery and all caste distinctions not inferior to that of the abolitionists who were his earliest anti-slavery teachers. There was never perfect sympathy between him and the politicians of his party. His interpretation of the Constitution was not that of Garrison, but "Freedom national, slavery sectional." Which was the more accurate need not be considered here, though it might have been in Mr. Grimké's book without impropriety. It was, however, obviously a piece of good fortune that a man of Sumner's force and character could accept the interpretation that allowed slavery no national existence, and make that interpretation the rallying-cry of a political party. But it is noteworthy that his political attitude did not preclude his sympathy with the attitude and agitation that were wholly moral.

Sumner's interpretation of the Constitution in regard to slavery was only a part of his general exaggeration of the national as opposed to the federal aspect of the Government and the rights of individual States. No Republican inherited more largely the centralizing national tradition of the Federalists and Whigs. Mr. Grimké brings out this fact clearly and furnishes it with many illustrations. Those who are interested in coincidences will be glad to read that Sumner sailed for Europe, where his travels were to be wide and his personal connections of the happiest, on the very day (December 8, 1837) on which Wendell Phillips made his great speech against the Lovejoy murder. Mr. Grimké gives a full account of the circumstances of Brooks's assault on Sumner. If Sumner's sense of humor had been greater, he would have wondered at it less, for more exasperating language he could not have used. In the same debate, disclaiming personalities, and insisting that they could not be allowed, he compared Mr. Douglas to a "noisome, squat, and nameless animal," emitting "the perpetual stench of offensive personality."

Miss Dawes's book presents more points of contrast than resemblance with Mr. Grimké's. It is strong where that is weak, and weak where that is strong. It is a much more intellectual book, and a great deal more careful study has gone to its preparation. It gives us much more information, and its information is much more explicit and exact. This is true of Sumner's private life as well as of his public career. The man is made much more real to us, Miss Dawes having had the advantage of her father's acquaintance with Sumner, and perhaps some recollections of her own. Mr. Pierce's two volumes have lain lighter on her spirit than on Mr. Grimké's. Allowing 43 pages to Sumner's life before 1845 and 140 to the years after 1863, she has reversed Mr. Grimké's emphasis and shown her wisdom in so doing. She has written the more masculine book of the two, except, possibly, that she tends to gossip as her rival never does. But she is lacking in the genuine sympathy with her subject which Mr. Grimké has and manifests on every page. The biography that she has written is essentially a work of filial piety. The name of Senator Dawes is mentioned only twice according to the index—once more in fact—while the veiled allusions to him are numerous. But he is visible everywhere between the lines; and to prove that Sumner was not a bigger man, or so very much bigger, is a purpose that is never lost sight of. The effect of this is painful on the reader's mind. He feels that Miss Dawes is writing Sumner down as much as possible. Compelled by his character and his performance to express her admiration, every time she does so the reader finds himself saying, "Now for the depreciation"; and it almost never fails to come. If any trait is exceptionally fine, as, for example, his response to Channing's spiritual genius, she speaks of it as "a side of Mr. Sumner's nature not altogether natural to him." She does not damn him with faint praise, nor hesitate to express her dislike, but she is always hinting faults; the slur and innuendo following her spasms of generosity as inevitably as the night the day. There are several things introduced as rumors which should not have been introduced at all, or without distinct authority. The unkindest cut of all is where Miss Dawes extends a gracious possibility to things she cannot rationally believe, as, for example, that Sumner favored Chase's elevation to the Supreme Court to get rid of him as a rival aspirant to the Presidency. It is a pity that a book into which much faithful work has gone should have these disfigurements. It abounds in admirable matter and in nice discrimination.

The Life and Letters of Samuel Palmer, Painter and Etcher. Written and edited by A. H. Palmer. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

It would scarcely be too strong an expression to say that the name of Samuel Palmer is absolutely unknown in this country; and even in England, his native land, his reputation is not much more widely spread. Yet he was an artist worth knowing about, and his son has done well to put on record the story of his career. A much briefer account would have answered all purposes, however, and would, at the same time, one cannot help feeling, have been far more effective in bringing this obscure though interesting artist to the notice of an indifferent and ignoring world. Few persons will care to plod through the 170 pages of memoir, and fewer still the 230 additional pages of letters, in all of which, from beginning to end, there is not a single episode or event of the slightest interest to any one beyond the artist's own family circle or associates. The interest of the life lies in its singleness of purpose, and in the nobility of endeavor to realize ideals maintained uninterruptedly through long years under almost continuous disappointment and failure.

Early in life Samuel Palmer became the intimate friend of William Blake, and the quality of his mind seems much like that of Blake. He had the exalted poetic imagination, and uncompromising fidelity to his own visions, erratic though they might be, if not in the same degree as had Blake, yet of the same kind. But his character was far less rugged and manly. There is much of religion mingled with his art; and the fact that although his ancestors and connections were all the strongest sort of Dissenters (Baptists), while he himself early became an uncompromising Churchman, may serve to throw some light upon the nature of his mind. The things of the Church, old cathedrals, old ceremonials, and all the mediæval life had strong hold upon him. As his biographer says, he approached his work in the spirit of a mediæval monk—as Fra Angelico might have done.

Samuel Palmer tried all his life to paint in oils, but without success; it is as a painter of water colors, and more especially as a teacher in that branch, that his accomplishment lay. His etching was confined to about a dozen plates, which have a considerable reputation. They manifest much knowledge of nature, much power and delicacy of drawing; but, with the exception of the early Shoreham drawings, greatly influenced by Blake, they seem to have been chosen for their adaptability to reproduction, and hardly suggest the intense poetic idealism for which their author is praised. Neither, of course, do they convey any idea of the force and splendor of color which is said to be characteristic of Palmer. Scattered throughout the memoir are many striking passages from his voluminous memorandum books and letters. They show great insight into his craft, for which he maintained to the last a passionate devotion. There are also many incisive criticisms on literary and artistic matters. Not a few of the notes, however, require some acquaintance with Palmer's works in order to be profitable. For example, in this passage—"A mass of shade in centre, with one side hard and the other soft [sketches] as my *Morning of Life;* but in this kind where the clash is between distance and sky, dark must be somewhere else; and, I think, best organized thus [sketch]"—the absence of the illustrative sketches makes the note perfectly unintelligible. The letters, which fill more than half the book, although written in an attractive and original fashion, might well have been much condensed, particularly as many passages which they contain have previously done duty in the memoir.

Imperial Defence. By the Rt. Hon. Sir Charles W. Dilke, Bart., and Spenser Wilkinson. Macmillan & Co. 16mo, pp. 234.

The collaboration of authors in this little book is such as gives the whole a very high authority as a discussion of the question of the vulnerability of the British Empire. Sir Charles Dilke has made the problems of "Greater Britain" peculiarly his own, and, by repeated personal visits and investigations, has made himself preëminent among living English statesmen for an intimate knowledge of all the British colonies. He has shown also an aptitude for comprehending the elements of the larger military questions which grow out of the vast extent of the British possessions.

Capt. Wilkinson has an established reputation for mastery of the theory of army organization. The result is a discussion of the relation of Great Britain to future possible wars which must command the attention of both statesmen and soldiers, and which will be profitable reading for everybody interested in public affairs.

The Afghan frontier of India is taken as the probable theatre of land operations in the next struggle to maintain the Empire, and a topographical and strategic study is made of it at once succinct and clear. The maps are compiled from the latest and best authorities, and make the complicated features of the great divide between the Indus and the Oxus easily understood. Now, as in former generations, the "wooden walls" are regarded as the necessary bulwark of England's safety, not only in her island home, but in her empire which is bathed by every sea in the four quarters of the globe. To keep the navy decisively superior to any combined fleets which might be arrayed against her, is the prime necessity. A better and more independent organization of the army in India is the second.

The relations with Russia are discussed calmly, the conclusion being that, in any European disturbance in the near future, the natural attractions and antagonisms are likely to place Russia and France in opposition to England and the central European kingdoms. As between England and any single Power, Russia is most likely to prove an opponent because the rival interests in the far East are those most likely to provoke collision. The problem is considered from this point of view, aided by all reliable data.

Animal Life and Intelligence. By C. Lloyd Morgan, F.G.S. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1891. 8vo, pp. xvi, 512, illustrated.

By means of this book Prof. Morgan is exerting a considerable influence for good on naturalists of the present generation. In the theoretical and the problematical he is one of the safest guides among modern European writers, and in the main his teachings are of the soundest, scientifically and philosophically. He is a conservative evolutionist, not exactly of the American type, so called, but rather of the true Darwinian. More liberal than the latter, he yet favors selection too much, and effort and reaction, as resulting in hereditary tendencies of greater or less diffusion, too little for the former. Rather than credit selection with the effects not proved to belong to some other factor, the American goes so far as to demand evidence of the supposed struggles for existence, and proof that competition and elimination, instead of simple divergences through use and disuse, have produced the differentiation of particular species. To concede, as Prof. Morgan does of the individuals, that 90 per cent. or more of the species may have been lost through fortuitous agencies, would reduce the extravagant estimates of selection that have prevailed, though not quite enough for those who desire proof that instances in which selection has been the one great factor have not themselves been fortuitous.

Prof. Morgan's position is not open to the objections urged against that of the neo-Darwinians. The three evolutionary agents on which he most relies are (1) elimination through natural selection, (2) selection through preferential mating, and (3) the inheritance of individually acquired modifications. These will sufficiently indicate the lines along which he traces the development of organs and faculties. It was his purpose to deal with animal intelligence. As an indispensable foundation he makes a study of life and its evolution. With the greater portion of this matter we are already somewhat familiar, but not in such a clear and powerful presentation. Necessarily his work involves consideration of prominent theories of origin, and the strength of the author is especially manifest in his critical analyses of their claims for recognition. Their inconsistencies are put forward in such light as will not permit them to be ignored. Of Weismann's germ plasm he says it is an unknowable, invisible, hypothetical entity, which by a little skilful manipulation may be made to account for anything and everything; a myth or mystery of no practical value, and of a character against which biological science should set its face. He points out the impossibility of excluding the possibility of direct action on the germ. In his discussion of Darwin's pangenesis, with its gemmules and unlimited supposabilities in explanations, he asks whether an honest confession of ignorance is not a more satisfactory position. The inability of the advocates of the absolute sway of natural selection to give an adequate answer to the question, "How are particular variations (as in the twisted skull of the flat fish) produced?" also receives attention. Protoplasmic unity and cellular continuity are Morgan's points of departure.

From the consideration of the nature and origin of life and the factors and methods of organic evolution he passes to the senses of animals, mental processes in men and in animals, appetence and emotion, habit and instinct, and finally to mental evolution. The assumptions concerning body and mind which in his opinion yield the most consistent and harmonious results are those of the monistic hypothesis, which assumes the molecular changes of brain activity (neuroses) and the concomitant consciousness (psychosis) to be identical. This is preferred to the materialistic theory that psychosis is a product of neurosis, and to the spiritualistic hypothesis of the existence of conscious beings independent of matter. Neurosis and psychosis are identical, the former being the outer or objective aspect, the latter the inner or subjective. The neuroses have been evolved, through simpler modes of molecular action, from others too simple to be called neuroses, and the psychoses through simpler psychoses from something far back that answers to the subjective side of motion. "Every mode of kinesis has its concomitant mode of metakinesis, and when the kinetic manifestations assume the form of the molecular processes in the human brain [neuroses], the metakinetic manifestations assume the form of human consciousness [psychosis]. . . . Every kinesis has an associated metakinesis, and parallel to the evolution of organic and neural kinesis there has been an evolution of metakinetic manifestations culminating in conscious thought." By making it the metakinetic concomitant of a highly specialized form of kinesis, Prof. Morgan avoids committing himself to the admission either that consciousness is a property of all matter, or that it is something independent of matter. Phenomena are states of consciousness, and cannot for percipients be anything else, but he adds that they have a kinetic aspect; and this, with the initial assumption of a noumenal system of "things in themselves," enables him to avoid idealism.

From the assumed identity of neuroses and psychoses it follows that the history of the development of the mind is practically that of the brain. And as the generic difference between the mind of the brute and that of the man lies in the latter's power of analysis, it again follows that the history of the evolution of the human mind is that of the brain of the animal, plus that of the facilities for abstract thinking. In the case of the lower animal, and of the practical activities of the man, the development is said to be subject to the law of natural selection; but, besides inheritance of individually acquired faculty, a new law, that of elimination through incongruity, is put forward to account for mental evolution when the neural processes become capable of originating metakinetic hypotheses, theories, interpretations of nature, moral ideas, and religious conceptions. Incongruity here means little else than uselessness, and American thinkers will account for the evolution of the higher phases, as of the lower, by aid of the laws of use and disuse and of heredity, with less assistance from selection than is invoked by our author in either case.

Space will not permit us to give an adequate idea of the depth of the author's researches, the cogency of his arguments, or the attractiveness of his style. We can but add that there are few works on the subject so deserving the attention of our students.

The Evolution of Christianity. By Lyman Abbott. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

This book attempts "to restate the eternal yet ever new truths of the religious life in the terms of modern philosophic thought." This is done in the hope that Christian faith may be made thereby "more rational and credible." But Dr. Abbott, as is well known, repudiates a good part of historic and current Christian theology, and hence the reconciliation of his personal religious beliefs with the evolutionary philosophy may leave the faith of the generality untouched. On the scientific side, on the other hand, he confesses himself a "non-expert." There must necessarily, therefore, remain much doubt of the authority of his exposition of the faith of the historic church or of the implications of evolution—much more of his right to declare the two identical.

But there can be no doubt of the ability and attractiveness of these lectures, nor of the fact that they represent the direction in which a great many thoughtful Christians are moving. We can well believe that the positions which Dr. Abbott here assumes will be welcomed, as he hopes they will be, by not a few as a way out of their mental perplexities. The question arises, however, whether every such successive "reconciliation" of Christianity with science or philosophy does not by so much break down the distinctively supernatural claims of the former. What becomes of the independent and sufficient sanctions of a system of religious thought that is ductile under the pressure of each new prevalent form of philosophic speculation? How much more permanent can an evolutionary Christianity be expected to be than a Christianity run into the moulds of Greek philosophy? Martineau has acutely observed of Butler's 'Analogy' that, while admirable as an argument to close the mouths of the Deists, it was really in direct opposition to the accepted view of Christianity as something quite apart from and superior to nature. That Dr. Abbott can save "the eternal truths of the religious life" in an evolutionary philosophy is undoubtedly true; they could be saved under any philosophy which did not blink the facts of human nature. Whether he

has given new strength to a particular way of conceiving of those truths by hitching it to the doctrine of evolution, is another matter.

A Course of Experiments in Physical Measurements. Part IV. By Harold Whiting. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Two parts of Dr. Whiting's work have already been noticed in this journal. The part before us consists of an appendix for the use of teachers, and, from its point of view, is one of the most elaborate works which have been published. The author begins by stating in sufficient detail the necessities of a physical laboratory, as regards the building and its permanent furniture, position, exposure, and mode of heating. Two plans are given, one of which is, we believe, substantially identical with one in the upper story of the Jefferson Physical Laboratory at Cambridge, which has been found to be extremely well adapted to its purpose. A long list of apparatus follows, general descriptions being given in many cases, as well as prices of instruments sufficient at least for purposes of instruction. The third appendix, or chapter, treats of the subject of expenses, and Dr. Whiting gives his estimate of the total cost of the apparatus described in his list as from $300 to $500. This chapter contains a good deal of detail of great value to instructors and based upon much experience. The subject of instruction comes next, and here we find sound practical advice as to what may be called the detail of teaching, the proper mode of keeping systematic note-books containing a full account of the experiments made and also of the calculations involved. In appendix v, we have a very large number of experiments and calculations taken from actually reported students' work, and giving a better idea of the kind and grade of Dr. Whiting's teaching than could be gained from many pages of mere description. Appendixes vi, vii, and viii contain lists of experiments intended to cover the ground required for admission to Harvard College under different conditions. The remaining chapters are chiefly mathematical and do not require special notice here. The subject of the probability of errors is treated at length and very clearly. Dr. Whiting's work cannot fail of a cordial reception among students as well as among teachers. It is very gratifying to those who were educated by the old system of ex-cathedrâ lectures to mark the progress of modern methods of instruction.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barrie, J. M. My Lady Nicotine. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Beecher, H. W. A Book of Prayer. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 75 cents.
Bradford, Rev. A. H. Old Wine: New Bottles. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 35 cents.
Carpenter, Mary T. A Girl's Winter in India. Randolph. $1.50.
Century Magazine. Nov., 1891—April, 1892. The Century Co.
Clark, Imogen. Small Helps for To-day. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Dejob, Charles. L'Instruction Publique en France et en Italie. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Deschamps, Gaston. La Grèce d'aujourd'hui. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

JUNE
EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

ARTICLES.—The Educational Policy of the Stanford University, David S. Jordan; The Teaching of Geography, II., William M. Davis; Values in the Education of the Deaf, Edward M. Gallaudet; Notes on Educational Method, Harry K. Wolfe; Public School Pioneering: A Reply, George H. Martin; Compulsory Education in the United States, II., William B. Shaw; Results under an Elective System, I., Richard G. Boone.
DISCUSSIONS.—College Entrance Requirements in English, James E. Russell; Higher Education in Arkansas, A. C. Millar.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 16, 1892.

The Week.

THE selection of Major McKinley for permanent Chairman of the Minneapolis Convention was altogether fitting. He represents the policy that led the party to the direst disaster in its history. It was McKinley and Reed to whom Senator Ingalls referred in his dying agonies on the 5th of February, 1891, in these words:

> "Those leaders who have conducted the most powerful political organization in American history to the most stupendous and overwhelming disaster recorded in its annals, should be able to forgive those who doubt the infallibility of their judgment. If they are wise, they will be less proscriptive and more tolerant of differences of opinion, especially among those whose devotion to human liberty cannot be questioned, and whose constancy and fortitude have been exposed to tests as severe at least as any they have ever known."

A man whose chief distinction it is that he was the instrument selected by the protected classes to work out the most exorbitant piece of tariff robbery the country ever experienced, and by the same token caused a change of 172 seats in Congress against his party, might be fitly chosen to preside over the Convention, if the party had not yet recovered its senses from that concussion. What McKinley said upon taking the chair was commonplace in the extreme, and has been repeated by him a hundred times. "We propose to raise our money for public expenses," he said, "by taxing the products of other nations rather than by taxing the products of our own." Why, then, was the duty on raw sugar repealed? That is the product of other nations. We received fifty millions of revenue from those sugar-producing countries, according to the McKinley idea, by taxing their products. The Treasury is sadly in want of that revenue at this time. There will be abundant opportunity between now and November for McKinley and others to explain why they thus exempted foreigners from a tax of fifty millions which the said foreigners had been paying for many years without the slightest complaint.

The most humorous feature of the Minneapolis Convention was the spectacle of "glorious Tom Reed" booming himself for the nomination. The ex-Speaker conceived the idea that he was the ideal candidate for his party some time ago, and for weeks past he has been buttonholing every Republican from any part of the country whom he could get hold of, and begging his support. As the movement for his nomination did not appear to be making much headway, and threatened to disappear entirely unless carefully looked after, he concluded to go to Minneapolis—although not a delegate to the Convention—and manage it himself. The personnel of this Convention was the poorest ever seen in a national gathering of the Republican party, and Mr. Reed was, perhaps, warranted in thinking that it would disregard the indecency of such a performance. The result, however, was such as to remind him how small a person he is away from the scene of his arbitrary career as Speaker of the House.

Considered as "practical politicians' (for they all claim that title as their highest distinction), Messrs. Quay, Platt, and Clarkson return from Minneapolis in a very sorry plight. They formed a "combine" for the openly avowed purpose of "knocking out' the President because he had not given them as much patronage as they thought they deserved. They declared to the whole United States, several times a day for a month, that they had come to the conclusion that the President should not be renominated, since they did not consider him "available." After searching about for a candidate for some time, they finally concentrated on Blaine and began their campaign for his nomination. Anything more childish than this campaign proved to be has never been witnessed in this country. The members of the "combine" announced, two weeks in advance of the Convention, that they were going to stampede it for Blaine. Then they went to work, not merely to defeat the President, but to attack his record in office, and to assail that of his associates in the Cabinet and his leading supporters everywhere. Then they induced Mr. Blaine to resign from the Cabinet in the very manner and at the very time best calculated to injure their own cause and create sympathy for the President. Then, when they reached the Convention city, they continued their brass-band tactics daily by announcing in advance every move that they intended to make. Finally, when their bogus Blaine boom collapsed, they announced, again in advance, that they were going to concentrate on McKinley and stampede the Convention for him.

The Republican platform is not received with much heartiness by Republican newspapers. There is nothing inspiring about the Force-Bill and McKinley-Law planks, while the silver plank is characterized by the Philadelphia *Ledger* as "a most unwise, timid, evasive one." As to this question the *Ledger* declares that it was "most essential that the Republican party should place itself squarely upon record concerning it," whereas what it has done is to "hang out a two-sided shield—the one, facing North and East, of gold; the other, facing South and West, of silver." The weakness of the plank is shown by the fact that it is hailed with delight by the free-coinage men in the party. Senator Teller of Colorado says that "it is the most complete declaration in favor of the use of silver as money that has yet been found in any platform since the question has been one to be considered in national politics"; and further that "it is an outspoken declaration in favor of the double standard as against the gold standard, and will result in the ultimate use of silver on terms of perfect equality as to mintage and legal-tender functions with gold."

As regards the Force Bill issue, what the platform says will hurt rather than help the party in the North, while it will weaken it in the South. Every intelligent man knows that the Force Bill is dead, and that even the perfunctory reference to the subject in the platform really signifies nothing. The more progressive element rejoiced over the defeat of the measure in a Republican Senate last year, and resent even the intimation that an attempt will be made to revive it. On the other hand, the mere intimation will suffice to keep the South solid against the Republican party. The whites of the South know that, if Harrison is reëlected and a Republican Congress with him, an attempt at least will be made to pass a law every whit as obnoxious as the one pushed in the Fifty-first Congress. The threat is of itself enough to remove the last chance that the Republicans will carry any Southern State this year.

It is already apparent that a leading Republican argument in the coming campaign will be an appeal to those who want the tariff let alone, not because they like it, but because they have now adjusted their business to it and would prefer no further unsettling. The McKinley Bill may be mischievous in many particulars, so runs the argument, but business men now want no further agitation of the question, and should vote for President Harrison because they know that no tariff changes could be made during his term of office. The history of the last twelve years shows that this is but a crying of peace when there is no peace. All the tariff changes that have been made in that time have been made by Republicans, and have been made just after their loudest shrieks against the wickedness of the Democrats in proposing to meddle with the tariff and disturb the business community. Garfield was elected in 1880 largely on the strength of the "business men's campaign," which was based upon the tariff scare, and the new tariff of 1883 came along just the same. The election of 1888 was for ever to put an end to inconsiderate tinkering with the tariff, but only led up to McKinley's monstrosities. The

Republican party has no power to guarantee tariff stability. McKinley himself is on record as saying that certain articles —binding-twine, for instance—need more protection than he was able to give them, and it is certain that if the Republicans come into power again, there will be a new rush for the tariff spoils. It will be remembered that the *Tribune* was promising no end of Republican tariff bills if the Force Bill were passed. Even in Republican hands the tariff has always been in a state of unstable equilibrium, and always will be. Moreover, no question can be permanently settled until it is settled right.

The general effect of the six Democratic State Conventions which chose delegates to the Chicago Convention last week—viz., Maine, Maryland, Mississippi, Montana, Texas, and Alabama—has been to strengthen the already practically certain prospect of Mr. Cleveland's nomination. While there have been no positive instructions for him, save possibly in Alabama, all the delegations of the other five States have a majority in his favor, and all of them have been elected on platforms warmly commending his Administration as President. There is very little left of the opposition to him now, and there is likely to be even less when the Convention meets. The only argument which is advanced by his opponents is the parrot cry, "He cannot carry New York." This is weakened badly by the fact that the opponents of Harrison in the Republican party are making the same objection to his candidacy. Each of the two great parties seems determined now to nominate a candidate who "cannot carry New York." Somebody must carry it, and, if the prophets of evil are to be trusted, the Prohibitionists would seem to be in the presence of the opportunity of their lives.

Public interest having been centred in the Minneapolis Convention during the last week, little notice has been taken of what occurred in Congress. A rather important vote was taken on Monday week on a bill introduced by Mr. Richardson of Tennessee to repeal the 10 per cent. tax on State-bank notes. The bill had not been referred to any committee, but Mr. Bacon, the Chairman of the Committee on Banking and Currency, said that a similar bill was now under consideration by his Committee. He begged that the House would not pass the bill until the Committee should have concluded its labors. Mr. Richardson advocated the measure in a brief and temperate speech, in which he said that its effect would be to give more relief from money stringency than the free coinage of silver, and that it would answer the wants of the farmers much better than the so-called sub-treasury scheme. Mr. Walker of Massachusetts opposed it on the ground that the bill was the product of only one mind, that it had been prepared in haste, and that the subject was too important to be disposed of in such a summary manner. Mr. Harter of Ohio supported it. He contended that inasmuch as State-bank notes would not be legal tender, they would not circulate unless they were actually good. Mr. Tracey of New York was in favor of the repeal of the discriminating tax, since it was, in his judgment, an invasion of the rightful domain of the States. The vote on the bill was 84 yeas to 116 nays. Sixty-four of the affirmative votes were from the South and twenty from the North. The Farmers' Alliance men from the South voted against the bill, believing that it would tend to weaken the sub-treasury scheme. Of the affirmative votes from the North, Illinois furnished four, New York three, Ohio two, California two, Minnesota two, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Montana, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Connecticut one each.

It will be remembered that in the case of Morris against Bulkeley for the Governorship of Connecticut, the Court sent it as well as the Phelan case back to the lower (Superior) Court for trial as to the facts. In its opinion last January the Court used these words:

"From the facts spread out in the information it appears not only that the election process has broken down, so that there is a failure to elect a Governor, but that all legislation has ceased. Owing to the difference between the branches of the Assembly, an entire collapse in the Legislative Department has ensued. . . . In these circumstances is it not possible that the Superior Court may make an investigation, and, on finding that the relator received a majority of all the votes lawfully cast for Governor on the 4th day of November, 1890—whatever the returns of the presiding officers may show—establish his title to that office by some judgment that shall be legally equivalent to the declaration which should have been made by the General Assembly? . . . By the defects in legislation already mentioned, the will of the people in this respect has failed to be accomplished. A very great wrong is being done to them. The relator claims to have received a majority of all the votes cast for Governor at said election. If his claim is correct, a great wrong is being done to him. He has come into court seeking to establish his right to that office and to obtain redress for that wrong."

Under this finding the complaint of Phelan, who had received 544 majority over all on the face of the returns, was duly amended, and started again in the lower court several months ago. It was met at every step by vexatious tactics of delay on the part of the Republican lawyers.

When at last, about a month ago, it reached its formal trial as to the facts, the task incurred was prodigious. Some 600 witnesses, a number unparalleled in a Connecticut lawsuit, had to be summoned, the court held in several parts of the State, ballot-boxes opened and thousands of ballots examined. At the close of the case in the lower court a few days ago, the Supreme Court of the State was asked by Phelan's counsel to hear argument on appeal in July, and, exercising its discretion, and without giving public reasons, it has just refused and adjourned until next September. In other words, the supreme tribunal of an old New England commonwealth, in spite of the privileged nature of election cases, in spite of the rapid expiring of the tenure of the office in litigation, and in spite of its own earlier decision and its emphasis of the "great wrong" done, deliberately postpones for months opportunity for justice for Mr. Phelan, whose election from the first hardly a single Connecticut Republican has denied, who was voted for at the election of 1890, and whose term, if now in office, would expire less than seven months hence. We doubt whether such a palpable injustice under the discretion of a high court has its parallel in the annals of American litigation.

The report of the New Haven Coroner who investigated the circumstances under which a Yale student—Wilkins Rustin—came to his death, contains a severe reflection upon the Yale Faculty. The Coroner finds that the death was due to the carelessness of boys conducting an initiation into a secret society, but that this carelessness was purely the result of boyish fun, and not such as is regarded by the law as criminal. But he further finds that no restraint has been put upon the modes of initiation, that they have entirely exceeded the bounds of reason and propriety, and are often dangerous to health and life. He recommends that the Faculty take the matter in hand, or, in default of their action, that the proper authorities take such measures as will prevent further practices of this nature. It is very much to be regretted that the Yale Faculty have allowed themselves to be placed in a position where they will appear to have been forced to take action which they might better have taken voluntarily. There has never been a time when the absurd barbarities and personal indignities practised by college boys on one another could not have been stopped by the authorities at Yale had they chosen to exert their power. In some colleges the Faculty have wisely coöperated with the students in organizing self-government, and the experiment, we believe, has been attended with perfect success. There is no question that if the feeling of Yale students at large could be fairly taken, it would condemn all practices involving their own personal maltreatment or humiliation, and it would probably be wise for the Faculty to take advantage of the profound emotion aroused by this shocking occurrence to procure an expression of the real sentiment of the College. It was supposed that "hazing" had been for years extinct at Yale, and the discovery that these stupid and brutal modes of initiation had come to be adopted by junior societies, among which in former years there was nothing of the kind, is an extremely disagreeable surprise to Yale graduates.

The decision in the Schuyler monument case just rendered by the General Term is wholesome law applied to a state of facts remarkable if not unique. The Women's Memorial Association wished to erect a statue at the World's Fair to a "typical philanthropist," and selected the late Mrs. Mary Hamilton Schuyler as the subject. Her family objected, but were forced to carry their objection to a court of equity, which has now enjoined the Association from carrying out its intention. It is not probable that the case will be of much use as a direct precedent, for the conjunction of an earnest wish to spend money to blazon an honored name, and a sturdy opposition on the part of its guardians, is not likely to recur in an age in which monumental reputations are hardly won and tardily recognized, and of which modesty is not a ruling passion. The point actually decided is, that a woman who, without ostentation, travelled far on the royal road of philanthropy, need not be subjected after her death to a notoriety she would have shunned when alive. The principle of law which seems to be laid down is that there is such a thing as a family sensitiveness of which members of the family are the guardians, and that it is possible to outrage this feeling by a pretentious expression of admiration for the character of a deceased member. So far as this particular case is concerned, there is an appropriateness of law to fact which will be recognized by all who maintain that, whatever of self-assertion may comport with feats of war and statesmanship, modesty should be ever the handmaid of philanthropy.

It was intimated in the opinion of the court below that Mrs. Schuyler could not be fairly considered a "public character," and that, therefore, her name and memory were in no sense the property of the public. The inference from this argument is earnestly combated by Judge Van Brunt, who says, "The claim that a person who voluntarily places himself before the public, either by accepting public office or by becoming a candidate for office, or as an artist or literary man, thereby surrenders his personality while living and his memory when dead to the public, to be used or abused as any one of that irresponsible body may see fit, cannot for a moment be entertained." The good taste of this *dictum* is manifest, but its vigorous expression may create the impression of a broader statement of law than we believe warranted or intended. Let it be admitted that if a soap-boiler proposed to erect a monument to a great warrior as an advertisement of his wares, his family, if not the public, might well enjoin so shocking a breach of propriety. Admit, further, that the erection of an honest memorial to such a man might be so pressed by begging or other methods detracting from the spontaneity of the tribute as justly to offend the sensibilities of his family. But let the memorial be a respectful tribute cheerfully offered to a public character who has deserved well of his country, and family opposition, if conceivable, should and would be brushed aside as a morbid fancy.

The strike of the coal-miners in the Durham district in England has been in many ways so disastrous as to make it a matter of international interest. Of course the 65,000 miners were not alone affected, for the cessation of the supply of coal caused a great advance in its price, so that the poor in many places suffered from their inability to buy fuel. Then the ironworks dependent on the Durham mines for coal were obliged to close, and 100,000 people dependent for their support on the wages paid in these works were thus reduced to such destitution as to call for alms from the charitable. The strike has been represented by many journals as due to the greed of the masters, and this has been the claim of the miners. But in fact, in 1879, after a great deal of trouble, a sliding scale of wages was agreed upon by both parties, wages to vary with the price of coal, and since that time under this scale the wages of miners have risen 35 per cent. But the price of coal having fallen, the masters gave notice this spring that wages would be reduced 10 per cent., the sliding scale really calling for a reduction of 11¼ per cent. Against this application of the agreed scale of wages the men struck, and their disposition to resist any reduction of wages was naturally aggravated by the fact that a further fall in the price of coal justified a reduction of wages by 13½ instead of 10 per cent. This percentage, however, is calculated upon the wages of 1879, and amounts to but 10 per cent. of the present wages, and that part of the wages paid which consists of free houses and coal suffers no reduction.

It seems, therefore, that the strike was a violation of a long-standing agreement, and there was nothing that could properly be submitted to arbitration, although it was repeatedly proffered by the masters and refused by the men prior to the strike. The men having deliberately chosen to resist by force all reduction, even to the drowning of the pits, the masters maintain that the subsequent call for arbitration on the part of the men came too late, although they profess willingness to refer disputes about wages to arbitrators in the future. Upon the whole, it seems that the strike not only was a breach of faith, but was doomed to fail from the beginning, and its effects have been, therefore, in every respect injurious, unless the reduction in the stock of iron be regarded as a gain. So far as the interests of working people are concerned, it has been a piece of criminal folly on the part of their leaders.

Both France and Spain are already sick of the war of tariffs which has been raging between those two countries since February, and a *modus vivendi* has been agreed upon whereby, pending further negotiations for a permanent treaty, the minimum instead of the maximum rates of duty shall be mutually put in force. In April the exports of Spain to France fell off 70 per cent. from the monthly average of 1891, and the exports of France to Spain 40 per cent. Moreover, as the *Figaro* has pointed out, Frenchmen have been heavy losers by the great depreciation of Spanish securities and industrial stocks as a consequence of the disturbances in trade caused by the tariff. It declares that "we are really the ones who have been conquered, inasmuch as on the one hand we hold the larger part of those depreciated securities and have lost the difference in price, and on the other have been led to ask the Spanish Government for the minimum tariff in return for ours." These are some of the gratifying forms of the "growth abroad" of the American doctrine of protection to which the Republican platform "calls attention."

The relations between Bulgaria and Turkey, which had been somewhat strained by the murder of the Bulgarian Minister at Constantinople and the events that followed, were apparently subjected to severer tension by the conduct of the Bulgarian authorities in liberating the Armenians arrested in connection with the Rustchuk conspiracy. The object of these conspirators was the liberation of Armenia from Turkish rule, and the course of Bulgaria was a warning to Turkey that it was not wise for the latter Power to countenance conspiracy. It seems, however, that the spirited attitude of Bulgaria has impressed the Porte, and it has made suggestions that not only indicate a disposition friendly to the rising Power, but are also of importance to the commercial world. These suggestions relate to the construction of a railway uniting Sofia with Salonica, which the Porte has hitherto opposed, owing to its apprehension concerning Bulgarian designs on Macedonia. The conditions now proposed by Turkey amount to a consent to the railroad, which, whether politically advantageous or not, will be of inestimable value to Bulgarian commerce. The country is really rich, and this opportunity for trade will be at once appreciated in Europe. The result can only be to strengthen the bulwark already erected against Russian aggression by giving the Bulgarians a basis of supplies in Europe, and their Government will purchase these great advantages very cheaply by consenting to keep the recently liberated Armenians under surveillance. According to the London *Times*, the new railroad will either follow the Struma valley to Seres, connecting with a line to be constructed from Dedeagatch to Salonica, or will pass by Kustendil to a point on the Nish-Salonica Railroad south of Uskub.

THE NOMINATIONS AND THE PLATFORM.

THE renomination of President Harrison was anticipated by everybody who has had an impartial eye for the proceedings of the Convention at Minneapolis. Now that it has come, it takes nobody except the Blaine shouters by surprise. These are not merely silenced—they are dumbfounded. Their candidate never ran so badly in a national convention where he was an avowed candidate. His supporters were reduced to the necessity of bringing a third candidate into the field—that is, of virtually dropping him—in the hope of defeating Harrison. The result is extremely mortifying, since it shows him at least 150 votes weaker than he really was. It sends him into obscurity not only defeated, but disgraced. Nobody can be disgraced except by his own acts, but Mr. Blaine has supplied all the materials needed for the purpose. He wrote and published a letter taking himself out of the race. He then belied his own pledge, and resigned the leading place in President Harrison's Cabinet in order to give desperate battle to his chief in a place where he had said that he would not be found at all. Such an act, followed by a stunning overthrow like that which he has now received, would politically crush any man in the world. Even if Mr. Blaine were in the prime of life, he could not recover from such a blow.

It is true that Mr. Harrison's nomination has not been received with enthusiasm. This is partly because it has been anticipated for two years, and partly because Mr. Harrison is not a man to rouse enthusiasm. He has a cold exterior. His handling of the public patronage has made him four or five enemies to one friend, and has not won the admiration of anybody who has not been a recipient of it. The mammon of unrighteousness has served him badly, as it does all those who put their trust in it. Nevertheless, the lack of momentary enthusiasm must not be counted upon as any great factor in the campaign. Mr. Blaine's nomination would have gained more cheers, but he would not have run so well as Harrison. This is proved by a comparison of the votes cast for them respectively in 1884 and 1888. Mr. Harrison has better staying qualities than either Blaine or McKinley. The nomination of Mr. Whitelaw Reid for Vice-President will neither add to nor subtract from the popularity of the ticket, as may be said of most Vice-Presidential nominations.

The first thing to be noticed in the platform adopted at Minneapolis is that it contains no endorsement of the McKinley tariff. "The American doctrine of protection," as it is curiously called, is reaffirmed and "attention is called to its growth abroad"—another curiosity. How, we beg to inquire, can the *American* doctrine of protection grow abroad, seeing that the doctrine of protection had its origin long before there was any American Government? Is the American doctrine of protection different from the German or the French? and if so, when did Germany and France abandon their own and adopt ours?

The reciprocity plank is marked by the same simplicity as the tariff plank. Reciprocity is spoken of as "a Republican policy," in the same way that protection is spoken of as an American policy. The truth is that reciprocity and protection are contradictory terms, and were so understood at the time when Mr. Blaine declared of the McKinley Bill that it would not make a market for another bushel of wheat or another barrel of pork.

Of more importance than either of these is the silver plank, which deserves to be quoted in full:

> "(3.) The American people from tradition and interest favor bimetallism, and the Republican party demands the use of both gold and silver as standard money, with such restrictions and under such provisions, to be determined by legislation, as will secure the maintenance of the parity of values of the two metals, so that the purchasing and debt-paying power of the dollar, whether of silver, gold, or paper, shall be at all times equal. The interests of the producers of the country, its farmers and its workingmen, demand that every dollar, paper or coin, issued by the Government, shall be as good as any other. We commend the wise and patriotic steps already taken by our Government to secure an international conference to adopt such measures as will insure a parity of value between gold and silver for use as money throughout the world."

The "straddle" here consists in saying nothing about the intrinsic value of the two dollars, but apparently leaving each voter to determine for himself how parity shall be maintained. We say apparently, because in reality the platform decides this question in favor of the silver cranks and the mine-owners by introducing the words, "to be determined by legislation." The restrictions and provisions to maintain the equal value of the silver dollar and the gold dollar are not those of weight and fineness which are commonly called intrinsic value; they are to be determined by legislation—that is, they are to be determined as they are now determined. But the word legislation has acquired a new significance since this Convention met, and since Senator Jones declared that the silver question ought to be settled by Congress, and not by a Presidential veto, and said that he was for Blaine because Blaine would not veto a free-coinage bill. Words to the same effect are to be found in one of Senator Teller's recent speeches, and it happens that both Jones and Teller were on the sub-committee which framed this silver plank. In strictness of speech the word "legislation" embraces both Congress and the Executive. Yet it is not to be doubted under these circumstances that an indirect command was sought to be given to the President by this resolution not to veto a free-coinage bill. If the hands of Gen. Grant had been tied in this way, he might have considered himself instructed not to veto the Inflation Bill of 1874, and thus might have failed to do the act which, of all others, brought most renown to his Administration and rendered most service to the country.

THE ELECTION AND THE SECRET BALLOT.

A REPUBLICAN politician from this State was credited with saying at one of the confidential meetings of delegates, held during the session of the Minneapolis Convention, that his party spent a large sum of money in carrying New York for Harrison in 1888, and that it must be borne in mind that a similar expenditure in 1892 would be impracticable because of the Secret Ballot Law. Whether this statement was actually made or not, we are unable to say. The report that it was has been circulated widely for a week or more, and has not been contradicted. That it might have been made, no one who is familiar with the methods pursued by Quay, as Chairman of the Republican National Committee in the campaign of 1888, will question. A similar remark might have been made with equal truth of Indiana, both as to the expenditure of money for "blocks of five" and other purposes, and as to the impracticability of repeating such expenditures this year.

We doubt if many persons realize the full significance of the fact that our next Presidential election will be the first one in the history of the country to be decided by an absolutely secret ballot. There are now thirty-five States, more than three-quarters of the whole number, which have new ballot laws upon their statute books. With the exception of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Connecticut, all these laws are reasonably good applications of the Australian system of voting. That is to say, they provide for a secret, official, blanket ballot, to be obtained only inside the polling-places, and provide also for absolute secrecy of voting. The four exceptions named are all defective in various ways, because all of them were drawn by enemies of genuine ballot reform, but, in spite of their defects, even these four laws provide for absolute secrecy in the act of voting. In no one of the thirty-five States which have adopted new laws can a voter be followed to the polls by a briber, or a bulldozer, or an intimidator, or a boss, to see how he votes. Every one of the laws severs completely the connection between the voter and the man who seeks in any way to influence his vote, at the critical moment before he is to prepare and deposit his ballot.

What this isolation of the voter will accomplish in Indiana, for example, need not be pointed out. No "blocks of five" can be marched to the polls in that State on election day with their ballots held in sight of the man who has bought them till they are dropped into the ballot-boxes. What the same isolation will accomplish in great manufacturing centres is equally obvious. There can be no intimidation of employees in any part of New England, or Ohio, or Indiana, or New Jersey, or New York. No workingman need fear loss of employment if he votes in ac-

cordance with his own beliefs and against the "interests of his employer," for his employer cannot see how he votes. In the list of the thirty-five States which have the new system are to be found all the so-called "doubtful States," and all those States in the Northwest, like Iowa, Wisconsin, Illinois, Michigan and Minnesota, in which the tariff-reform sentiment has made such havoc with old-time Republican majorities. In all these States there is to be a free and untrammelled and absolutely secret ballot for the first time in a Presidential election, and Republican politicians will be wise to take the hint of their New York associate, quoted above, and calculate increased difficulties for their party to encounter because of this fact.

In the great cities of the land, there is another gain from the new system which is as important as that of the secret ballot. "Trading" and "deals" will be practically impossible, because of the difficulties which are thrown in their way. In this city and Brooklyn, for example, the Democratic electoral ticket must be printed on the same ballot with the Democratic local nominations, and the Republican electoral ticket must be printed on the same ballot with the Republican local nominations, and all ballots must be printed accurately, because all must be printed by the sworn officers of the counties. "Mixed" or "split" tickets, in the interest of a "deal"—that is, Republican Presidential electors and Tammany local candidates — will be impossible, except through the use of large "pasters," which would be detected instantly, and would thus expose the "deal" to the gaze of all men. As secrecy is the prime requisite of every "deal," since neither party to it wishes to have its treachery proved, the law furnishes a practically complete obstacle. Furthermore, since the law puts into the hands of every voter a straight party ticket, giving to every Tammany man the electoral ticket and the Tammany ticket combined in one, if the count shall show that the Democratic electors poll a smaller vote than the Tammany local candidates, the proof of treachery will stand revealed on the face of the returns. The same showing will be made also by the returns for Republican Presidential and local candidates.

It follows from all this that corruption and trickery must perforce play a far less important part in the approaching Presidential election than they have played in many preceding ones, and especially in that of 1888. Quay and Platt and Clarkson may find in this fact a fresh explanation of President Harrison's willingness to divest himself of their services, as he had previously divested himself of further services from Dudley. It is surely going to be more difficult for either party to use in the closing days of the campaign, including election day itself, a vast corruption fund like that which Mr. Wanamaker raised for Quay to use in behalf of Harrison in 1888. Other agencies for securing votes must be sought, and other managers than professional corruptionists and traders must be put at the head of the party organizations to conduct the campaign. It will be wise for both parties to take this change in the situation into account in selecting their campaign managers. With money as an influence put in a secondary place, argument and reason will come into the front place as the deciding factors of the contest, and the party which has the man at the head of its campaign organization who is best able to direct forces of this kind will stand the better chance of winning at the polls. It will be an incalculable gain to American politics to have the professional corruptionists of both parties removed from the control of their campaign machinery.

TROUBLES OF AMERICANS IN TURKEY.

ONE of the meetings at the annual missionary conference at Clifton Springs, N. Y., last week, was given to the consideration of the grave condition of affairs which now confronts American missionaries in Turkey. Dr. Cyrus Hamlin, ex-President of Robert College, in his address greatly blamed the United States Government for its "failure to protect the lives, property, and treaty rights of its citizens in Turkey." As at least nine-tenths of the work of our legation in Constantinople is concerned with the affairs of the missions, it fails lamentably in its duty if it fails as thus alleged.

It appears to be beyond dispute that the missionaries have met with a series of hindrances to their work, interposed by Turkish officials, which have grown in seriousness and taken on a more evident appearance of concerted action during the past two years, until now the situation is regarded by those who know most about it as critical. The restrictive measures have related to the circulation of books and to the general activity of the missionaries as teachers and preachers. In an "appeal" which has been put forth in behalf of religious work in the Turkish Empire, a list is given of thirty instances, mostly within the last two years, in which Bibles and other books were seized, notwithstanding the fact that they bore the official seal of authorization, and were either permanently confiscated or returned only after long delays and difficult negotiations. The nature of the reasons given for such action may be inferred from the following sample case:

> "In December, 1891, the authorities of Erzrum detained the Turkish Lexicon of Sir James Redhouse, published by the American Mission at Constantinople with the authorization of the Ministry of Public Instruction. After holding the book for two weeks they defaced it by blotting out with ink the Turkish word signifying Armenia."

There certainly seems to be good ground for a protest against such interferences with a trade that has been considered lawful for more than sixty years; and the societies that have invested capital in printing establishments in the Turkish Empire, under the open or tacit understanding that any of their books, once given official sanction, should be permitted free circulation, are not to be blamed for appealing to their embassies for protection. A project of law is now under consideration by the Sublime Porte which, if adopted, will still further cripple the book business. It relates to the colportage of authorized books, and provides, among other things, that a license as colporteur shall be obtainable only by petition to the highest authority of the province, and shall involve the surrender of national rights by any foreigner securing it; that colporteurs shall be liable to punishment for selling even authorized books, provided that local officials deem such selling injurious; and that the Government may prohibit the sale of any book without assigning a reason.

Still more embarrassing has been the effect of the order sent to the Governors of Provinces early in 1891, in regard to the use of the private houses of missionaries as schools or places for public worship. No such use can hereafter be made without authorization by Imperial Firman. As the order has been interpreted, and in many places put into execution, it practically means the prohibition of new missionary enterprises in Turkey, and possibly even the closing of work long in successful operation. At any rate, the order has been an engine of persecution in the hands of many provincial governors. And the difficulties in the way of obtaining an Imperial Firman are so enormous, mainly through the complicated process involved and the number of officials through whom the application has to run the gauntlet, that it is almost hopeless to try for it where there is any opposition. Thus, the application of the Armenian Protestants in the city of Constantinople for a Firman to enable them to build a church is stated to have been already delayed ten years while yet in its earliest stages.

The case of the missionaries in their appeal to the laws and treaties of Turkey seems to be entirely clear. As to the sale of authorized books, a Turkish law of 1876 forbade their detention or reëxamination. It was partly on the strength of that law that some of the societies set up their printing plants. Moreover, the spirit if not the letter of Turkey's commercial treaties would call for the right to sell freely any article of merchandise declared lawful by the Government. In the matter of the general right of missionaries to exercise their calling, the treaty rights of Americans are not perfectly explicit. The French capitulations of 1740 guaranteed protection to the French religious orders, and in the English capitulations of 1809 like privi-

leges were extended to English subjects. The Treaty of Berlin asserted the freedom "of all forms of worship." In a communication of Secretary Bayard's to Minister Strauss, April 20, 1887, he wrote:

". . . The construction given by Turkey to these treaties, and especially to the capitulations to Great Britain, quoted above, is evidenced by her continued protection of the American missions in Turkey, with their hospitals and schools, in which Turkish patients are received and Turkish children instructed. . . . The protection by Turkey of the schools established by other religious communions on Turkish soil, a protection which has existed from a time coincident with the establishment of such schools, shows that Turkey has regarded them as among the incidents of the territorial rights assigned by the capitulations to those religious communions. We have, therefore, in this protection not only a contemporaneous construction of the Turkish capitulations, treaties, and edicts, but a construction so continuous that it has the force of settled law."

Acting on that interpretation and under the instructions of the State Department, Mr. Strauss was able to secure from the Sultan such action in favor of the missionaries whose work was then interfered with as to win their hearty thanks. Whether his successor has been less efficient or the repressive measures more violent, we will not undertake to say. It is to be remembered in any case that the Turkish Government is so given over to extortion and corruption that the cupidity of irresponsible officials may account for much that looks like deliberate persecution by the Government. However, the evidence seems strong that there is a marked disposition on the part of the authorities at Constantinople to curtail and embarrass the work of foreign religious laborers. To whatever this may be due, the sympathy of Americans cannot fail to be with their fellow-countrymen who have gone to Turkey on so philanthropic an errand, and it certainly becomes the Administration at Washington to move as promptly and positively in behalf of persecuted American missionaries as in that of adventurers whose citizenship is as doubtful as their motives.

CHURCH GROWTH VS. CHURCH DECLINE.

Two significant articles appear side by side in the June *Forum*—"Impending Paganism in New England," by President Hyde of Bowdoin College, and "What the Census of the Churches Shows," by H. K. Carroll, special agent of the census. The two articles throw into strong contrast what may be called the outside and the inside of the existing status of the modern Church in America. Read the statistics of the census, and one is impressed by the great growth of the various denominations in numbers and in wealth. Turn to the statements of President Hyde, and one is depressed by the demoralized condition of the rural New England Church, by the lapse of New England's rural population into a state bordering on paganism.

The census figures given by Mr. Carroll are unfortunately incomplete. The returns from two such important bodies as the Protestant Episcopal and the Baptist denominations have not yet been published, and there are also wanting the returns of some other smaller denominations. Another interesting question cannot be settled by this census—the growth of the Roman Catholic Church in the last decade. The *Church* authorities have always included all baptized persons (even infants) in its enumeration. The *census* enumeration of Roman Catholics has been confined to communicants. As this is the first census ever taken of religious bodies, there exists no basis for an accurate estimate of growth. All that can be affirmed with safety is that the Roman Catholic Church has grown very largely. The effect of immigration in swelling certain denominations is very marked. The various Lutheran bodies have added 487,274 to their membership, an increase of 68 per cent., due largely to German and Scandinavian immigration. The Jews have surpassed even this record, having made a net increase of 80,496, or 160 per cent. The percentage of increase in the total population is 24.86, which shows how far these bodies are keeping in advance of population. But this is true also of a smaller body, like the Congregational, which is but little affected by immigration, and, from the character of its membership, is greatly affected by modern thought. The Congregational Church made a gain of 128,439 members, or 33 per cent. Taking all the denominations so far reported, there has been a gain of 28.21 per cent. in membership—a gain which is 3.35 per cent. higher than the growth of population. Again, to take another side, the value of church property owned by the Roman Catholics is $118,381,561. As to other churches, Mr. Carroll makes this general statement: "The returns for about a hundred denominations, with some of the largest not included, make the enormous aggregate of $463,000,000, representing about 88,000 organizations or congregations." In the face of such a growth and such a property interest as this, who will dare talk of church decline?

But President Hyde's facts concerning "Impending Paganism in New England" are just as forcible as those arrayed in the census. Take this statement, a summary of statistics recently gathered by the Maine Bible Society: "The combined statistics of fifteen counties [in Maine] show that of 133,445 families, 67,842 are not attendants upon any church." But the mere fact that there are so many "stay-at-homes" is not the most serious fact of the situation, in President Hyde's opinion. There is no vitality in the rural church system. It is frittered away in an unequal struggle to maintain mere denominationalism, so that, as a friend said to President Hyde of home-missionary work in Minnesota, "the only mission of any man out there was to go up and down the State burning half the churches." This is the similar situation in rural New England, as President Hyde has found it: "Financially the churches are on the verge of bankruptcy. What money is raised comes not directly in subscriptions and pew-rentals, but through the sewing circle, from fairs and entertainments. The church is supported practically by a club of women, not by families and men." The truth of this is patent to every one who has ever closely observed church life in the so-called "decayed" parts of rural New England. But excessive denominationalism is from one point of view an effect rather than a cause. "The real line of division between Christians to-day," says President Hyde, "is not between denominations, but between the broad and narrow men of all denominations." If the broad men could "get together," as the politicians say, this evil of excessive denominationalism would, he thinks, soon settle itself.

The contrast, as has been said, between the superficial figures of church growth as given in the census, and the facts of church decline as brought out by so accurate an observer as President Hyde, points anew the old moral that mere figures tell only a partial story. Valuable as the census statistics are, the future historian will turn from them to such articles as this on the paganism of rural New England when he attempts to give a truthful picture of the religious condition of society to-day. The contrast also suggests that the "unchurched masses" of our cities do not present to the modern Church a problem half so difficult of successful solution as do the "pagan" communities of rural life. In the cities there are thought and activity and responsiveness to new ideas and fresh inspirations. The country has been largely drained of brains and heart to enrich the cities. There is comparatively little left to appeal to. In that simple fact lies the supreme discouragement.

THIS YEAR'S EXHIBITIONS IN PARIS.

PARIS, May 23, 1892.

THAT art should be encouraged is the most deplorable of modern fallacies. Of late years innumerable schools have been endowed, exhibitions held, travelling studentships established, medals awarded, and all to what purpose! This is what one asks when, from the wilderness of the Royal Academy and the New Gallery, one turns to the hardly less barren wastes of the two Paris Salons.

For the Salons this summer are singularly devoid of artistic interest. The Champs-Élysées has not recovered the distinction it lost two or more years ago when its most distinguished exhibitors ceased contributing to it; the Champ-de-Mars scarce fulfils the promise of its first two shows, as, indeed, it was almost impossible that it should. It is long since such complete stagnation has prevailed in the world of art.

At first, on going the rounds of the Palais de l'Industrie, it seems so incredible that the technical facility displayed should result in so conspicuous an absence of originality, that one thinks the fault must be in one's self, not in the work—that the consequence of looking at too many pictures in too short a time is the

temporary lessening of one's pleasure in them. And then, suddenly, a little canvas wakes a responsive sensation or emotion, and one knows that it is not one's power of enjoyment that is exhausted. For in the acres of *grandes machines* from the studios of "shilling shockers" in paint, of placid academical studies, the few good things are not overshadowed, but tell with even greater effect, perhaps, than if hung in more congenial surroundings. If a man has but used his own eyes, and expressed himself in his own way, his record of his impressions, however small, will in the end prove far more striking than the hugest expanse of sensational commonplace. There are large ceilings, destined for the Paris Hôtel de Ville, by Morot and Benjamin Constant, almost crude in their would-be brilliancy; but one passes them unmoved, to stop before a little decorative arrangement of "L'Homme et la Fortune" by Luc Olivier Merson, in which beauty of line and color and form, and not the notoriety of a day, has clearly been the chief end; Bonnat and Múnkacsy have turned out their usual gorgeous millinery, and yet the girl on horseback, by Mr. Lavery, a Scotchman, the Mr. Gladstone, by Mr. McLure Hamilton, an American, are the portraits of the year which have made most stir among artists in Paris, where they are now seen for the first time, though both have been exhibited before in London, and Mr. Lavery's, last summer, in Munich. Nozal, Harpignies, and Jules Dupré repeat the old themes of which they are masters, but it is the landscape of Mr. Roche, another of the Glasgow men, which stands out with artistic preëminence. It is no exaggeration to say that the rest of the exhibitors may be divided into those who still compete for medals and those who are *hors concours*, but who conscientiously keep on painting what they think the public and the jury expect of them.

It may be that exhibitions are the best salesrooms, but it is as certain that their influence on artists is, in the long run, deadening, especially when, as in Paris, medals are awarded. An exhibition standard is necessarily set up, and its maintenance implies the sacrifice of individuality. The painter paints to exhibit; while he is at work, he sees, not only the canvas before him, but the gallery where it will be hung with hundreds of others, all struggling fiercely for recognition. He seeks, like his rivals, to make himself distinguished, and the result is the *grande machine*. One wonders what men like Bonnat and Múnkacsy, Henri Martin and Maignan, would have done if success at the Salon had not been their little game. The cleverest among the Americans usually represented at the Champs-Élysées cannot steer quite clear of the danger. There is nothing of its kind more scholarly than Mr. MacEwen's "Witches," nothing more spirited than Mr. Bridgman's "Crossing of the Red Sea"; but I question whether either picture would have been painted had there been no Salon to send it to. For this reason it will be interesting to see what one of these artists, Mr. MacEwen, will accomplish when working for a definite end in the decoration of the Exhibition buildings at Chicago. In many a monthly magazine Mr. Du Mond and Mr. Blashfield have shown more artistic work than their canvases at the Salon; in many previous shows Mr. Gay, Mr. Mosler, and Mr. Bisbing have appeared to better advantage. The privilege of exhibiting in the Champs-Élysées is not an artistic stimulus, but unfortunately it is to this annual exhibition that most painters look for commissions. Black-and-white men are in this respect more fortunate—a fact which explains the greater vitality and originality found in the rooms devoted to black-and-white work. Medals, which they are willing enough to accept, are not their primary aim and object, and, despite the limitations set upon them by the exigencies of reproduction, both draughtsmen and engravers have far more freedom to do what they like than painters. The etchings here are never remarkable; but the wood-engravings of Baude and Léveillé and two or three others, and the lithographs of Fuchs and Jouanne and Jacque, are simply masterpieces. The progress that is being made in lithography, the proof given of its hitherto hardly realized possibilities, is really the most interesting fact to be learned in the two Salons.

At the Champ-de-Mars one's disappointment is greater because one expects more. It is hard to shake off first impressions, and I remember keenly my dismay upon walking down the entire side of one of the long galleries without finding a single canvas that would not have seemed more at home in the Champs-Élysées. The Hanging Committee this year have lowered the old standard, and the key-note to the exhibition is given in the line of portraits of meretricious elegance by the President, Carolus Duran. There are good things, it is true—better than pictures to be seen elsewhere. But many are paintings done years ago—the masterpieces of Whistler and Alfred Stevens—which are in no way representative of the art of the day. And others are but repetitions of old themes and problems by men who, in repeating themselves, have not surpassed their previous efforts: the little girl in gray, with long, shiny black legs, sitting amidst gray cushions on a gray sofa, by Boldini, is but a variation of his delightful little boy of last year; Besnard's lady in pink has already stood for us, as gracefully and with as good effect, in the open air on a sunny day; Puvis de Chavannes's "Summer" had far more charm of color, far less affectation in the primitive angularity of the figures, than the "Winter," which is eventually to face it in the Hôtel de Ville; Carrière's peculiar methods are better adapted to his smaller portraits than to the large "Maternity," which has just been bought by the French Government. Contributors who really give the show its chief distinction are Cazin, with a series of marvellous landscapes, characteristic and individual in style, and yet something more than mere new versions of old schemes; Aman-Jean, who suffers from the praise of Sâr Peladon, but whose portraits reveal him as a master of decoration; Louis Picard, who shows what artistic ends the study of the nude may serve; Helleu, who has rendered the effect of the light falling through stained glass in a cathedral interior as it has never been done before; and Raffaëlli, whose paintings only seem less good because his pastels are so much better. Englishmen, Scotchmen, and Americans here, as at the rival Salons, come well to the fore: Sargent's "Carmencita" stands out in as strong relief as it did last year at the Royal Academy, and Alexander Harrison, Henry Moore, Burne-Jones, and Guthrie are the others who do most to raise the show from the threatened abyss of incompetent cleverness.

For clever a large number of the exhibitors unquestionably are; only they do not know what to do with their cleverness. Apparently they have nothing of their own to say, and yet, if here there are no medals to be won, at least notoriety is to be achieved at all hazards: they must make their mark on the gallery walls; they, too, must paint up, or down, to the accepted standard, and this in an exhibition where the public look for eccentricity. To imitate masters who, because they have been misunderstood, have already made a noise in the world of art, evidently seems the easiest means to this demoralizing end, and the rooms are filled with spurious Carrières and Cazins, Boldinis and Besnards. Clearly it is not realized that individual modes of expression are the characteristic methods of these men of value. But most striking of all is the growing influence of Monet, in the Champs-Élysées as well as in the Champ-de-Mars. The new school has been gaining year by year, but now it seems to be meeting the old on equal grounds, and no one to-day can say which of the two will prevail to-morrow. At a glance it might be thought that there was no longer doubt of the ascendancy of the new leaders—of Monet, of Besnard, and even of Chéret, whose posters are, as he uses them, the legitimate outcome of the late movement in art, but were never meant by him to be accepted as models for the painter of easel-pictures or the decorator of public buildings. In the Champs-Élysées even a man of Benjamin Constant's position seems to think it worth while to be on the right side; and in his large ceiling for the Hôtel de Ville, Besnard and Chéret appear to be striving for mastery. In the Champ-de-Mars, Dannat, with misapplied cleverness, so frankly and successfully rivals Chéret in his own line that one wishes he would undertake to do for the streets of New York what Chéret has accomplished for the boulevards of Paris. It is no wonder that in this year's shows the conservative sees the beginning of the end.

But it is doubtful whether the prevalence of new methods means anything more than the sudden popularity of the New Testament among painters. For if Monet's technique has been borrowed on every side, so, at the Champ-de-Mars, has the subject of Jean Béraud's successful canvas of last year. That, it will be remembered, was the picture of Christ and Magdalen at the house of Simon the Pharisee, which became the talk of the town because all the figures, with the exception of Christ, were in modern dress. Of course this in itself was no novelty even for modern times, since Von Uhde has been doing the same thing for some years past. But Von Uhde places his Christ among the people and in humble interiors; Béraud brought his to a fine dinner party and gave him a seat at a table littered with coffee-cups and liqueur glasses, among men in dress suits smoking their after-dinner cigars, and all Paris was enchanted with his daring. As a natural consequence this year Christ has taken the place of Bastien's peasants as a favorite *motif*. Béraud, in a new moment of inspiration, has made of Montmartre the new Calvary; Blanche, Lhermitte, Montenard, Deschamps, Dubufe, Frappa, and half-a-dozen more have vied with him in modernizing Christ for the sake of a sensation, establishing him in their own home or in a tavern, in Parisian streets or under Provençal olive trees, until it but remains, to complete the blasphemy, to paint him in a boulevard café or in a popular music hall. These men forget that if the old masters made pictures of Christ and saints and angels, it was because the people wanted them; that if Von Uhde's compositions have any merit, it is their sincerity and their technical accomplishments. The sanctity of a subject is

not sufficient to conceal the lack of originality which was the real reason for its choice, and it is absence of originality, in matter and manner alike, that characterizes the two Salons of 1892, and is the cause of their unusual dulness. There is no more emphatic proof of this than the fact that Continental artists have gone even to England for inspiration, and that Burne-Jones and Holman Hunt have found followers in a land for whose art they have nothing but contempt. Here again, as at the Champs-Élysées, it is in the various branches of illustration and black-and-white, for which there is a genuine demand, that vitality must be sought. Not the most faithful imitation of Burnes-Jones can compete with the series of drawings in color made by Schwabe to illustrate Zola's 'Rêve'; not the most audacious Christ can be compared to one small etching by Helleu or Whistler, one little lithograph by Lunois. Even the sculpture this year has succumbed to the commonplace.

Altogether, the Salons would be cruelly dispiriting were it not so evident that much of the barrenness on their walls is due to the present crisis (I scarce know what else to call it) in art in France. The struggle between the old and the new school cannot go on much longer, for it is something more than a mere matter of taste. Indeed, the whole art world is disorganized. Only the very strong men can afford to stand by themselves; it is too soon for the rest to decide to which school to give their allegiance. Dealers look on askance, private patrons bide their time, the critic is sorely puzzled. But probably matters seemed quite as desperate to Tuscans of old when Giotto first asserted himself and threw cherished Byzantine traditions to the wind. In the end Giotto triumphed; the present interval may be but the preparation for the triumph of the modern innovator. N. N.

WORDSWORTH AND SOUTHEY ON SLAVERY.

LONDON, June 1, 1892.

SOME days ago, at the house of a friend in the north of England, I was afforded an opportunity of looking over a collection of MSS. and memorabilia of the struggle for emancipation in the West Indies and the Southern States. Letters from Wordsworth and Southey, of which the following are copies, especially interested me. They are singular proof of the depth to which the canker of slavery had, even in the best minds, eaten into and undermined society. It is only in the perusal of such vestiges of a demoralized public conscience that the present generation can at all realize the difficulties of the task to which their forefathers gave themselves. They are singular proof of how, in the clearest cases of wrong, men have ever shrunk from effectually aiding necessary reforms from want of confidence in the working out of good principles, and from attributing the evils inevitably springing from mistaken systems to the efforts for their reform. The letters were written to a lady in response to an application for literary contributions to a little book to be sold for the advancement of the anti-slavery movement. ALFRED WEBB.

[No date—Spring of 1833.]

DEAR MADAM: Your letter, which I lose no time in replying to, has placed me under some embarrassment, as I happen to possess some MS. verses of my own upon the subject to which you solicit my attention. But I frankly own to you, that neither with respect to this subject, nor to the kindred one, the slavery of the children in the Factories, which is adverted to in the same Poem, am I prepared to add to the excitement already existing in the public mind upon these and so many other points of legislation and government. Poetry, if good for anything, must appeal forcibly to the Imagination and the feelings, but what at this period we want above everything, is patient examination, and sober judgement. It can scarcely be necessary to add that my mind revolts as strongly as anyone's can, from the law that permits one human being to sell another. It is on principle monstrous, but it is not the worst thing in human nature. Let precipitate advocates for its destruction bear this in mind. But I will not enter farther into the question than to say, that here are three parties—the Slave—the Slave-owner—and the imperial Parliament, or rather the people of the British Islands, acting through that Organ. Surely the course at present pursued is hasty, intemperate, and likely to lead to gross injustice. Who in fact are most to blame? The people—who, by their legislation, have sanctioned, not to say encouraged, slavery. But now we are turning round at once upon the planters, and heaping upon them indignation without measure, as if we wished that the Slaves should believe that their Masters alone were culpable, and they alone fit objects of complaint and resentment.

Excuse haste and believe me, Dear Madam,

Respectfully yours,

(Signed) WM. WORDSWORTH.

P. S.—Unwillingness to allude to my own writings, even though indirectly led to the subject, has prevented me from expressing the satisfaction which I felt in learning from your Letter that they had afforded you so much pleasure.

KESWICK, 4 May, 1833.

MADAM: Numerous and pressing employments allow me barely time for stating as briefly as possible what my opinions are upon the subject in which you express so lively an interest.

I earnestly desire that slavery should be abolished, but I dread the consequences of precipitate measures, and having more than once set on foot petitions for ameliorating the condition of the slaves and for the gradual abolition of slavery, I have just refused to sign one for immediate emancipation.

Obstinate as the Planters have shown themselves on the one part, and rash as the Abolitionists on the other, there is no longer any safe course. But that which might be commenced with least danger, which is most practicable, and involves the least injustice, seems to be a scheme of manumission, by which (as in the Spanish and Portugueze Indies) the master should be compelled to emancipate any slave who can purchase his freedom. If the slaves were empowered to purchase it in parts, it might facilitate the process. There should be an annual grant from Government in aid of it, so that the slave who was ready with a fixed proportion of his own price, should be assisted with the rest. Freedom then, instead of being given indiscriminately to all, would be placed within reach of those who desired and deserved it, and in the course of one generation we might reasonably hope for the extinction of a great and crying evil.

If a more precipitate course should—(as I verily believe it would)—bring upon our sugar-islands the horrors of insurrection, devastation, and massacre, no slight portion of the guilt must rest upon those who have hurried it on.

These observations are hastily penned; but they are not offered without full consideration of the subject, and as much knowledge concerning it as can be obtained from official documents. Should you think proper to publish them, they are at your service for that purpose.

I remain, Madam, your obedient servant,

(Signed) ROBERT SOUTHEY.

Correspondence.

THE POPE AND THE GOVERNMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I must confess that I was considerably surprised on reading the article in the *Nation* of May 26 regarding the Pope's letter to the French cardinals. That letter is given an importance which seems to be altogether undeserved. It advises, in brief, the French prelacy to submit to the French republican government, as a government *de facto*, under some modifications and reservations. Your article says: "That these instructions should be characterized by tact is no more than would be expected from the Vatican, but they also indicate the possession by the Pope of a very high degree of political wisdom." But was not the policy commended in that letter the policy of the Papal See from its very existence to the present time? When did the Vatican ever care about the *forms* of governments? The German Empire was an elective monarchy, France an hereditary one. The south of Italy, with Sicily, was a kingdom. The rest of Italy was divided into dukedoms and a number of republics. Switzerland was a republican confederation. The Popes never found any trouble in recognizing our North and South American republics. The unfortunate Louis XVI. of France was a devout Catholic, and Rome defended royalty there with all its might. When the Constituent Assembly of 1789 established a constitutional clergy, the Pope excommunicated all the bishops and all the priests who had taken the oath to support the Constitution. Yet when Napoleon, as First Consul, made his peace with the Vatican by the Concordat of 1801, the Pope at once recognized the Republic, and, when Napoleon destroyed the Republic, went to Paris to consecrate Napoleon (who had also been excommunicated) as Emperor of France.

The policy of Rome was, is, and always will be to submit to governments, however bad and tyrannical they may be, when they give to the Popes ample scope to exercise their spiritual powers, so as to direct and control the consciences of their coreligionists and to propagate their doctrines, which are essentially illiberal and inconsistent with progress and civilization (see the Encyclica and Syllabus published by Pio Nono in 1864), and to oppose those Governments whenever they attempt to confine the papal power to its ethical and strictly religious duties.

Now, Leo has given no other instructions to the French clergy than all his predecessors, including the most simple-minded, have done. It may be freely admitted that he is a man of great intellect, of considerable general information, a most elegant classical scholar, and of an active and somewhat restless mind; but surely it does not appear from his missive to the cardinals "that it indicates a very high degree of political wisdom." If a judge should write an opinion based entirely upon judicial precedents of a thousand years, adding to their force nothing original, no one would ascribe to him a very high degree of judicial wisdom.

But this admonition to obey the powers that be is well guarded. The sovereignty of the State, the Pope points out, "is not absolute. It is the duty of the subject to accept the established political authority; but this does not imply acceptance of legislation *on points where the legislator, forgetful of his mission, sets himself in opposition to the law of God and the Church.*" "And let all bear in mind," he continues, "that to display activity and use influence to induce Government to change for the better iniquitous laws, void of wisdom, is to give proof of a devotion to the country alike intelligent and courageous *without a shadow of hostility to the authorities deputed to govern public affairs.*" There is an adjective which characterizes these sentences

very appropriately, but which I forbear to apply. It is clear, however, that, according to the Pope's circular, the clergy is to use activity and influence to have changed the laws which the *Church* considers as iniquitous and devoid of wisdom, and, of course, to oppose similar laws. That the Pope considers all the late laws enacted in France which have a tendency to deliver the education of the French youth from the thraldom of the Church—in other words, to secularize the schools and have religious instruction imparted separate and apart from the State schools—as iniquitous and devoid of wisdom, there is not a shadow of a doubt. The clergy, then, are admonished to be active, and to use their influence to have these laws repealed. And that influence, through the pulpit, the confessional, the directorial spiritual domestic visits, is very great.

France as well as Germany is in the midst of a serious struggle to confine the orthodox churches within their proper bounds. That this two-edged letter of the Pope will in the least contribute to allay this irrepressible conflict is exceedingly doubtful. It advocates the old, well-known policy of the Vatican of accommodating itself to existing circumstances, without for one moment losing sight of the central principle of the Papacy, which is to work through the consciences of the people for the supremacy of the Roman Church over all secular governments. G. K.

A RUSSIAN PROFESSORSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was very much struck by the forcible and sensible letter from Mr. Charles M. Moss, on "Places and Men," in your issue of June 9, in which he speaks of the difficulty, nay, the almost impossibility, of getting proper persons to fill the chairs of instructors in our higher institutions of learning. "It is a sorry fact, but nevertheless true," he says, among other things, "that the recommendations of officers of instruction are so much tinged with ulterior purposes that they are often worse than of no value." This is a fact which many of us have had ample opportunity to observe for ourselves, and it is not necessary for me to dwell upon this or any other feature of his letter further than to apply it to a (possible) future case, where all these difficulties may be avoided by due circumspection at the outset. At the same moment that Mr. Moss's communication came under my notice, my attention was called to a paragraph in the "Notes from Boston" published in *Book News* for June. The writer of the Notes suggests that some university should establish a chair for Russian and Slavonic languages and literatures, and hopes that Chicago will see its way to doing so. The idea is far from novel; it has been talked of long ago. But it seems appropriate to state the case plainly, at this time, lest Chicago or some other university should accept the hint too literally, and spoil its splendid chance for ever from the outset by the appointment of precisely such a person as Mr. Moss deplores, for the lack of a little definite knowledge of the conditions.

In the first place, no university should take the advice of any interested person in appointing so important a professor. There is not a single man in this country who is fitted to fill that chair even creditably. It demands a knowledge of Russian, Old Slavonic, Polish, Bohemian, Servian, Croatian, Montenegrin, Wendish, and the varieties of Russian used in different parts of Russia proper, especially of Little Russian, or Ruthenian. Moreover, it demands a speaking and writing knowledge of Russian such as no American man possesses. Any one who has ever wasted his time in endeavoring to learn the pronunciation or even the theory of a foreign language from a person not a native, and a well-educated native at that, can appreciate this point. It is a downright waste of time on the part of the learner, which years of after study will not repair; and it is as downright an imposition on the part of any institution of learning to palm off any one but a highly educated and specially trained and adapted native of the particular country on its students.

If there is to be any chair of Russian and Slavonic Languages and Literatures in an American university, I hope that no interested advice will be taken; that no American will be appointed to a place which he will certainly be unqualified to fill. Let the university get a trained professor from St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kieff—any first-class Russian university. Plenty of these professors are accomplished English scholars. Even if the one chosen is not perfect in English at the outset, that will be an actual help to his students in their preparation for acquiring enough of the languages to qualify them for literary studies; and the disqualification—if disqualification it can be called for a moment, under the circumstances—will speedily disappear.

As a person who has had extensive experience with the acquisition of many foreign languages (and also in fraudulent instructors who have been a curse), especially in this matter of Russian, Slavonic, and cognate tongues, I make this earnest appeal for caution and rigid inquisition, by properly qualified individuals, not pretenders, of the claims to a Slavic professorship in any of our universities.

Isabel F. Hapgood.

June 11, 1892.

Notes.

We are requested to state that the little volume published in Boston by J. G. Cupples Co., entitled 'American Ideas for English Readers, by James Russell Lowell,' is unauthorized by Mr. Lowell's representatives, who were not consulted in regard to it. It consists of some of the speeches made by him and some of the public letters which he wrote while in England. The speeches were slight, spontaneous performances, and he did not attach sufficient value to them to revise them. In the book they are given in reporters' English, with errors which ought not to have been overlooked in an American edition.

Ginn & Co. will have ready July 1 'The Beginner's American History,' by D. H. Montgomery.

Mr. G. R. Parkin's work on 'Imperial Federation' is in the press of Macmillan & Co.

B. Westermann & Co., New York, will dispose of the 100 numbered copies allotted to the American market of 'Old Sword Play: the Systems of Fence in vogue during the 16th, 17th, and 18th Centuries,' by Capt. Alfred Hutton. It is illustrated by fifty-seven plates of typical examples.

Bernard Quaritch, London, will bring out next month an edition of 'Shakespeare's Midsommer Night's Dreame,' with seventy illustrations by J. Moyr Smith, including fifteen full-page plates etched on copper. There will be three styles—vellum, Japanese, and antique. Mr. Smith illustrated "Macbeth" in a similar manner three years ago.

The New York Shakspere Society will finish its 'Bankside Shakespeare' in August next, and will then proceed at once to issue separately in one volume a Concordance of its line notation with that of the Globe and the Cambridge Shakspere, and a complete Index of the Bankside Introductions. This volume can be used as a concordance to the First Folio and First Quarto texts in connection with the Bankside, Globe, or Cambridge editions, or with any edition that follows the Globe's notation. The clerk of the publication committee is Mr. L. L. Lawrence, Box 323, Westfield, Union Co., N. J.

Mr. Skeat has just published through the Clarendon Press (New York: Macmillan) a selection of 'Twelve Facsimiles of Old English Manuscripts,' one of which (plate ix.) "seems to be an autograph of the author" of 'Piers Plowman.' The MSS. range from the ninth to the fifteenth century, the latest being "probably but little older than the date (1477) of the introduction of printing into England." The first four of the dozen examples are in the so-called Anglo-Saxon (Celtic) hand; the remainder in the Anglo-French. The distinction between these two types is clearly pointed out in his introduction by Mr. Skeat, and he passes from a detailed discussion of the forms of the letters to an exhibition of the principal abbreviations, modes of correction, punctuation, errors, glosses, etc. In short, he furnishes in connection with his texts an excellent discipline for scholars who would like to be able to check the readings of MSS. adopted by editors. The quarto plates are confronted with transcriptions in clear letter-press; and the extracts v.–vii. are all to be found in Morris's 'Specimens of English.' Mr. Skeat's service merits a grateful recognition.

To undertake to furnish an encyclopædia of politics in 336 duodecimo pages seems almost a farcical enterprise. Nevertheless the 'Politisches Konversations-Lexikon' of Dr. H. Normann (Stuttgart: Levy & Muller; New York: B. Westermann & Co.) does manage to convey a good deal of useful and condensed information. Much of it, indeed, is calculated to be useful mainly to that large class of readers whose only literature is newspapers; such will no doubt be glad to have a brief manual at hand to answer questions that people of a higher degree of culture do not often need to ask. Naturally the little book is fuller in regard to the German Empire than to foreign countries, and on that score may be recommended to American readers who take an interest in German politics but have infrequent opportunities to learn its details and intricacies.

M. Jusserand's excellent series of "Grands Écrivains Français" grows rapidly. The latest volume to appear, and it is one of the best, is the 'Fénelon' of M. Paul Janet. A fourth series of the essays in criticism contributed by M. Anatole France to the *Temps*, and now gathered into a volume, 'La Vie Littéraire' (Paris: Calmann Lévy), is as bright, as inconsequent, as clever, and as delicate as any of its predecessors. Among other entertaining matters, it contains two useful and sensible papers on plagiarism, a sympathetic criticism of the lively lady who calls herself "Gyp," a pathetic account of the forlorn comedian poet, Albert Glatigny, and a cordial analysis of the character of Julian the Apostate.

The "Théâtre Complet" of M. Legouvé we noted some months ago. Now the first volume has appeared of the "Théâtre Complet" of the late Octave Feuillet, containing the "Romance of a Poor Young Man," by which he was best known in America. Announcement

is made also of a "Théâtre Complet" of the late Edmond Gondinet.

Prof. Homer B. Hulbert, an American scholar, for the past six years connected with the Royal Corean College in Séoul, has published a political geography in the *en-mun* or native character. It treats of the physical, political, and social conditions of the various countries of the world, with their natural and artificial products. Such a work is greatly needed in a country in which the vast majority of the ten millions or more of the natives still wonder, as they did in Hendrik Hamel's day, how the sun can shine on so many countries at once. Probably because of its wonderful simplicity and perfect adaptation to the spoken language, the native literati despise the *en-mun*, which is a true alphabet, and write only in Chinese. Prof. Hulbert's example will be a wholesome one, apart from the value of the book as an illuminator. The same author has in preparation a much needed work on the folk-lore of Corea, together with a sketch of its mythology, history, and politics. One of the most interesting questions concerning the Far East is that of the origin and racial affinities of the Corean people. It is understood that Corea will have a good exhibition at the Columbian Exposition in Chicago.

'Boyd's Philadelphia Business Directory' in its current edition (Philadelphia: C. E. Howe Co.) counts its thirty-fourth year. It is a compact volume of nearly 1,500 pages, divided into an alphabetical resident and copartnership register, a classified business register, and a city register. It appears to leave nothing to be desired except, perhaps, a map of the city.

'Evolution in Religion,' by Rev. W. W. McLane (Congregational Publishing Society), is the latest addition to what has come to be called "the Prof. Drummond literature." The author has a good knowledge of the earlier literature of Evolution, and is himself an amateur in some lines of scientific experiment; and the result is, in our judgment, a firmer sense of reality in the scientific than in the religious parts of his volume.

The second number of the *New World* (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) fulfils the promise of the first issue of that new religious quarterly in point of range and tolerance of differing opinion. The positions taken by most of the contributors are at once to be inferred from their names, and it is perhaps for this reason that the article of Mr. Nobuta Kishimoto, "How I came into Christianity," seems to have peculiar freshness. It certainly lets one into the secret of Japanese hostility to Christianity, and exposes some of the inherent weaknesses of missionary methods, while its principal force is to be found in its showing how provisional and unsatisfactory are the answers which the theology of the missionaries gives to the deeper questioning of the Japanese mind.

Theatrical periodicals rarely prosper when they rise above the level of an ordinary trade-paper. Yet the *Revue d'Art Dramatique* still struggles along in Paris, and that feeble monthly, the *Theatre*, continues to appear in London. Now announcement is made of an *Allgemeine Theater-Revue*, to be edited by Herr Max Henze, and to be published in Berlin. Another German announcement is a 'Biographisches Bühnen-Lexicon des Deutschen Theater,' by O. G. Flüggen, to contain some 6,500 biographical articles (Munich: A. Brüchmann).

We have before us the prospectus of *Jahresberichte für neuere Deutsche Litteraturgeschichte* (Stuttgart: J. G. Göschen), of which the first volume will deal with the publications of or about the year 1890. A large staff will cooperate with the three editors, Julius Elias, Max Herrmann, and Siegfried Szamatólski, and has assigned to it for critical estimation the several works, articles, etc., relating to the period and branch appropriate to each member: as, (1) General Part, eight subdivisions; (2) from the middle of the fifteenth to the beginning of the seventeenth century, eight subdivisions; (3) from the beginning of the seventeenth century to the middle of the eighteenth, five subdivisions, etc. According to this scheme, four scholars will be critics of Goetheana, one of Schiller literature, one of Luther, etc., and the general topics in each period—lyrical and epic poetry, drama, didactics—will be similarly apportioned.

The dependence of the scholarly world on the industry of German students is nowhere better illustrated than in the unrivalled *Geographisches Jahrbuch*, of which the fifteenth volume is lately issued from Gotha. It contains a concise statement of the progress of the world in terrestrial physics, geological investigation, meteorology, oceanography, and ethnology for the past two years; these subjects alternating with certain others in the volumes of even number. An index of authors consulted gives a means of ready reference to the active workers in these sciences.

Putnam's Monthly Historical Magazine (Salem, Mass.) for May begins volume and number one of a new series, and has for its first paper a sketch of Gen. Israel Putnam by the Rev. Alfred Putnam, D.D., reprinted from Part II. of Mr. Eben Putnam's 'History of the Putnam Family in England and America,' which reaches us together with the *Magazine*, and is illustrated with a portrait and with a view of Putnam's well-preserved birthplace.

A beautiful relief map of the United States, compiled by Henry Gannett, has just been added to the series in course of publication by the United States Geologic Survey. The scale is about 115 miles to the inch. The degrees of elevation are agreeably shaded, the hundred-foot line from Calais, Me., to the Rio Grande being especially emphasized. Almost all of Delaware, Florida, and Louisiana is below this altitude. Almost all of Mississippi is below 500 feet; of Indiana and Illinois below 1,000 feet.

A valuable report on "Irrigation and Water Storage in the Arid Regions," by Gen. A. W. Greely, has been published as "Ex. Doc. No. 287" by the House of Representatives. Its full measure of value is difficult to determine without table of contents, index, or cross reference between the text, the appendices, and the numerous maps. It opens with a report on the climatology of the arid region by Gen. Greely, accompanied by many tables of temperature and rainfall, various diagrams, and a fine series of climatic maps. A series of reports is appended by Lieut. W. A. Glassford, on Arizona, New Mexico, California, and Nevada, for which the author's former residence on duty in those States and Territories has well fitted him. The volume contains a great store of information.

Mr. Richard H. Dana's paper on the "Practical Working of the Australian System of Voting in Massachusetts" has been printed as No. 55 of the Publications of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Philadelphia. It will be useful to the friends of ballot reform in States not yet provided with statutes, or imperfectly provided.

The American Philosophical Society, Philadelphia, will take measures to celebrate appropriately next year its 150th anniversary.

The Glenmore School for the Culture Sciences will open in the Adirondacks on July 1 and be held for two months. Application should be made to Mr. Thomas Davidson, Keene, Essex County, N. Y.

—Last March a meeting of Harvard graduates was held in Boston to discuss the feasibility of founding a magazine devoted to the interests of Harvard University. Bishop Phillips Brooks presided, and the sentiment was so favorable to the scheme that a committee was appointed to get the opinions of the general body of graduates. Circulars sent out have elicited a very satisfactory response; the feeling is widespread that such a magazine is needed, and sufficient money has already been subscribed to warrant its publication. The first number will be issued about Oct. 1. The scope of the magazine is to furnish a field wherein educational and other topics concerning the University can be discussed; to supply graduates all over the country with complete and authentic reports of the current life of the University, and so to bind more closely the relations between the alumni and Harvard. The magazine will advocate no particular policy, nor be the organ of any clique, but it will represent as fully as possible the various opinions of Harvard men. It will be called the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, will contain about 125 pages of the size of the *Forum*, and, for the present, will be issued quarterly. Several important contributions have already been secured, and it is hoped that Harvard men everywhere will coöperate by sending news and communications of general interest. It is intended that the magazine shall be the medium through which class secretaries may make announcements to their classes and furnish news more frequently than is possible in the infrequent class reports. Subscriptions, at one dollar per year, should be sent to Warren K. Blodgett, jr., No. 7 Acacia Street, Cambridge, Mass. In order that the publication of the magazine may rest on a firm basis, an association has been formed, each member of which pledges himself to pay five dollars annually for three years. Many graduates have already joined this association, and it is hoped that many more will do so. The association will have a meeting during Commencement week to elect officers and a council which shall permanently direct the magazine.

—A correspondent writes to us:

"Has attention ever been called to the curious and lasting impression made upon Washington by Addison's 'Cato'? It is all the more remarkable as it is doubtful if Washington was an appreciative reader of the masterpieces of English literature. His library contained a few volumes of general literature, much on agriculture, and a few controversial tracts on the Revolution. He was an ardent student of the works on agriculture, carefully summarizing them in note-books; but of the controversial pamphlets, even when they discussed his own deeds, he records no opinion. I was recently shown by Mr. George L. Rives of New York copies of the Clinton-Cornwallis pamphlets, which had belonged to Washington and bore his signature. There was not a line or a mark in the two pamphlets to show that they had been read by him, much less criticised. It was only when Monroe published his labored 'Examination of the Conduct of the Executive' that Washington in his retirement annotated the margins with curt and sharp rejoinders, in defence of his own policy. With this exception, I know of no other instance in which he indulged in such a practice. A stray note, of little interest, may give evidence of his reading; but even such evidences are rare. In his copy of Adam Smith's 'Wealth of Nations,' which is now in the possession of Mr. Wharton of Philadelphia, Washington queried the good Scotch word *fiar*, as a possible misprint for *fair;* so we know he must have read the volumes. This poverty of record renders more noteworthy the deep impression made by 'Cato.' In 1758, when on the frontier with Bouquet, he wrote

to Mrs. George William Fairfax: 'I should think our time more agreeably spen', believe me, in playing a part in 'Cato,' with the company you mention, and myself doubly happy in being the *Juba* to such a *Marcia* as you must make.' Beginning with 1775, he frequently uses the words in his military correspondence: ' 'Tis not in mortals to command success'—a quotation from the play. Another twenty years passed, and, wearied by the anxieties of the Presidency, he longs for retirement, and continually quotes another sentence from 'Cato': 'The post of honor is the private station.' Thus from 1758 to 1795, 'Cato' is the only bit of literature that Washington gives any evidence of having studied. His quotations are usually taken from a much humbler source—the almanac—practical maxims of business, common sayings, and the like."

—A timely publication is 'Das literarische und artistische Kunstwerk und sein Autorschutz' (Manheim: Bensheimer), "a juridical-æsthetic study," by J. Kohler, Professor of Law in the University of Berlin. The motto on the title-page, "Der richtige Weg zur Erkenntniss des Autorrechts führt durch die Erkenntniss der Kunst hindurch," is the clear and concise expression of the purpose of the book, namely, to show by critical analyses of the essential character of literary productions and works of art the grounds on which they are entitled to legal protection as personal property. From this point of view the author reviews many decisions of courts in different countries, accepting or rejecting them according as they conform or fail to conform to the principles which he has established. He has chapters on the formative arts, lyrical and dramatic poetry, novels, music, and the musical drama. He does not confine himself, however, to these forms of artistic and literary creativeness, but treats incidentally of scientific and historical works, compilations, translations, maps, programmes, and other printed matter. A catalogue of pictures, for example, he would recognize as legal property only so far as it contains observations of an artistic, biographical, or historical character. Prof. Kohler not only is a distinguished writer on law, particularly on the subject of patents, but has also essayed to climb the German Parnassus, having recently issued a volume of lyrical poems, and is a man of judgment in the provinces of æsthetics and belles-lettres. The work before us is exceedingly interesting and instructive simply as a series of critical papers on art and literature, independently of its legal bearings. As a rational plea for the extension of copyright we fear it will prove to be "caviare to the general," including the mass of our legislators.

—Some months ago, in reviewing the Journal of the Historical Society in the University of Tokio, we hinted at the probable results of the application of the critical method to the study of Japanese history. Japan is a country in which the Government is trying to keep yoked together a theocracy and a representative system, with a Parliament and written Constitution. Such a thing as a scientific investigation into the origin of the primitive Japanese and their rulers is simply moral dynamite. The Mikado is still popularly reckoned to be a god, and even the Constitution of 1889 was issued by the theocratic Emperor as the gift of his divine ancestors to the people of Japan. When, therefore, the learned Prof. Kumé of the University published, in the Historical Society's Journal, his critical and exhaustive monograph which showed that Shinto was originally the worship of Heaven, and the worship of the dead, deification of the Mikados, etc., a corruption and aftergrowth, the fanatical Shintoists at once marked him for punishment. Yet, even confined to the Society's Journal, the essay might have lain many months without causing explosion. When, however, Mr. Taguchi, a patriotic editor, long known as a Christian, though now not professedly so, republished it in his daily journal, the shock was tremendous. Mr. Taguchi's motive in giving greater publicity to the paper, and reinforcing it with a commendatory editorial, was to show that the indigenous religion of Japan was no local cult, but was substantially in accord with the early world of primitive monotheism. The fanatical Shintoists and the orthodox politicians in the penetralia of the Court, however, saw at once that the logical consequence of Prof. Kumé's paper was to destroy the doctrine of the divine origin of the Imperial family, for, instead of the Mikado's ancestors coming from heaven, Mr. Kumé shows that they came from Corea. Mr. Kumé was accordingly waited on by a delegation of Shintoists, who labored with him for five hours to obtain a retraction. Their non-success having been reported to those in authority, Mr. Kumé was placed on the retired list, and practically disgraced by the stigma of governmental disapproval, and he has since resigned. The Shintoists charged Mr. Kumé with making Shinto, the holy religion of Japan, "a branch of Christianity." Mr. Taguchi in his paper rallies to the aid of the scholar, and shows that Prince Mito, author of the standard history 'Dai Nihon Shi,' was even more guilty than Prof. Kumé; for he, the true author of the revolution of 1868, which restored the Mikado to supreme power, omits all account of "the divine ages," and declares them purely mythical. Intense excitement has been created all over Japan among native scholars by this political interference with investigation, under the Constitution sworn to in the name of all the Imperial ancestors and heavenly gods, which provides that "Japanese subjects shall enjoy freedom of religious belief," and the liberty of speech, writing, and publication "within the limits of the law."

—Prof. Kumé, with marvellous wealth of knowledge, argument, and quotation from the ancient books of Japan, shows that Shinto was originally a form of monotheism. All the religious ceremonies of the Japanese court rest really on the worship of Heaven. The original bent of the Japanese mind was, as in China, towards monotheism. The mention of inferior deities, polytheism, and the worship of the dead are, as the records show, aftergrowths in times much later. Even the great national festivals still celebrated and popularly supposed to be in honor of the sun-goddess, the Mikado's ancestor, were at first celebrations in honor of the Great One in Heaven. In the Kojiki, or most ancient Japanese writings, it is distinctly stated that Amatérasu, the sun-goddess herself, celebrated the Niiname (offering of the new rice to the kami, or gods), the most famous of these festivals. The imperial shrine at Isé was at first a temple for the worship of Heaven, and the palace sanctuary for the same purpose. Not one of the first emperors was deified after death, apotheosis of the Mikados dating from the corruption of Shinto by the imported religion of Buddha. Only in this era of decay was the ruler of the country given a place in the worship, and the connection made by attributing to him a descent from heaven. All this was done in order that Shinto might be used as an engine of government. The elaborate details in the ancient rituals relating to self-purification, the ranking of offences against purity as sins, the uncleanness of dead bodies, etc., all show that human beings could not possibly have been worshipped in the original cult. Even the three divine regalia preserved as the palladia of the imperial line of Japan, and alleged to have been given in heaven to the Mikado's ancestors for the conquest of the aborigines, come under scrutiny. Documentary evidence shows that the mirror, crystal ball, and sword were originally emblems of the wisdom, benevolence, and dignity of the heaven-ruler. The "inferior" or "evil" gods, said to have been subdued by the grandson of the sun-goddess, form no part of true Shinto. The "coming down" from heaven of the conquerors is interpreted to mean their descent from the civilized into the wild regions. Prof. Kumé claims that his purpose, apart from the search for truth, was to exalt Shinto to a higher plane, and to show that Heaven of the early Japanese was the same as the Amida of the Buddhists and the God of the Christians. Apart from its unlooked-for local political interest, the document has a high value to the student of comparative religion, and should be translated into English. Odd as it may seem, almost every document promulgated by either the Executive or the Parliament of Japan is inscribed with the terms "Téi Koku Nihon" (country ruled by a theocratic dynasty), or "Ko-koku" (the land of the divinely-descended Mikado).

FISKE'S DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

The Discovery of America. By John Fiske. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892.

THERE is something of supererogation in characterizing Mr. Fiske's work at this date. We are all familiar with his pleasant style, which holds the attention and offers no obstacle of its own to the flow of thought; his ease of elucidation; his art of putting things, springing from thorough comprehension of a subject, in union with a strong and precise imagination. In the discovery of this continent Mr. Fiske has a most congenial subject. Two lines of study, he tells us, carried on for thirty years, have here converged, one "of that strange world of savagery and barbarism to which civilized Europeans were for the first time introduced in the course of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries," "nowhere so full of instructive lessons as in aboriginal America, which had pursued its own course of development, cut off and isolated from the Old World, for probably more than fifty thousand years"; the other, of the curious chain of beliefs and of events which brought Columbus to these shores. So many were the misconceptions of those who were first brought into contact with the aborigines, so many cases of insufficient evidence exist in the records of discovery, that nowhere could Mr. Fiske's strong common sense have been more profitably employed than in clearing this matter from the confusion with which ignorance and perverted ingenuity have combined to enshroud it. The investigation of the sources has been thoroughly and carefully made, and the result is not a compilation for popular consumption only, but a work of independent research, seriously undertaken and worthily performed; attractive, even fascinating, to a wide circle, it also appeals, and is meant to appeal, as an essay in their own field, to professional historians.

Mr. Fiske's defects, judged by this standard, are patent, lying in the very elements of his

popularity. To see so vividly is sometimes to see one thing to the exclusion of others equally suggestive, and these small but illuminated fields of vision easily run together in a connected chain. This is the temper of mind that in research provokes the formation of opinions as naturally as a rod inserted in certain solutions induces crystallization. Mr. Fiske tends unconsciously to write as an advocate, and this is a warp not easily got out of the grain.

The interest of the book is largely anthropological, and some of its best work is the exposition of present knowledge about the aborigines of this continent. Mr. Fiske follows Mr. Lewis H. Morgan and the new school of American ethnology in admitting, apart from the Eskimo, but one race of aborigines on this continent, and appraises the grades of culture attained by the various tribes according to Morgan's triple division of the states of savagery and barbarism. The Fuegians and the Indians of the Lower Columbia, the most degraded of all, fall within the upper status of savagery; the greater part of the Indians were in the lower status of barbarism, though some, like the Iroquois, Creeks, and Cherokees, had made some advance towards the next stage, or middle period, of barbarism. This stage is distinguished from the period below it, in the Old World, by the domestication of animals other than dogs; but in America, where only one tribe, the Incas, had found an animal which they could domesticate, the use of extensive tillage and of adobe brick, or stone, in building serves the same purpose. The use of iron marks the passage from this stage to the upper period of barbarism, which in its turn passes into civilization with the invention of phonetic writing. According to Mr. Morgan and Mr. Fiske, no American tribe had got beyond the middle stage of barbarism at the time of the Conquest, and this period therefore covers alike the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico and Arizona, the Aztecs and Mayas of Mexico and Central America, and the Incas of Peru. It should be said that Mr. Fiske does not follow Morgan to the full extent of his destructive criticism of the Spanish accounts of Mexico, but possibly he follows him too far; this last period is too inclusive to be of much practical use, we suspect. We must know more about native systems of writing in Mexico and Central America before we can grade these tribes accurately.

Not to linger over this interesting subject, we pass to the discovery, and note first that Mr. Fiske utterly refuses to entertain the idea of a discovery of America, in any proper sense, except by Columbus. The Phœnicians, the Chinese, the Moors, the Welsh he dismisses to the limbo of eccentric literature with a flourish of his pen. The Zeni voyages he treats after the manner of Mr. Major, although admitting the possibility that the account of Drogeo may be based on some such journey as that later performed by Ingram or by Cabeza de Vaca. The voyages of the Northmen are examined at length, and we think with very sound and valuable results. While distinctly rejecting the minuter identifications of Rafn and the vagaries of Prof. Horsford, the historic intent and fundamental truthfulness of the Eric saga are well maintained, and the famous comparison of that saga with the 'Iliad' by the committee of the Massachusetts Historical Society is held to be unfortunate and unjust. "It is in the highest degree probable that Leif Ericsson and his friends made a few voyages to *what we now know to have been* the coast of America; but it is an abuse of language to say that they 'discovered' America." "In the midsummer of 1492 it needed to be discovered as much as if Leif Ericsson or the whole race of Northmen had never existed." "In no sense was any real contact established between the eastern and western halves of our planet until the great voyage of Columbus in 1492" (i., 255). The reality of the voyages, though we cannot retrace them, is witnessed by the sagas, as well as by their inherent probability. This seems to us nearer the truth than the more conservative view taken by Mr. Winsor.

The treatment of Columbus is not especially noteworthy in itself, but it is interesting to compare it with the representation which Mr. Winsor has just given us. Columbus is to Mr. Fiske no saint, but a man of worth and high purpose. Not condemning much that to Mr. Winsor is offensive or significant of mental or moral weakness, Mr. Fiske regards Columbus more leniently, and, perhaps, with an easier comprehension of mediævalism. Mr. Fiske had not the advantage of writing this part of his book with Mr. Winsor's work before him, but he notices the latter in his preface, and says:

"No one can deny that Las Casas was a keen judge of men, or that his standard of right and wrong was quite as lofty as any one has reached in our own time. He had a much more intimate knowledge of Columbus than any modern historian can ever hope to acquire, and he always speaks of him with warm admiration and respect. But how could Las Casas ever have respected the feeble, mean-spirited driveller whose portrait Mr. Winsor asks us to accept as that of the Discoverer of America?"

We are not quite sure of that first assumption on which so much is hung, but certainly Las Casas found a ready excuse for the attitude of Columbus toward the natives in the fact that Columbus after all had short experience of the results of his own acts. Las Casas lived in Hispaniola eight years after the death of Columbus before he freed his slaves and took up his crusade. Nevertheless, Mr. Fiske gets very featly over the slavery question, and they who would know the exact truth must linger where he runs.

Mr. Fiske has devoted much attention to Vespucius, concerning whom, as he rightly says, most of us are in Egyptian darkness. There is nowhere a better exposition of the whole matter of his voyages than in the first chapter of Mr. Fiske's second volume. (But a chapter of 212 pages! It was not necessary that Mr. Fiske should hypnotize the reader to secure his attention.) In 1504 Vespucius wrote a letter to a friend describing four voyages to the Western lands in which he had taken part. This letter is preserved in a Latin translation in the *Cosmographiæ Introductio* of Waldseemueller, printed in 1507, and in an Italian text of uncertain date. The last three voyages are unquestioned, but because the first voyage, if made, as asserted, in 1497, would, in the light of our knowledge, deprive Columbus of the honor of first seeing the American continent, it has been vigorously attacked with strong and ingenious arguments. The charge made by Herrera that Vespucius invented this voyage to steal from Columbus the honor of discovering the continent, is not now accepted by any reputable scholar. Mr. Fiske disposes of it neatly. If this 1497 voyage was not made, Cuba was not circumnavigated until 1508, and until then Columbus was supposed to have discovered the continent, not in 1498, but in 1492, when he discovered Cuba. Hence, to invent a voyage to antedate this discovery, Vespucius would have had to go back of 1492 instead of 1498. But if the voyage was made in 1497, as described, then Vespucius did see the continent before Columbus, and there can be no question of deceit. Mr. Fiske, however, follows Varnhagen in believing that Vespucius sailed on a voyage in 1497, but not to *Parias*, or the Pearl Coast, as the Latin version of the letter says.

Some mistake there evidently is, because the letter gives the latitude of "Parias" as 23° N., which brings it on the coast of Mexico. The Italian text, which Mr. Fiske believes to be the original, reads *Lariab* instead of *Parias*, and this, Varnhagen held, is a native term applied by Vespucius to the eastern coast of Mexico. On this theory Vespucius sailed from Honduras along the shore to some point on the Atlantic coast of the United States, and of course proved the insularity of Cuba long before the time of Ocampo. Now it is a curious fact that La Cosa, who had sworn in 1498 that Cuba was a continent, in 1500 put it on his map as an island with a doubtful western coast, while the Cantino map of 1502 makes Cuba an island, and tantalizingly indicates its relation to Florida. When it is shown that Vespucius was engaged in Spain from 1495 fitting out an expedition which sailed, not in 1498, as is commonly stated, but in 1496, and when we find Oviedo stating that the bay of Honduras was discovered, not by Columbus, but by Vincent Yañez Pinzon, Juan Diaz de Solis, and Pedro de Ledesma, before 1500, it appears that to associate the first voyage of Vespucius with this voyage of Pinzon, and place it in 1497 instead of 1506, does give a working hypothesis. Whether it gives more than that is not clear; we cannot get over as easily as does Mr. Fiske the silence of all parties in the great trial about this Pinzon voyage of 1497, nor are we sure that the cartographical evidence is entirely favorable.

The name "America" is shown to have had no connection with this first voyage; it grew out of the voyages in which Vespucius coasted along South America to 34° S., and was supposed, by crossing the equator, to have discovered that hypothetical fourth part of the land masses of the globe, the home of the antipodes, according to the scheme of the Latin geographers, correlative to the home of the antichthones in the southern part of the eastern hemisphere. In the classical and mediæval geography, as Mr. Fiske well says, the contrasted hemispheres were not the east and west, but the north and south. It was in honor of this great discovery of the antipodes that Waldseemueller and his friends proposed to affix to the southern continent, the "new world," the name of its discoverer. This is well set forth, and constitutes a distinct and valuable contribution to our geographical history.

Mr. Fiske allows himself in this work a greater number of colloquialisms and little pleasantries than we have before observed in his writings. We enter no complaint in behalf of the offended dignity of Clio, but we somewhat fear the author will get himself into trouble by his facetiousness. Referring to the exemption of Columbus from the edict against riding mules, he adds (i., 345):

"In practice this precious decree, like other villanous prohibitory laws that try to prevent honest people from doing what they have a perfect right to do, proved so vexatious and ineffective withal that it had to be perpetually fussed with and tinkered. One year you could ride a mule and the next year you couldn't."

It is understood to be five years since one could "ride a mule" in Cambridge. We fear that Mr. Fiske's preference for the "wet system" over the "dry system" is not confined to its geographical application, and on this count we commend him to the prayerful consideration of the prohibitionists. But worse re-

mains behind. In a note (i, 291) he speaks of "benighted heathen countries afflicted with robber tariffs," and actually quotes as still "useful" the advice of a fourteenth-century traveller to treat the custom-house officers with respect and make them something of a present, because then "they will always be ready to appraise your wares below their real value." We ask our Republican contemporaries to put their hands upon their hearts and tell us if a man capable of such sentiments can possibly have any correct views upon the discovery of America.

The index is made with intelligence and evident care, and is good in method but not quite inclusive enough. In a work of this kind, which is practically a reference book, one should be allowed to come very near the ideal of indexing—the inclusion of every name and every fact. We were curious to know what Mr. Fiske thought of *Irland-it-mikla* and *Huitramannaland*, but the index failed us, though both names are treated of in the book; and we have noted one or two similar cases.

MORE NOVELS.

The Three Fates. By F. Marion Crawford. Macmillan & Co.

Pushed by Unseen Hands. By Helen H. Gardener. Commonwealth Company.

The Pot of Gold, and Other Stories. By Mary E. Wilkins. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

A Day at Laguerre's and Other Days. By F. Hopkinson Smith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Van Bibber and Others. By Richard Harding Davis. Harper & Brothers.

A House of Pomegranates. By Oscar Wilde. London: James R. Osgood, McIlvaine & Co.

Mr. Crawford, that Gaze's Tourist among romancers, has turned his back upon India, Arabia, Babylon, and Rome, and now folds his errant quill over Washington Square, New York, N. Y. His touch, in all that relates to the entourage of a story, is here, as elsewhere, most happy. The scene is sufficiently characteristic of New York and of the Hudson River to give atmosphere to the book, yet are we not drenched in afternoon tea, choked with cumulative Knickerbocker names, nor deafened with street cries. Life in New York, it seems, may be conducted as elsewhere, and a novelist need not be either a landscape gardener or a gatherer of crumbs from under the tables of society. On the other hand, Mr. Crawford's art of telling appears to have suffered somewhat in his latest work. Over and above the intricate relations of his hero to the three Fates, of whom more anon, it has been, in an evil hour, borne in upon him that, along with the story, it would be a good thing to present the analysis of the evolution from a paragrapher of a distinguished novelist, recording minutely both his subjective and his objective helps and hindrances, from his ink to his love affairs. Whether this be autobiographic or only the "cautionary tale" of our childhood, is of no consequence. The fact remains, and is one regretfully to be mentioned of the author of 'Mr. Isaacs' and 'Khaled,' that three-quarters of the book are prosy. Your novel-reader is irked by page after page of close writing about the pen-and-ink habit; and Mr. Crawford, infected by his own example, adds page upon page of close writing about motives, about vanity, about mental processes, till one cries out, "Leave off your damnable faces and begin."

When the story arrives, it is found to have certain original aspects and striking situations. The attitudes of a man towards three women who (up to date) are the controlling human influences in his life (his profession is his real fate), afford ground for realistic treatment which it is tribute to say does not become absurd or vulgar. We only wonder, since Mr. Crawford has thus boldly attacked, seriously and not in burlesque, the subject of the polygamousness of the human heart, why he hedges, as less able writers do, by saying, in reference to the latest flame, that "the others" were not real loves. Why not openly take the ground that, for the George Woods of the world, being in love is a movable feast? We should have expected it of so clever a writer and one who seems here to be intent on realism. George Wood finds it "better to have loved ever so unhappily than to have been married to any of the Constances or the Mamies of this world!" So he says, and yet one has a sneaking fancy that as he had tenderly loved three ladies and hoped to marry each of the three, he might have gone on and found happiness even with a lesser than the goddess to whom we leave him devoting a hopeless affection. The conviction in the reader's mind that he did not understand himself perhaps only heightens the naturalness of the character. George Wood would not, in theory at all events, have sympathized with David Grieve in making the best of a tiresome fate and finding his reward. He stands rather as type of that man in whose heart the cry is, "The queen is dead; long live the queen," who honestly thinks he never loved till now, but of whom one ventures to suspect that with him, however unconsciously, "to love" means "to be near to." Both types are interestingly new in literature. Young ladies will find them very unheroic. Parents, guardians, and realists will rejoice in the overthrow of the unreal and one-emotioned young gentleman who for decades has contributed largely to the discontent of the young feminine mind.

There is a wordy preface to the little volume of tales called 'Pushed by Unseen Hands,' in which the writer heralds her own praises. First she quotes Dr. Spitzka, who warmly commends the scientific value of her stories, placing upon them "far more than a mere literary value." Next we have Don Piatt's opinion that they "are rare fiction," and that "facts, science, and reformation work belong in another field." The reader, being thus confronted with the two horns of the dilemma, is now promptly seized with the predisposition to side with Dr. Spitzka as to the literary criticism, and with Don Piatt as to the scientific; nor is his prejudice at once dispelled by beholding that each of the little sketches is preceded by an array of three or four quotations, ranging in source from the Bible to Ingersoll. The preluding being finally disposed of, most of the stories are found to be slight but clever and observant studies, fairly well written, of life under various aspects. The psychologic studies are better than the reformatory ones; the pictures of poor-devilism, with no tendency at all, are perhaps better than either. Let the author be advised to remove from another edition the offending guide-posts, as many of the stories are sufficiently suggestive to speak for themselves, and the remainder not good enough to be advertised by bush.

Great unevenness also prevails among the stories which make up Miss Wilkins's latest volume. But criticism is disarmed by knowing that the collection was made, without the author's knowledge or consent, from publications of long ago. They show an odd touching of hands between Yankee-land and fairyland—calico and cloth-of-gold. Not lacking humor or imagination, but jerky in construction, a few only of them flow smoothly and wear their fancies without a difference, from first to last—notably the amusing story of the reformatory for ill-behaved children, called "The Patchwork School."

Mr. Hopkinson Smith's sketches are brimful of color, vivid if not solid, laid on with the rapid, deft touches of an artist and an enthusiast, making the Bronx to blossom as the Grand Canal. "When the paints mix too slowly," he says, "you use your thumb, smearing and blending with a bit of rag—anything for the effect." The result is a series of brilliant impressions left on the eye—impressions which, in their out-of-door freshness and fragrance, get close, as well, to the Dryad at the back of every man's brain. The human interests are gracefully touched in, with feeling, but with an avoidance of the emotional entirely in keeping with the modern workmanship of the whole. An excellent sense of climax marks the chronicle of each of these nine "Days," with the exception of that devoted to "Hutchins." A rather hang-dog little affair is the whole of this story, indeed, as if it were an understudy for one more worthy to stand among the mystic nine. But this is only one, and, all in all, there can be no pleasanter way to get the tang of Mexico, of Spain, of Squantico, than to quaff the sparkling wine of this little volume.

If the library traveller prefers to linger in and near New York, taking Philadelphia for his Ultima Thule, let him follow the fortunes of Van Bibber, who comes up again fresh, smiling, and boutonnièred in a dozen adventures of Knickerbocker life. As a moralist, this charming old friend seems to us a bit of a *poseur;* but in the lighter affairs of life, as a struggler after economy, as a rescuer of lost collies, as a discourager of fraud in making a beggar just from breakfast eat a hearty meal under his personal inspection, he is truly engaging and debonair. Of the "Others," the most prominent are Gallegher, the renowned; and Mr. Hefty Burke, whose specialties are swimming and "scrapping." The strongest work in the book is to be found in "An Unfinished Story," which is masterly in its force and originality.

There is a glut of description and epithet in Mr. Oscar Wilde's book of fairy tales which leaves the reader with a strong sense of having fed on lucent syrup tinct with cinnamon, and having had too much of it. No language can compare with it except Ouida's when she is giving an inventory of the properties environing one of her heroines. Few basal ideas in fairy stories can bear this treatment; certainly not Mr. Wilde's. To make matters worse, he has chosen to relate them in a style paraphrasing Scripture, which gives to the whole the air of complexity aping simplicity without success. The weird decorations sown with studied carelessness among the margins heighten this effect, as do also the mediæval illustrations and the Grosvenor-Gallery covers. Mr. Wilde seems, on the whole, to have taken his stories something over-solemnly. In a less ostentatious setting, certain really poetic ideas found floating about in the volume would have gone further towards redeeming the inconsequent and spasmodic construction. The descriptions, in the opening story, of the weaving of the King's robe "on the loom of Sorrow and by the white hands of Pain," "the blood in the heart of the Ruby, and Death in the heart of

he Pearl," have a shuddering force, and are among the few things in the book that leave an afterglow in the mind.

LORD CANNING.

Earl Canning. By Sir H. S. Cunningham, K.C.I.E. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

THE case of the Cannings, father and son, is another proof of the precarious character of the principle of heredity when applied to human genius. Canning, the father, was a wonderfully gifted man, and a paragon of the brilliancy which the Eton and Oxford of those days worshipped, to the disparagement of plodding industry. Canning, the son, though eminent in his way, was by no means gifted as an orator or otherwise, but was a paragon of plodding industry. He was, indeed, laborious above measure, as his eulogistic biographer allows; and in the middle of the great Mutiny, when he ought to have kept his mind fresh and his nerve unshaken for vital questions, he would sit grinding at his desk from two A. M. to luncheon time without allowing himself even an interval for breakfast—the consequence being that his brain at last refused to work. He succeeded to his peerage when young, and was pushed forward in public life by the old colleagues and friends of his father, especially by Peel, his loyal attachment to whom is the best answer to the charges brought against Peel by Lord George Bentinck, or rather by Disraeli through Bentinck's lips, of ungenerous conduct towards his father. In course of time he was taken into the Cabinet; but he impressed his chief rather by his pertinacity than by his ability, and it was commonly believed that the chief was glad to relegate him to the Governor-Generalship of India, a grand but (as all was then calm) apparently not a difficult or dangerous post.

When the terrible news of the mutiny arrived in England, the general consternation was enhanced by the thought that the man whom fate had set to grapple with the peril was one of so moderate a reputation for ability as Lord Canning. He rose, however, to the occasion. The firmness of his character asserted itself, and he read the situation right. Probably he did better than his brilliant but somewhat fanciful and erratic sire could have done. Above all, he had the moral courage to restrain the cruel vengeance of the dominant race in the maddening hour of peril and afterwards of victory. At the expense of much temporary obloquy and moral suffering to himself, he saved not only the lives of the conquered, but the honor of his country. How fierce was the tide of sentiment against which he had to struggle will be seen when we remember that even in distant England the cry for vengeance was swelled not only by the moral rabble which always swells such cries, but by such men as Lord Shaftesbury and Mr. Ruskin. From the baffled terrorists of Calcutta the Governor-General earned the nickname of "Clemency Canning." It has become a title of glory, ratified by national gratitude, and it adheres to him for ever.

Most of this volume is taken up with the history of the Mutiny, of which a clear and instructive, though dry, account is given. Nothing seems more certain than that the cause, and the sole cause, of the outbreak, was the distribution of the greased cartridges, in which the Sepoys, and especially the Brahmins, saw an attempt to destroy their caste. This was the last of a series of mutinies, or disturbances, some, such as the mutiny at Vellore, on a large scale, all arising from the same cause. Mischief, it is true, as Sir H. S. Cunningham notes, was in the air. Native feeling had been offended by the efforts of the Government to restrain suttee, and alarmed by the aggressive attitude of missionaries. A shock had been given to the native dynasties by the unwise refusal to recognize the privilege of adoption. The Mussulmans were still brooding over their lost supremacy. Oude had been recently annexed, on the ground of its intolerable misgovernment by the native dynasty; by this, also, the native mind had been stirred, while, the army of the King of Oude having been disbanded, 60,000 native soldiers had been sent adrift. The cakes of mystery, the *chupatties*, were being clandestinely passed round, indicating that there was a commotion of some kind in the dark depths of Hindu sentiment, though their exact meaning is still unknown. It may be added that security had made the masters of India careless, that too many British officers had been drawn away from the native regiments by staff appointments, and that those who remained had been seeing too little of their men. Since the transit between England and India has become rapid, the Anglo-Indians have been more English and less Indian than before, and have fewer opportunities than they had of gaining insight into native movements. In former days, when the Anglo-Indian was for twenty or thirty years cut off from home, connections were commonly formed with native women, through whom, though the channel might not be the cleanest, useful knowledge was derived.

Be the British empire in India righteous and beneficent or not, it is beyond doubt a marvellous proof of the ruling and organizing powers of the Anglo-Saxon race. Nor was the fibre of that race ever more tremendously tested than it was when a handful of Anglo-Saxons stood up to face the great Mutiny, with the possible revolt of all the feudatories of Hindustan, some of them considerable military powers, and of the whole Hindu population, much of it by no means unwarlike, looming as hourly possibilities in the background. The insurgents, however, had at the outset a taste of the qualities of those against whom they had risen. Delhi was taken by the mutineers, and every European found in it who could not escape was put to death. But the British lieutenant, Willoughby, and his eight men in charge of the great magazine, held out there.

"They resolved early in the day that if they could not defend this invaluable store of ammunition, they would destroy it, though its destruction would almost certainly involve their own. For hours they defended their stronghold against an overpowering crowd of assailants. The train was laid; the sergeant who was to fire it stood ready. Willoughby took a last look out upon the Meerut road (the quarter from which aid was expected); the assailants were swarming on the walls; the word was spoken: a vast column of flame and smoke shot upward. Two thousand of the assailants were blown into the air. The thunder of that explosion announced to the mutineers that one great object in the seizure of Delhi had escaped their grasp."

The native army, upon which the power of the East India Company had rested, was no more. The system of double government had been found awkward. The abolition of the Company and the direct assumption of its realm by the Imperial Government naturally ensued. Yet there were those who at the time expressed their misgiving as to the probable results of a close political union between Great Britain and Hindustan. It is now to be seen how a democracy, such as England is becoming, can govern such a dependency as India.

The Beautiful in Music. By Dr. E. Hanslick. Translated by Gustav Cohen. Novello, Ewer & Co. Pp. 174.

MR. COHEN has made an excellent translation of Dr. Hanslick's famous little book on musical æsthetics; a translation which betrays not only a knowledge of musical terminology, but also the skill to render correctly the abstract philosophical terms which are unavoidable in such a treatise. It must be said, however, that Dr. Hanslick differs favorably from his German colleagues in the fact that he avoids metaphysical jargon and abstruse theorizing as much as possible, and that this is one reason why his book has, since 1854, passed through no less than eight editions in the original. Hanslick is the best-known musical critic of the time, and he owes his fame, not to any special superiority of knowledge, but to his literary art. Once a week, or oftener, he writes a feuilleton on current musical topics for the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse;* he has done this ever since 1844, and the best of these *causeries* have been republished in more than half-a-dozen volumes, 'Aus dem Concertsaal,' 'Moderne Oper,' etc., some of which have passed through several editions.

Another thing that has helped to make Dr. Hanslick conspicuous is the fact that he has for several decades been recognized as Wagner's most formidable enemy. He pronounced against all his works following "Lohengrin," treated Wagnerism as a disease, and prophesied that there would never be another Bayreuth Festival after 1876, and that the Nibelung Tetralogy was impossible outside of Bayreuth. The 'Bayreuther Taschen-Kalender' for 1892, however, shows that last year the Tetralogy, or parts of it, were given in twenty-one German cities, while the whole number of Wagner performances in seventy-nine German and Austrian cities was 963, a gain of eighty-four over the preceding year. And as for the Bayreuth Festivals, they are now given annually, and the tickets are all sold two months before the festival begins. In a word, Hanslick and his followers have suffered a tremendous defeat, and he has wisely kept quiet for several years, after making the audacious announcement that he had never opposed Wagner, but only the Wagnerites. In connection with the little treatise on 'The Beautiful in Music' the amusing fact deserves notice that Hanslick and his admirers fancy that the edge of it is turned against Wagner, whereas in truth its cardinal doctrine, rightly interpreted, is a confirmation of Wagner's principal dogma. This cardinal doctrine is that music cannot express *definite* emotions—which is just what Wagner believed, and what led him to insist that poetry should be added to music to give it a definite meaning or content. True, Dr. Hanslick gives this doctrine a different turn by insisting that the content or substance of music is purely musical and cannot be anything else. He defines music as *tönend bewegte Formen*, or "sound-forms in motion," which is about as valuable a definition as it would be to call painting "visual forms at rest."

The purely formal and mathematical view which Hanslick takes of music explains his whole attitude towards modern composers. He dislikes them all except Brahms, Brüll, Bruch, and others who have no power of emotional expression, but only a great command of "moving" the "sounding forms" according

to fixed rules. The vast majority of music-lovers care for music only so far as it expresses or rather arouses emotion; not so Hanslick. Ignoring the fact that all the great composers were stirred by music, as by nothing else, he declares that "it is well known that the action of music is most powerful of all in the case of savages"—an argument which can only be matched by this other (p. 26): "Music may undoubtedly awaken feelings of great joy or intense sorrow, but might not the same or a still greater effect be produced by the news that we have won the first prize in the lottery, or by the dangerous illness of a friend?" No doubt, but what has that to do with the question? No one has ever contended that music *alone* can arouse emotion.

Dr. Hanslick seems to be wofully ignorant of modern natural history, else he would not have disposed of the question of "Music in Nature" by alleging that there is no harmony in nature, nor any melody, but only rhythm. The facts discovered by Mersenne and Rameau, and developed by Helmholtz, that the basis of our harmonic system is to be found in the overtones which accompany fundamental tones, prove Hanslick's error as regards harmony; and when he insists that there is no melody—not even the germ of it—in bird song, he shows that he is unfamiliar with bird life, and knows nothing of the exquisite though stereotyped snatches of melody and melodic responses of birds. A perusal of Darwin's treatise on Sexual Selection would open his eyes as to bird song and the varied emotions of love, emulation, and jealousy which bird song "expresses."

It is useless to go into further details. Dr. Hanslick's whole treatise is based on incorrect premises, and is a tissue of errors and illogical conclusions. As already intimated, it owes its vogue to the fact that it is readable, and to its humor, which is amusing even when it is all wrong, as when he says: "Not the voices of animals but their gut is of importance to us; and the animal to which music is most indebted is not the nightingale but the sheep." Many of the most important branches of æsthetics are not even touched upon by Hanslick, but his little treatise is useful for its definite statement of a point of view, and its suggestiveness, as well as for a number of interesting details and *aperçus*. Among the latter this is one of the best:

"Music demands the keenest *watching* and the most untiring *attention*. In the case of intricate compositions this may even become a mental exertion. Many an *individual*, nay, many a *nation*, undertakes this exertion only with great reluctance. The monopoly of the soprano in the Italian school is mainly due to the mental indolence of the Italian people, who are incapable of that assiduous fixing of the attention so characteristic of Northern races, when listening to and enjoying a musical *chef d'œuvre*, with all its intricacies of harmony and counterpoint."

There is a whole philosophy of music, especially of operatic music, in that last sentence.

A Popular Handbook of the Ornithology of the United States and Canada, based on 'Nuttall's Manual.' By Montague Chamberlain. Vol. I., The Land Birds, pp. xiv., 473; Vol. II., pp. viii., 429. Sm. 8vo, cuts and colored frontispiece. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1891.

Thomas Nuttall was chiefly a botanist, and not much of a zoölogist. But he was fond of birds, had an eye for their forms, colors, and actions, and especially an ear for their notes, and wrote of them two small volumes which appeared in 1832 and 1834 respectively. This was when Ord and Bonaparte had finished with Wilson; Swainson and Richardson had just appeared (1831); and Audubon had arisen above the horizon. Nuttall's writing of the handful of birds he knew had a real fragrance, and in the course of years acquired a particular smack, comparable to that of Bewick. The attempt at a second edition in 1840 broke down, probably because Audubon was then in his zenith. From that day to this the possible reappearance of Nuttall has been a theme for discussion with more than one generation of ornithologists; and the original edition has become so rare and antiquated as to serve only the purposes of the virtuous bibliomaniac. We turned, therefore, to these two pretty volumes, handsomely bound, gilt-edged, with a brilliant column on a generous page, and full of pictures—we turned with a genuine interest and some anxiety, which gave way to surprise, to exasperation, to righteous indignation at last, when we saw that this "new Nuttall" is simply old Nuttall knocked into a cocked hat. Where is the Nuttall of our boyish dream? Where is the Nuttall of our bibliographical vision? Here are only the *disjecta membra*, mangled almost beyond recognition—the title twisted out of shape and conveying a wrong impression alike of the scope, contents, and authorship of the book; the text slashed into at the indiscretion of a singularly wanton pair of shears, and eviscerated of nearly or quite all of Nuttall's descriptions, to be replaced by singularly trivial and ineffectual characterizations of the birds themselves, of their nests, and of their eggs; Nuttall's nomenclature all gone, and, to make our misery hopeless, Nuttall's pictures (dear and familiar to us as the face of the old family clock in the hall, that has not kept time since we were born) gone too, and in their stead another series borrowed from a recent work, a few from a new hand, and a couple of chromos. The sad plight in which our "quaint and curious" author has been put seems all the more pathetic when we find him in the fix of having to carry along with him a lot of new matter by Mr. Chamberlain. This is well enough in itself, well-intended enough too, and, in fact, called for by the title. But we object to it as out of place, and as something that should not have been imposed upon our old friend Nuttall.

This is not a popular handbook of the ornithology of the United States and Canada by Montague Chamberlain, because it treats of the birds of only the lesser part of the area specified, and is mainly by Thomas Nuttall; while it is certainly not a real edition of Nuttall, for reasons already stated. Perhaps one reason why two generations of ornithologists failed to see their way to bring out a new Nuttall was the very difficulty of "editing" him to any useful purpose. It would have required a rare editorial tact, a certain delicacy of touch that could only be found in a thorough ornithologist who was also a thorough book-lover, thoroughly saturated with the traditions of his lore, who would have held Nuttall up to us in correct historical perspective, amid all the glamour of the legends that cluster about the name. Some vague sense of guilt seems to have crossed Mr. Chamberlain's mind during his persistent assault on the most obvious literary proprieties; for, as if to apologize for his own Icarian wax-works by eulogizing Nuttall's strong plume, he says (preface, p. vi):

"If a great advance has been made in the study of scientific ornithology—which term represents only the science of bird's skins, the names by which they are labelled, and the sequence of these names—in other words, the classification of birds—if this science has advanced far beyond Nuttall's work, the study of bird-life, the real history of our birds, remains just about where Nuttall and his contemporaries left it. The present generation of working ornithologists have been too busy in hunting up new species and in variety-making to study the habits of birds with equal care and diligence."

This is glaringly untrue. To say nothing of sixty years (1832–1892) of ornithological activity in every branch of the science, Mr. Chamberlain's own contributions to Canadian ornithology represent some good conscientious work, perhaps of more scientific value to-day than the whole contents of Nuttall's Manual. We could name a hundred living ornithologists who know more about more birds than Nuttall ever did; and we could cite some thousands of pages of contemporaneous bird-biography, of pure life-histories of birds, good in literary form and sound in scientific substance. We could give chapter and verse in support of our strictures, but have neither space nor patience to protract our pain. What we have written is scarcely a review; but it will serve its purpose if it be set down as a lamentation.

Zur Lebensgeschichte des General-Feldmarschalls Grafen von Moltke. Berlin: Mittler. 1892. Pp. xii + 353.

This Life of Moltke forms the first volume of the "Gesammelte Schriften und Denkwürdigkeiten" which began to be issued nearly a year ago, although it is the fourth volume in the order of publication. It is not so much a biography in the proper sense of the term as a collection of biographical, or rather autobiographical, materials. The volume opens with a few pages of "Family History" written by Moltke himself, in which he traces his descent from Matheus Moltke, "knight," who in the thirteenth century held estates in Mecklenburg in fee from Henry the Lion, the conqueror of that country. Then follow brief genealogical notes and personal reminiscences by his father, a concise sketch of his own career from his birth, October 26, 1800, to 1866, and various documents throwing a favorable light on his character and conduct as cadet in the Academy at Copenhagen and his high standing as officer in the Danish service. His only novel, entitled 'The Two Friends,' which was originally published in a Berlin periodical in 1827, is also reprin ed. It is by no means remarkable as a work of fiction, and reveals no strikingly original faculty of invention, but it contains many fine thoughts expressed in an easy and graceful style, and is especially valuable as an embodiment of the author's experiences and impressions and a reflection of his pure and noble personality. We have also the diaries of his journey to Constantinople in 1835–36 and of his sojourn at Rome in 1845, and an account of his travels in Spain in 1846 in the form of a letter addressed to his brother Fritz.

One of the most interesting portions of the work is the section entitled "Stillleben in Creisau," which gives a charming picture of his life on the Silesian estate purchased in 1867. In this quiet retreat, where his intense love of nature found full gratification, he was wont to spend, so far as possible, every summer, from early spring till late autumn. Here in the afternoon of July 15, 1870, as he was driving out in an open carriage with his brother Adolf and family, he met a messenger who handed him a telegram. Moltke read it and stuck it into his pocket, and, during the rest of the hour's drive, seemed absorbed in thought, so

that he paid less attention to the horses than usual and once ran against a curbstone. On his return, he leaped from the carriage and said to his brother, who had followed him into the house: "It is a stupid affair [*dumme Geschichte*]; I must go to Berlin to-night." He then went to his study, where he remained till tea-time. As he rose from the supper-table he struck it with his hand and exclaimed: "Let it come! With or without South Germany, we are ready." It was not until afterwards that his relations learned that the telegram was from the King, who deemed war inevitable and had determined to mobilize the army at once.

At Creisau he was accustomed to pass the greater part of the day in the open air, roaming through field and forest, watching the results of his experiments in raising bees and breeding trout, and giving special attention to arboriculture, of which he was passionately fond. When he was ninety years of age, he had the satisfaction of walking in the shadow of trees which he had planted with his own hands at sixty-eight. He would sit for hours in perfect silence listening to music, and never tired of arias from the operas of Mozart (his favorite composer) or from Beethoven's "Fidelio." He played whist nearly every evening, and kept up this habit even during his campaigns, as a restful recreation and relief from intense intellectual effort. He was exceedingly simple in dress and diet, and perfectly easy and natural in social intercourse; a generous host to congenial guests, but utterly intolerant of bores, whom he quickly got rid of by directing the servant to order their carriage. His gratitude for any kindness was deep and abiding, but he disliked ovations of all sorts, whether private or public, and every form of obsequiousness and subserviency excited in him a disgust which he took no pains to conceal. In short, he was a plain man, of strong common sense and clear intellect, and with a warm heart in full sympathy with all classes of his fellow-men.

In a chapter of a dozen pages we have a biographical sketch of Marie Moltke, to whom he was wedded in 1840 and who died in 1868. This lady seems to have been a most admirable character, beautiful without vanity, cheerful, witty, but firm and resolute, free from every petty trait or morbid taint, a woman in every respect after Moltke's own heart and head. On p. 20 she is spoken of as his niece, but this statement is misleading. She was not related to him by blood in the slightest degree, but was the daughter of his sister's husband, John H. Burt, an Englishman, by his first wife.

The gradual rise of the house of Hohenzollern from simple counts and burggraves to Kings of Prussia and Emperors of Germany has been due less to the superior genius of these sovereigns than to their happy faculty of uniformly putting the right man in the right place, choosing the best person for accomplishing any definite purpose, and giving him their full confidence. Baron vom Stein, Bismarck, and Moltke are striking examples of this selection of the fittest. How the Prince of Prussia (afterwards William I.) "discovered" Moltke, promoted him, and put implicit trust in him, is set forth in the chapter "Der Feld-Marschall und seine Kriegsherrn," consisting chiefly of letters addressed to the great strategist by three generations of Prussian monarchs, several of these communications being printed in facsimile. There are also full descriptions of the celebration of his ninetieth birthday, and an account of "The Last Day of His Life," by his nephew and namesake. The volume closes with a series of paragraphs, or "Consolatory Thoughts," on the present and future life, which, although not remarkably original, are concisely and forcibly expressed, and show a devout and liberal spirit, and are biographically valuable as a statement of the principles that formed Moltke's character and guided his conduct.

We may add that Moltke was expert with the pencil, drawing landscapes and portraits and painting in water-colors and oil with a force and finish quite rare in the productions of amateurs. The present work is illustrated with numerous specimens of his artistic skill.

Anthropological Religion. The Gifford Lectures, delivered before the University of Glasgow in 1891 by F. Max Müller, Foreign Member of the French Institute. Longmans, Green & Co. 1892. 16mo, pp. xxvii., 464.

THERE is no man to whom the science of the history of religion owes more than to Prof. Max Müller. He gave the first decided impulse to the study by his paper on comparative history of religions; he conceived and has admirably carried out the plan of translating the sacred books of the East into English, and so making these monuments of religious thought accessible to the general reader; he had much to do with the establishment of the Hibbert lectures, which have made such valuable contributions to our knowledge of religious history. For all this he deserves great praise, and one could wish that he had been content with the laurels thus so well earned. It was natural that he should wish to make contributions of his own to the science of which, in an important sense, he may be called the founder; but it cannot be said that his efforts as author in this direction have been fruitful. With all his wealth of learning, he seems not to have that grasp of method and principles without which writings on this subject are always in danger of being not merely useless, but also harmful.

Müller further deserves credit for the tone of freedom which he has stamped on the Gifford lectures. Of his three courses, the first, "Natural Religion," speaks of religion and mythology in general; the second, "Physical Religion," is devoted to the discovery of the Infinite in nature, traced from its first poor beginnings to its culminating point, the belief in one God as manifested in the whole of nature; the third, "Anthropological Religion," deals with the attempts at discovering the Infinite in man, beginning with the first surmises of the existence of something different from the body, and culminating in the belief in the divine sonship of man. These subjects are discussed (in the first two courses) without religious bias, but, it must be added, without scientific precision. The work before us may be described as a series of more or less interesting observations on the matter in hand, presenting a large but undigested and unorganized mass of material. Nearly one-half of it is unnecessary to the subject of the book. The preface discusses the existence of miracles, a question quite out of place here, though doubtless of interest and value for his Scottish audience. In the six first lectures Müller talks of freedom of religious discussion and of toleration, gives a summary of the results of his first course on "Physical Religion," presents the historical proof of the existence of God, diverges into a refutation of Mr. Herbert Spencer's theory of ancestor-worship, and then dilates on the untrustworthinesss of the materials for the study of religion. It is only after having disposed of all these things that he finds himself at liberty to come to the discussion of his subject.

The body of the book is really a somewhat rambling talk on ancient notions concerning the character of the human soul and its existence after death. We need not quarrel with his title, 'Anthropological Religion,' though its appropriateness is not obvious. He takes pains to say that his adjective has nothing to do with the modern Science of Anthropology. Indeed, one controlling motive of the volume is a polemic against the views of Tylor and other members of the Anthropological school. Our main objection lies, not to Müller's title, but to his manner of treating the subject, which is characterized by diffuse superficiality and irrelevancy. It is often difficult to get at his meaning, to see what his remarks are intended to lead to; as, for example, in what he says of totemism (p. 121 ff.), where, after mentioning some things which he says are not totems, he quotes Sir George Grey's description of the Australian kobong, and adds: "Here then, if Sir George Grey's description is right, we have the very opposite of totemism, the kobong or crest derived from the name of the family, not the name of the family derived from the kobong. I do not say that the explanation of Sir George Grey is right, but it is surely right to distinguish kobongs and totems and not to mix them up altogether under a vague name," where one searches in vain for the ground of his "surely right."

His whole conception of his subject seems to be unclear. Real religion, he says (p. 182), requires a belief not only in God but also in man; and accordingly, having traced the genesis of the name and concept of God in the various religions and languages of the ancient world, he proceeds to do the same for the human soul. In thus separating man from God he fails to see, or at least does not say, that the religions of the world have sprung out of the coöperation of all human faculties and sentiments. He seems to reduce his subject to a department of ancient psychology; he fails to take advantage of the light which the idea of the soul throws on the idea of God. In his account of the deification of men, he curiously inverts the true order of things. The worship of the dead, he declares (p. 352), led to their deification—a statement which seems to be precisely contrary to the fact. He has not entirely abandoned his theory that mythology is a disease of language: he supposes, for example (p. 354), that the poetical epithet Zeus-born, applied to a king, and then misunderstood, led to the belief that the king was actually a son of Zeus. Such a view, it is safe to say, will meet with no favor to-day. Among other things, it may be mentioned that what he says (p. 367 ff.) on the idea of immortality in the Old Testament is decidedly unsatisfactory.

Though this volume, considered as a scientific history of early religious development, is of little or no value, it contains a great number of useful facts, and in so far as it represents the spirit of free thought on religious history is entitled to commendation.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andrews, Charles McL. The Old English Manor: A Study in English Economic History. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press. $1.50.

Anstey, F. The Talking Horse. U. S. Book Co. $1.25.

Azarias, Brother. Phases of Thought and Criticism. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Baden-Powell, B. H. The Land-Systems of British India. 3 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

Caird, Prof. Edward. Essays on Literature and Philosophy. 2 vols. Macmillan. $3.

Coryell, J. R. Diego Pinzon, and the Fearful Voyage he took into the Unknown Ocean, A.D. 1492. Harpers. $1.25.
Cotton, J. S. Mountstuart Elphinstone. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Craik, Henry. Selections from Swift. Vol. I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Crane, Walter. The Claims of Decorative Art. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.25.
Curzon, G. N. Persia and the Persian Question. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co.
Dawe, W. C. Mount Desolation; An Australian Romance. Cassell. $1.50.
Dawson, G. M., and Sutherland, A. Elementary Geography of the British Colonies. Macmillan. 80 cents.
Dickens, Charles. Nicholas Nickleby. Macmillan. $1.
Edwards, G. M. Homer's Iliad, Book VI. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Eschstruth, Nataly von. The Eri Queen. Worthington Co.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. The Voice from Sinai. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Fearing, Miss Blanche. In the City by the Lake. Chicago: Searle & Gorton. $1.25.
Fessenden, C. E. Elements of Physics. Macmillan. 80 cents.
Gerard, Dorothea. A Queen of Curds and Cream. Appletons.
Gomme, G. L. Ethnology in Folklore. Appletons.
Gouin, Prof. François. The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages. London: George Philip & Son.
Gottsberger, F. Principles and Purposes of our Form of Government as set forth in Public Papers of Grover Cleveland. George E. Peck.
Graham, P. A. The Rural Exodus: The Problem of the Village and the Town. London: Methuen & Co.
Gray, E. McQ. My Stewardship. London: Methuen & Co.
Greene, Sarah P. McL. Vesty of the Basins. Harpers. $1.25.
Greville, Henry. Aurette's Husband. Chicago: Laird & Lee. 50 cents.
Hopkins, Louisa P. The Spirit of the New Education. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Hosken, J. D. Phaon and Sappho, and Nimrod. Macmillan. $1.50.
Houston, Prof. E. J. A Dictionary of Electrical Words, Terms, and Phrases. 2d ed., rewritten and greatly enlarged. W. J. Johnston Co. $5.
How Women Should Ride. Harpers. $1.25.
Taylor, C. The Witness of Hermas to the Four Gospels. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
The Word of the Lord upon the Waters: Sermons Read by His Imperial Majesty the Emperor of Germany on his Voyages to the Land of the Midnight Sun. John W. Lovell Co. $1.
Tourgée, A. W. Pactolus Prime. Cassell. 50 cents.
Trowbridge, J. T. Father Brighthopes. Revised ed. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Verity, A. W. Milton's Paradise Lost, Books XI. and XII. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Verne, Jules. Cæsar Cascabel. Cassell. 50 cents.
Visitor's Guide to Salem. Salem, Mass.: Eben Putnam.
Weyman, S. J. The Story of Francis Cludde. Cassell. 50 cents.
Wilkins, John. The Autobiography of an English Gamekeeper. Macmillan. $2.
Willard, Kate L. A Colony of Girls. Dodd, Mead & Co. 50 cents.
Wise, B. R. Industrial Freedom: A Study in Politics. Cassell.
Wright, Julia McN. Seaside and Wayside. [Nature Readers, No. 4.] Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 70 cents.

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N. B.—WE WILL ESTEEM THE MENTION OF THIS PAPER A FAVOR.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 23, 1892.

The Week.

WE go to press before the Chicago Convention has produced either a platform or a nominee, but Mr. Cleveland's candidacy is a foregone conclusion. Whatever be the unanimity, real or apparent, of the delegates, his choice has been fixed by the country at large. The people of both parties have seen in him the appointed leader of the opposition to the policy of the party in power. This fact is a conclusive argument against the sentimental objections to a Presidential second term. Mr. Harrison's renomination was hardly less so, for, though he is not a popular personage, he was early seen to be the only available candidate; and logically the Republicans were committed to a vindication of their policy in his administration. Either party had an option of suicide by nominating a Blaine, a Hill, or a Gorman, and the bosses would have been capable of this folly; but their shortsightedness and their machinations alike were irresistibly overruled by public sentiment. We shall, therefore, have the rare privilege of a canvass between men who are to be tried not by personalities — though personal qualities will tell—but by the policies they stand for and by their respective administrations. This will not give us a "singing campaign," or one in which the blackguards and the blatherskites will play the leading rôle; but the appeal must now be to sober reason in defence of principles, and on the ground of history and not of prophecy.

The Supreme Court of Michigan has done only what every well-informed man expected in deciding, by a unanimous vote of the three Republican and two Democratic judges, that the so-called Miner electoral law is constitutional. This law was passed by the last Democratic Legislature, and divided the State into two electoral districts at large by a north and south line, and into twelve Congressional districts, each of the fourteen to choose one Presidential elector. The Republican managers, under the foolish advice of ex-Congressman Cutcheon, concluded to question the validity of this law, upon the absurd ground, as he expressed it, that "the bill is revolutionary in its character," since Presidential electors had always and everywhere been chosen by the State at large on a general ticket. Mr. Cutcheon finally learned that the district system had been generally employed for forty years after the adoption of the Constitution, under the provision which explicitly gives each State the right to appoint its Presidential electors "in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct"; but the party had by that time been so far committed to a contest in the courts that the matter was pressed. Of course the judges have made short work of all the quibbles employed, and decided that "the statute must stand as the lawful edict of the Legislature." The court adds, very properly, that though such a law is valid, it is obviously unjust that one State should adopt the district system while all the rest stick to the usual plan. Indeed, it was a piece of the grossest partisanship for an accidental Democratic Legislature to put through such a measure in a Republican State.

The practical effect of this decision is to insure a division of Michigan's electoral vote this year. The State has had eleven representatives in Congress, and will have twelve under the new apportionment. Under the old apportionment the Democrats have never carried less than two of the eleven districts (their number in 1888), while they have gone as high as five in 1886, six in 1882, seven in 1884, and eight in 1890. Under the new apportionment the Democrats count confidently upon getting half of the twelve Congressional districts next fall, and one of the two districts at large, thus dividing the total fourteen equally between the parties. In any case, they are certain of at least two or three, so that, for the first time since the Republican party was formed, its candidate for President will not get all of Michigan's electoral votes.

The President probably did not mean anything very serious by advising the Senate on Monday to devise some measure of injury to Canadians "with deliberation, and yet with promptness." It seems as if he had purposely chosen a time for bringing up the matter when it would be ignored by the country, in the absorption of Convention week. Yet his message deserves more notice than it will receive. The precedent set in Mr. Harrison's Chilian message is here faithfully followed. In the course of a negotiation and while, as he admits, "awaiting the further communication from the Government of Canada," he makes his side of the case public, insists that his interpretation of the intent of foreign legislation and of an article in the Treaty of 1871 is the only possible one, and, with a hinted charge of bad faith against the Canadian Commissioners, urges the Senate to consider the case closed and to proceed to judgment. If the President is not careful, he will go into history as a writer of "just-in-time" messages.

The dispute arises over the rebate granted by the Canadian Government to wheat carried through the Welland Canal to Montreal for export shipment. The President asserts that this rebate is in violation of article 27 of the Treaty of 1871, which undertakes to "secure to the citizens of the United States the use of the Welland, St. Lawrence, and other canals in the Dominion, on terms of equality with the inhabitants of the Dominion." The Canadians, on the other hand, assert that there is no discrimination in the granting of the rebate, that it will be given to American shippers or vessels on precisely the same conditions as to Canadian, and that the measure is simply one of domestic legislation designed to foster export trade at Montreal. This reply the President declares to be "wholly evasive," which is emphatic if not diplomatic. He also has to report an "unfortunate misunderstanding," which is his phrase for our old friend "a question of veracity," so inevitable in negotiations in which Mr. Blaine has a part. The ex-Secretary asserted that an "informal engagement" had been made by the Canadian Commissioners "to repeal and abandon" the rebate; the latter, however, declare that this statement "does not conform to their understanding," and that "the only assurance" they had given was that the "complaint of the United States Government should be taken into consideration by the Canadian Ministry." It will probably seem fitting to the Senate, in view of this contradiction and of the incomplete nature of the diplomatic correspondence, to proceed "with deliberation," as the President suggests, if not with "promptness," as he also suggests.

It may be that a ship-railway around the Dalles of the Columbia River, and a canal to connect Lake Washington with Puget Sound, are desirable enterprises, and it is possible that it may be for the public interest that the Government should construct them. Just now, however, these schemes may be in a way to promote the general welfare with less expense by stopping the passage of the River and Harbor Bill. It is of the utmost importance that there should be some economies effected at once, for the Treasury is so nearly empty that it could not stand the slightest drain. The suspension of river and harbor improvement is of course wasteful, but it would be a much greater calamity should the Treasury be unable to pay gold to those who demanded it. The proper course for the Democratic majority in the House of Representatives to pursue would have been to reduce expenditures in all departments, including that of public improvements. As they failed to adopt a judicious policy in this respect, the best thing for them to do now is to refuse to concur in any of the Senate's amendments increasing appropriations.

There is something familiar about the introduction of a telegram into the tin-plate debate in Congress on Thursday, announcing that another factory would be ready, some time in the dim future, to make vast quantities of American tin plate. Two years ago, despatches of that sort played a great part in Republican arguments for an increase of duty, McKinley being especially profuse in them. According to him and Senator Allison, we were to be producing by this time "substantially" all the tin plate we consume. They now adjourn the date of the successful establishment of this infant industry, and add a fresh lot of discordant opinions to the mass already existing on the question of how long it will really take to create an industry by tariff taxes. The Tariff Act of 1789 was to run for seven years, that length of time being then thought to be sufficient to get an infant to walking alone. The protective duty on cotton in the tariff of 1816 was to be levied for only three years. By 1832 the infant was found to be so fearfully weak that Clay assigned twenty-five years as the time it would take to get it out of the cradle. That high protectionist authority, ex-Prof. Thompson, declares that "it will ordinarily take the lifetime of two generations to acclimatize thoroughly a new manufacture, and to bring the native production up to the native demand." This leaves the outlook decidedly gloomy. It is now generally conceded, even by Republicans, that it will take at least "four years more" for the McKinley Bill to be understood, and if its miraculous benefits in the matter of tin plate are to be reaped only by our descendants in the second generation, it would seem that the Presidential candidacy of McKinley will have to be deferred till about 1950.

Senator Stewart made it perfectly plain, in his comment on Thursday upon Mr. Morrill's vigorous speech, that the free-silver extremists regard the international conference with deep disgust as a neat little scheme to block their agitation without promising to further their wishes in the least. What they want is a general surrender to their wildest demands, irrespective of other nations and irrespective of party sentiment. Teller and Bland talk a great deal about the need of a President who will not set himself above his party, and will not veto a free-coinage bill. The Republican platform is supposed to embody this idea in its declaration in favor of settling the silver question "by legislation." But what this demand really amounts to is, that the President shall not oppose a veto, not to a measure of his party, but to the free-silver men of all parties. For neither the Democratic nor the Republican party has passed a free-coinage bill by its own votes. Such a bill passed the Senate two years ago by a combination between Democrats and Republicans, and the Bland Bill would not have come so near passing this year as it did had not eleven Republicans voted with the Democrats. It is the simple fact that neither party by itself can or will pass a free-coinage law. Thus the demand that the President shall ignore his constitutional obligation at the behest of his party, comes down to the impudent and absurd demand that he shall do so at the behest of the free-silverites of all parties or no party.

Texas must be added to the number of rabid free-coinage States that are unbending in their determination to make other people take silver while they will themselves have nothing but gold. We have received a copy of an ordinary stationer's blank for a promissory note, intended for use in Texas, and in it the words "in gold" are printed in small capitals. It is also the testimony of New York bankers dealing in Texas notes, that the latter almost invariably contain the gold clause. This is but in keeping with the traditions of the State, which, we believe, maintained the gold standard all through the rebellion, taking Confederate notes only when forced to do so. But what a spectacle it is when Senator Stewart's "gold Moloch" is thus seen to move on its destructive car out of his dreadful Wall Street and crush into subjection the leading silver States of the country.

It was predicted last year, when it became apparent that Europe must buy from us more than double its usual quantity of grain, that the debt would be paid by sales of American securities. The prediction has been fulfilled in such a manner that the process of operation has been more than usually open. The exports of grain alone from this country, in the ten months ending with the 1st of May, 1892, were worth $262,002,371, against only $101,539,749 for the same months in the preceding year. In the whole list of exports the increase was so great that the "trade balance" in our favor, on the business of the same period, was more than $200,000,000. Something over thirty millions in gold was sent to us from Europe in the fall of the year as part settlement of this difference; but it was not until our own security markets had begun to reflect the favorable turn of events that it was clearly seen how Europe was paying the balance. How large was the amount of its American holdings sold during the fall and winter rise in prices can only be guessed. Estimates of an almost fabulous magnitude have been made by conservative bankers; but all that can be said with certainty is, that every advance in stock-market prices based upon home buying, since the opening of the year, has been met by heavy sales of securities for foreign account. The problem of American bankers very soon ceased to be, Will Europe sell or will it buy? and shaped itself, instead, into the query, When will Europe's hoards of our securities be exhausted? The sales were at all events so large as to turn the actual balance of exchange in the opposite direction.

Since the opening of the year, almost as much gold has been exported from this country to Europe as was imported in the fall of 1891. A little while ago it was believed that the outward movement of specie had come to an end, and hopeful observers of the markets, both here and abroad, predicted the early return of European investors. These hopes were disappointed. In the face of the favorable crop report for May, and the consequent advance of money-market prices, foreigners resumed their selling, and eight millions in gold has just been shipped for Europe. To investors on this side of the Atlantic, this continued "unloading" from abroad has been in many ways discouraging. Yet it is not without its encouraging side. The general advance in our own prices, in spite of the foreign selling, shows that this country was rich enough to buy what Europe was too poor to keep. The favorable security market supplied by this country has undoubtedly averted a much more serious foreign crisis.

Will anybody be kind enough to inform us what has become of that investigation of Egan and McCreery which was to be vigorously undertaken by the State and Navy Departments? It is more than a month ago that this was promised by Messrs. Blaine and Tracy. Deference to those gentlemen was all that prevented Congress from taking up the inquiry at the time, and Representative Breckinridge intimated that this deference could not be made an excuse for unwarranted delays. A strange mystery seems to attach to the movements of the accused officials. They were due in this country at least two weeks ago, but, if they have arrived, it must have been incognito. McCreery, in an absent-minded moment, may have made a mistake and taken a steamer for England, but Egan, for obvious reasons, would not have been guilty of such an oversight. We hope to see an inquiry as to his whereabouts and his achievements set on foot in Congress as soon as the National Convention is over.

The address lately delivered before the Bar Association of Georgia by Chief-Justice Bleckley of that State is one of the most complete arraignments of mobs ever made. Following close upon the proclamation of Gov. Northen, it may help to check the lawlessness which has of late been so rife in Georgia and in neighboring States. Chief-Justice Bleckley declares that mobs would not exist if we could silence their deluded advocates and apologists. He especially deplores the tone of those newspapers which confound the mob with the people, and treat some, if not all, instances of mob violence as cases in which the people act in their own behalf and take justice in their own hands. He maintains that mobs are not the people; that they who compose

them are for the time seceders from organized society who outrage its fundamental principles and trample on its institutions. He even contends that if all the people should perpetrate an act of violence on the worst of criminals, the case would not be one in which the people had taken justice into their own hands, but one in which, in violation of their own law, they had inflicted injustice in the name of justice. "In such matters," he adds, "the people cannot act otherwise than through their legitimate agents. By appointing these agents and committing all punitive power into their hands, to be exercised in the name of the people and for the good of the people, the people renounced completely and for ever all right and all power to transact such business in person or by means of their own direct intervention." This language is not too strong. The Chief Justice asks what newspaper would speak with approbation of the people assembling in a mass and making laws? Why, then, should mob agency in the administration of laws be countenanced? By interfering in the first instance, or by reviewing the verdict, as in the New Orleans case, they make the jury system contemptible. As Chief-Justice Bleckley well says, "Anything which assumes to be better and tends to make itself bigger than the jury is out of place where trial by jury is an institution of the country and forms the chief bulwark for the security of person and property. Society works by and through established institutions, and can work wisely and safely in no other way. To weaken or discredit these institutions is to enfeeble government and bring authority into contempt."

By a vote of 19 to 3 the trustees of the University of Pennsylvania decided last week to remove Prof. R. E. Thompson from the chair which he had been previously, but in vain, requested to resign. The deposed professor gives to the public a letter addressed by him to the trustees, and in it there is evidence of a deep-laid conspiracy against the foremost university exponent of the "American doctrine of protection." In the first place, he says that he has vainly appealed to the trustees "for the reasons for this action," but has not been shown "even the courtesy of a refusal to give them." This looks bad. If Prof. Thompson were simply incompetent or personally offensive, what could be easier than to tell him so? The inference is unavoidable that the real "reasons" could not bear the light of day, and everybody knows that any form of assault upon protection is a thing that has to be kept very dark in Pennsylvania. Prof. Thompson himself is clearly of the opinion that the cause of protection has received a grievous stab in his person, for he puts first among the reasons for his removal, as he has "gathered" them, "that I have been teaching political economy while occupying the chair of History and English Literature." He mentions other rumored "reasons," only to denounce them as "not the real ones," and he begs the trustees "to have the candor to assign the real reasons for your action." Every lover of fair play will sympathize with this effort to force disguised enemies of protection to come out and declare themselves for what they really are.

College commencements have steadily worked back towards the first of June during the past ten years, and, in compensation, many of the colleges have adopted the Charles Lamb principle of making up for coming late to his office by going away early—that is, they have put the opening of the college year a week or so further along towards October. That the increasing length of the vacation involved is a matter of some concern to college authorities may be inferred from a short communication on the subject in the *North American Review* by President Thwing. He protests against a "too-long vacation" mainly on the ground of the dissipation of energy and loss of studious habits resulting to the student, inasmuch as the teacher, he believes, usefully employs a good part of the three months of freedom from the duties of the class-room. This idleness during one-quarter of the year may furnish a point of attack to those who are trying to shorten the college course and make it possible for graduates to begin their professional studies a year earlier. We believe that the new Chicago University contemplates four terms of twelve weeks each—with a substitution of professors during one term—so that a student may, if he chooses, make his course almost continuous and get over four years' ground in three years. The obstinate fact back of the present system is the relation of the colleges to the social demands of their chief patrons. Fifty years ago the long vacation in some New England colleges fell in the winter, so that undergraduates might teach for three months and thus help to pay their way. Changing social conditions have come to demand the summer as the free time, and it is difficult to see how the colleges are to withstand it so long as their present relations to society continue.

The problem of an ignorant negro vote, which has made so much trouble in our Southern States, and which has been solved by some of them, it must be confessed, rather after the manner of Alexander with the Gordian knot, receives some light from an unexpected quarter. A correspondent of the London *Times* at Cape Town, South Africa, explains a reform of the suffrage which has been put forth by the Government of that colony, as necessitated by the fact that the colored population outnumbers the white by three to one. At present every man, black or white, has a vote if he occupies a dwelling worth £25, or earns wages of £25 a year with board and lodging, or of £50 in money. As hardly any dwelling fit for the habitation of civilized man can be constructed for £25, it is plain that the suffrage was intended to be practically manhood suffrage for all except the native barbarian, whose worldly goods, as the *Times's* correspondent says, "are represented by a blanket and a bundle of wattles." The intention has been fulfilled so far as to give the suffrage to every laboring man, white or colored, but the barbarian vote is showing a startling disposition to increase. Moreover, certain lewd fellows of the carpet-bagger sort are beginning to control this vote, with the result that the conservative element has felt it wise to oppose a policy of expansion and development, as tending to the annexation of regions inhabited exclusively by a colored population.

To meet the difficulty, it was proposed last year to confer a dual vote upon education and property, but the objections to this plan were insuperable. This year, however, the Government has brought forward a bill providing that the voter must be an occupant of a dwelling worth £75 instead of £25, or receive wages amounting to £50 a year exclusive of board and lodging, and every applicant must write his name and address before he can be registered; but no voter now qualified is to be disfranchised. It seems that a provision of this kind is not unacceptable to the better class of natives, who would thus be distinguished from their semi-savage relatives. Considering that the cost of dwellings has much increased, and that the rate of wages is very high in the Cape Colony, it seems probably true, as is claimed, that no man who really works for his living will be excluded from the franchise. It may be that some modification of this plan would be acceptable to both races in our own Southern States.

Little was accomplished by the Central American Diet which recently met in San Salvador. Costa Rica sent no representatives to it, but the delegates from the four other republics agreed upon a sort of defensive alliance between their countries. They also decided to call together another Diet in September, 1893, to which should be invited the Ministers of Colombia, Mexico, and the United States resident in Central America, when a serious attempt should be made to finally bring about the long-delayed Central-American Union. The Colombian and Mexican Ministers were probably invited in order to give assurances that the proposed confederation would meet with no disfavor from its neighbors, north and south, and the representative of the United States to lend a benevolent, big-brother sort of sanction to the project. But the plan has so often seemed close to realization, only to be broken off by some quarrel, that a wholesome scepticism in regard to success next year is but natural.

PUBLIC OPINION AND CONVENTIONS.

THE growing importance of the Machine as an element in the organization of a party has led of late years to some questioning as to whether national conventions could longer be depended upon to carry out the theory of their existence. This theory is that such a body will bring together the chosen representatives of the party from every State of the Union—its picked men—and that these delegates will counsel together as to the wisest course for the organization to take. Theoretically this is an excellent arrangement; while not perfect, the best that any one has yet been able to devise.

Practically, however, the convention system has often been found to work very differently, so far as relates to minor officials and lesser party issues. In many of our cities nobody can vote at a caucus of either party unless his name is enrolled as a member of the organization. The total membership of such an organization is never more than a small minority of the voters of the party. Moreover, it is a rare thing to have a full representation of the organization, a small element usually "running" the caucuses. It is, therefore, not only possible, but common, to see a city convention the delegates to which have been chosen by a minority of the organization which is itself a minority of the party. In the country districts the same result may be reached by shrewd management on the part of the local machines, while the way is always open for unscrupulous men to control caucuses illegitimately by sharp practice in giving short notice of the meetings, appointing them at inconvenient places, and resorting to other such "dodges."

So successful have these methods often proved in securing control of local offices, and even sometimes in the case of a State convention, that professional politicians have hoped, and good citizens have feared, that they might be applied with equal success to a national convention. If a city boss could run a municipal convention, and a State boss a State convention, why should not a combination of State bosses control the national gathering of a party?

The attempt has been twice made during the present year, and under as auspicious conditions for the bosses as could reasonably be expected. Each party was to nominate a candidate for President. Each party had a man within the range of choice who was opposed by the bosses of his party. In each party the bosses were bent upon one thing—the rejection of this man; and in each case they felt at first great assurance of success. Platt, Quay, and Clarkson have been the three most prominent men in the Republican organizations of their respective States for many years; and their States were the chief commonwealth in the Union, the second largest, and an important State in the West. They were hand and glove with managers of the same type in many other States. They controlled the National Committee of the party. They and all of their kind were resolved upon the defeat of Harrison, and they flattered themselves that they had everything in their own hands. Meanwhile a similar combination was at work in the Democratic party to prevent the nomination of Cleveland. It is always expected that a candidate for the nomination shall be supported by the delegation from his own State—and especially so when he lives in a doubtful State. The Democratic counterpart of "Tom" Platt as a boss in New York therefore set out to secure, at all hazards, a "regular" delegation from this State against Cleveland. Hill succeeded completely in his purpose. All that remained, it seemed to him, was to strike hands with the bosses in other States, whom he knew to be as much opposed to Cleveland as he was himself. Then the combination could say to the delegates: "The party must carry New York to win the election. The delegation from New York is unanimous in declaring that Cleveland cannot carry New York. The one thing you must not do is to nominate Cleveland."

It seemed to the bosses in each party as though they must succeed. They had run their own State Conventions so long that they could not see why, if they united their forces, they should not run a national convention. What they left out of account was the power of public opinion. The masses of the Republican party favored the nomination of Harrison—not with enthusiasm, not from admiration of the man, but because he seemed the logical candidate, the strongest representative. The masses of the Democratic party favor the nomination of Cleveland with ten-fold force, not simply as the logical candidate and the strongest representative, but as the object of their enthusiastic admiration. It was this sentiment of the body of the party against which the combination of Republican bosses at Minneapolis ran and were broken. It is the similar and far stronger sentiment among the Democracy which is, as we go to press, visibly wrecking the anti-Cleveland "combine" at Chicago. Harrison had able managers in the Republican Convention, as Cleveland has in the Democratic, and such management is essential; but New would have been powerless at Minneapolis, and Whitney would be at Chicago, if it were not for the underlying and resistless force of the opinion of the party at large.

The defeat of the anti-Harrison scheme in the Republican party, and the already assured defeat of the anti-Cleveland scheme in the Democratic party, are causes for equal rejoicing on the part of all good citizens. Such events show that public opinion still controls in America. As Abraham Lincoln said in one of his joint debates with Douglas: "With public sentiment on its side, everything succeeds; with public sentiment against it, nothing succeeds." Mr. Bryce, in his 'American Commonwealth,' pointed out that "the strong point of the American system, the dominant fact of the situation, is the healthiness of public opinion, and the control which it exerts." The defeat of the spoils-seeking politicians in each party this year emphasizes the truth of this observation.

THE BLIGHT ON LEGISLATURES.

IT has been a theory, often and very earnestly set forth by its advocates, that large legislative bodies are in themselves no small safeguard against corrupt lawmaking. If, however, we test that idea by certain facts of the last few years in three New England States, apparently little remains for it to rest upon. Five years ago the most corrupt and scandalous legislative episodes in the history of New Hampshire were disclosed in what was known as the "Concord Railroad fight" at the capital of that State. Yet the lower house of the New Hampshire Legislature contains 344 members, and is, we believe, the largest legislative body of all the States in the Union. Two years later came the equally corrupt "parallel railroad" contest in Connecticut, which has a lower house of 252 members. Massachusetts has a lower house of 240 members, yet the unsavory "West End" scandal of two years ago has just been followed by doings which stamp the present Legislature of the State as probably the most venal which ever sat at Boston. Not only is the "big membership" theory thus pretty thoroughly disposed of, but also most gloomy evidence is offered of the general decay of legislative morals—a decay which unfortunately seems to strike deeper as civilization in the American commonwealths advances.

It is peculiarly impressive, as we trace out the growth of this legislative evil in the old Puritan commonwealths, to see how it has been marked by the almost complete extinction of what may be called the "honorary" conception of membership of a legislative body. In the old days the New England legislatures were "general courts," not merely in formal title, but in common parlance. Somewhat of the dignity of the judge went along with membership in them. The pay was almost nothing; the illicit profits quite so; but the personal honor of the position was very considerable. The farm communities, therefore, almost invariably sent up to the State capitals their best men, and sent them up over and over again. Usually it was the country squire, but, if a farmer, it was the farmer who was the leader in town meeting, apt to be the best-lettered man of his class, and usually the owner of many well-ordered acres. He took his election, moreover, not only as a matter of grave personal responsibility, but as a civic badge of the highest dignity and as a sort of decoration. In actual legislation he may have been an opinionated, cramped partisan,

but his integrity was flawless, and pride of place as well as his conscience checked the slightest tendency to a dishonorable act.

As time has gone on and the old General Courts of New England, with their one or two hundred judges, have been superseded by the "Legislature," with increased membership in the popular branch, the "honorary" impulse seems to have completely died out, or rather to have been abased into an impulse almost purely material. Some of the reasons are plain enough. The lowered *morale* of voting constituencies, the corporative influence, the weakened tone of the farm communities, the rise of cities, and the immense mass of diversified business which precipitates itself on the modern Legislature are some of the more palpable causes. In New England very distinctly, and somewhat less so in other parts of the country, there has been generated as a powerful secondary cause the "rotative" habit, and the theory that the place of legislator must be "passed around." The General Court of Massachusetts in 1790 contained out of a total of 204 representatives no less than 101 who had been reëlected from the previous year. Nowadays, in the districts made up of several towns, the place must be passed around in succession, and the town that takes it twice, no matter how competent and honest the incumbent, is "hoggish." But the development of this pernicious notion is most clearly manifest in Connecticut, where it has been intensified by the large number of legislative prizes under a constitutional system in which each of the towns sends at least one representative and many of the little towns two. Its progressive character is shown by decades in the table annexed, brought down through a century to the present time:

	Whole No. of Representatives.	Reëlected from previous year.	Per cent. reëlected.
1790	171	109	63.7
1800	189	102	54.0
1810	199	83	41.7
1820	204	53	26.0
1830	208	47	22.6
1840	212	27	12.7
1850	222	27	12.2
1860	236	30	12.7
1870	239	24	10.0
1880	246	23	9.3
1892	252	23	9.1

How absolutely fatal to any theory of legislative responsibility such a state of affairs must be is obvious. It simply tempts a man of easy-going principles to make the most of his "good time" as a legislator; if corrupt, to sell his vote and influence as often as he can; and, even if both able and honest, it spurs him on with no hope of appreciation by his constituents and consequently of continued usefulness. In short, the custom of rotation has caused the State legislator's place to be looked on not as a public trust and dignity but as a kind of perquisite.

NEWSPAPER COPYRIGHT.

A SUIT of importance in defining the right of literary property has recently been decided in favor of the London *Times*. That journal had so long been the passive victim of journalistic pilfering as to lead many persons to argue that a custom had been established which was superior to the law, and it was high time to take some step in repression of the abuse. The Parliamentary reports of the *Times* are said to have been for years regularly telegraphed to the provincial papers in time for their morning editions, its foreign correspondence has been freely made use of, and its telegrams have been appropriated bodily. During the recent troubles in the Argentine Republic, the despatches in two days from Buenos Ayres alone cost the *Times* £1,500, and were reprinted in a few hours, without permission, in the evening papers. Some ingenious projectors have calculated that it would be practicable to produce a newspaper in London by seven o'clock in the morning the news in which should be entirely obtained from the morning papers. Such a newspaper would contain the best of material, and, being at no expense for news, could be sold at a profit for a half-penny.

If the practice of copying news had been confined within reasonable limits, it is not probable that the *Times* would have thought it worth while to resort to the law for protection. The difficulties in the way of defending copyright are very great, and the trouble of registration is itself considerable. But certain journals went beyond all the bounds of decency, habitually appropriating large quantities of matter, both articles and news, which the *Times* had obtained at great expense, neglecting in many cases to give any credit for it, and refusing to be deterred from their course by friendly remonstrance. Under these circumstances, the proprietors of the *Times* decided to test and ascertain their legal rights, and prepared themselves by taking assignments of certain articles, among them one by Rudyard Kipling, and otherwise duly perfecting their copyright in the edition of a certain morning.

These preparations, which the plunderers of the *Times* thereafter indignantly characterized as "baiting a trap for them," were not futile. The *St. James's Gazette*, a journal that appears about noon, before the second edition of the *Times* is issued, had long made free with the matter procured by the *Times*, but on this occasion rather outdid itself. It copied a considerable part of Mr. Kipling's letter, and proceeded to add insult to injury by sneering at the *Times* for paying a price for such matter, at the thought of which "the imagination of the ordinary literary person shrinks appalled." We recollect a story of an English tourist in Naples, in the good old days of King Bomba, who was compelled by the thieving habits of the Neapolitans to supply himself with cotton instead of cambric handkerchiefs, and who had one of his cheap substitutes thrown back to him by an outraged pickpocket, in whose expressions of angry contempt the sympathizing bystanders joined. It seems to have been reserved for the *St. James's Gazette* and its supporters to complain that the victim of its rapacity had paid an extravagant price for the article which, with full knowledge of its quality, it had pilfered.

The same copy of the *Gazette* contained also twenty-two different paragraphs copied from the *Times* of that morning. In seven of these paragraphs the source from which they were obtained was acknowledged; in the other fifteen the *Times* was not referred to. In many of these paragraphs the *Times* had no copyright, but it proved copyright in three of them. Two of these were despatches from its foreign correspondents, and each had at the end the words "Our correspondent." These words were omitted by the *Gazette*, as was the word "Dalziel" at the foot of the third paragraph. Acts of like character, it was afterwards shown, had been daily practised by the *Gazette* since 1880. The solicitors of the *Times* having obtained an injunction restraining the publication of the Kipling letter, the editor of the *Gazette* expressed regret for his action as to that article, but refused to withdraw the others.

Upon the trial the defendants pleaded that it was an established custom for newspapers to copy from one another without asking permission, and that consent may be assumed if four conditions are observed, viz.: (1.) That the source of the quotation be duly acknowledged. (2.) That the paper copying and that from which the matter is copied be not direct competitors. (3.) That the paper from which matter has been copied has copied matter from the other. (4.) That it has copied matter from other papers. As to the first of these conditions the Court declared that while it might sometimes be for the advantage of a paper as an advertisement to have extracts made from it, which, however, could not have been, in its opinion, the case with the *Times* and the *Gazette*, it is impossible that any such advantage should result when the source of the quotation is unmentioned. The second condition did not apply, because the *Gazette* appeared before the *Times's* second edition, and moreover the *Times* had a tri-weekly as well as a weekly edition, so that the *Gazette* was clearly a competitor. As to the third condition, the attempt of the defendants to establish a tacit reciprocity treaty proved, as the Court said, a ridiculous failure. They succeeded in showing that, during the twelve years preceding, the *Times* had twice, once in 1888 and once in 1890, quoted from the *Gazette*, giving the source of its quotation, while the *Gazette*

had begun its systematic copying from the *Times* in 1880, and continued it on a large scale and without interruption ever since. Finally, in support of the fourth condition, the defendants adduced sixteen instances where the *Times* had copied from other papers, and the *Times* showed that in thirteen of these they had copied by request or in some equally justifiable manner, and the Court held the other instances to be too trivial to deserve consideration.

The case of the defendants thus altogether broke down, but the Court added emphatically that with respect to copyrighted articles the plea of a custom of copying them could no more be supported than the highwayman's plea of the custom of Hounslow Heath. There appears to have been some uncertainty whether this was the law or not, but this uncertainty is now dispelled, and if newspapers choose to go to the trouble of copyrighting matter the procuring of which has cost them money or required skill or enterprise, they may secure the result of their labors. Of course the cry was raised that there should be no monopoly of news, just as we heard in this country that there ought to be no property in ideas, but this fallacy was exploded by the Court in a summary manner. It pointed out that the law recognized the right of criticism or discussion, and such quotation as was necessary thereto, which was "the fair exercise of a mental operation discussing the character of an original work." But what the *St. James's Gazette* had recourse to was "not a mental operation involving thought and labor and producing some original result, but a mechanical operation with scissors and paste, without the slightest pretension to an original result of any kind; a mere reproduction of 'copy' without trouble or cost. . . . It is said that there is no copyright in news, but there is or may be in the particular form of language or modes of expression by which information is conveyed, and not the less so because the information may be with respect to the current events of the day."

THE NEW HOUSE OF COMMONS.

THE dissolution of the present Parliament, the twenty-fourth of the United Kingdom and the twelfth of Victoria's reign, will take place six years, almost to the day, after Mr. Gladstone, by dismissing its predecessor, appealed in vain to the country to reverse the condemnation which the Commons had passed upon his Irish policy. Although the second reading of his Home-Rule Bill was negatived by a majority of only thirty, the British and Irish Home-Rulers found themselves in the new Parliament in a minority of 120. So closely under English law and practice do the elections follow upon dissolution, that it is now perhaps almost superfluous to speculate as to the outcome of the struggle about to begin. The result of the general election of 1885, the first held under the present franchise and with the existing distribution of seats, showed that the united Liberal party could command, even under the not specially favorable circumstances which then confronted it, a plurality over the Conservatives of about 82. If to this plurality be added the 86 votes of the Irish Nationalists, the anti-Tory majority was 168. On the other hand, after the Liberal split, the general election of 1886 returned 314 Conservatives and 81 Liberal Unionists, or a total of 395 supporters of the present Administration, as against 189 Gladstonian Liberals and 86 Irish Nationalists.

The issue of the impending campaign will depend principally upon the number of votes the Gladstonian candidates can get from the Liberals of 1885 who, in 1886, voted for Unionists or did not vote at all. There can be no question that very many of the dissentient Liberals of 1886 have since returned to full communion with their old party. In whatever way the bye-elections, in the 133 constituencies in which bye-elections have been held since September, 1886, be looked at, they indicate that the Salisbury Government will be a minority in the new House. Whether that minority will be very large or comparatively small does not so certainly appear. In 1885 these 133 constituencies returned 59 Conservatives, 53 Liberals, and 21 Irish Nationalists. Since the bye-elections there sit for these same places 56 Conservatives, 6 Liberal Unionists, 50 Gladstonian Liberals, and 21 Irish Nationalists, including both Parnellites and anti-Parnellites. There are thus three more Conservatives and Liberal Unionists combined than there were Conservatives alone in 1885. But these 133 seats are almost precisely one-fifth of the 670 in the entire House. A similar proportion of Unionist gains in the other four-fifths of the constituencies would give the Unionists in the new Parliament but fifteen more seats than were secured by the Tories in 1885, and would reduce the combined home-rule and Liberal majority then returned by but 30, or to 138.

Compared with the result of the general election of 1886, there has been at the bye-elections a net home-rule gain of twenty-one seats. A similar proportion of change in the remaining constituencies would net a loss of 105 seats to the Salisbury Government, and would turn its majority of 120 in 1886 into a minority of 90. Ignoring the number of seats won or lost at the bye-elections, and considering only the actual vote polled, it appears that in the sixty-four British constituencies contested both in 1886 and at subsequent bye-elections the Unionist vote has increased only 7 per cent., as against a Gladstonian gain of 26 per cent. In these constituencies the average Gladstonian net gain was 547 to each seat. As in 1886 the Unionists carried no fewer than 112 seats by majorities of less than 547 each, this method of comparison indicates a Liberal gain of 112 members and a home-rule majority of 104.

The net result of these three methods of comparison seems to foreshadow that majority of 100 or upwards which Mr. Gladstone is said to expect. If, however, the comparison be made between the votes polled in 1885 and at the bye-elections, the results will not be so favorable. In the eighty-one British constituencies contested both in 1885 and at the bye-elections since 1886, there has been an average net Unionist gain of 326 votes to a seat. In 1885 the Liberals carried fifty-six seats by majorities of less than 326. If these seats be gained by the Unionists at the coming election, the Gladstonian majority will be only 56. Moreover, if the constituencies which in 1885 returned Liberals and those which returned Conservatives be separately compared, a still smaller majority in the coming Parliament is indicated. The forty-three constituencies which in 1885 gave Liberal majorities, and have since had bye-elections, show an average net Liberal loss of 778 votes to a seat. In 1885, 114 Liberal members received majorities less than 778. On the other hand, in the contested constituencies which were Conservative in 1885, the bye-elections show an average net Gladstonian gain of 185, and 43 Conservatives were returned in 1885 by pluralities of less than 185. This method of comparison forecasts a net Gladstonian loss as compared with 1885 of 71 seats, which would give the Gladstonians a majority of but 26.

In all the above calculations it has been assumed that, as the number of seats held by Irish Nationalists has, since 1885, remained unchanged, there will be no losses among them at the coming election. This the split in the Irish ranks makes a very improbable supposition. It is true that it so happens that there are not more than ten or eleven Nationalist seats in all Ireland which can possibly be endangered by a double candidature. In all the other constituencies now represented by Nationalists, the home-rule vote is more than twice as great as that of the Unionists. It is, however, probable that five or six seats may be lost by these divisions, in which case it is possible that in the new House the supporters of the present Government will number from 325 to 330 out of the total membership of 670. In that event the balance of power may be held by a handful of Parnellites.

THE GREEK ELECTIONS.

ATHENS, May 28, 1892.

THE politics of Greece lie very far out of the American horizon, yet they are near akin to ours in spirit and tendencies, and it may be worth your while, even in the thick of questions of candidates and tariff and silver bills, to listen to a brief résumé of the results of the elections which took place on the 15th of May. I happened to be in Constantinople about that date, and I inquired with eagerness from our intelligent and obliging Greek porter for the Athenian newspapers. "We don't get the papers from Athens," he said—"the Govern-

ment forbids them; but some of our friends have got the news by telegraph, and I hope you will be glad to hear that Tricoupis is successful." "Good news," I said. "Yes," he replied, in Greek which was almost classic and was clear enough even to my unpractised ear, "good news, and not for Greece only, but a common benefit to all the Hellenic race; for Mr. Tricoupis is the one man of dignity and worth on whom we can all depend." I give the exact words of this young Greek because they contain several significant points in a nutshell. The Greeks of the Levant generally have been keenly interested in the late contest. The *Neologos* of Constantinople had nearly two sides filled with news of the election, and a most sensible leader on the lesson and consequences of it. The meaning of this is, that the Greek peoples who live under Turkish misrule do not forget Hellas; they still look towards Athens. When they make an occasional pilgrimage thither, it seems to them an embodiment of that law and civilization and liberty which they do not possess; and they rejoice heartily and with an enlightened sympathy when that small kingdom which is the starting point, if not the goal, of their aspirations, has been safely tided through a crisis of its existence. If they are no longer so sanguine as to defer the christening of their children for the time when the ceremony may take place in the mosque of St. Sophia, they still dream of a magnificent Hellenic State in which Constantinople shall recall the glories of the Byzantine Empire.

The crisis which the elections seem to have terminated was really most acute and fraught with the gravest possibilities. In March, when I reached Athens, the paper currency was at a discount of 50 per cent. This discount measured the recent results of Mr. Delyannis's financial management. He had contrived to reach the quarterly payments without providing for the expenses of the Government. While he remained Minister of Finance, the banks refused to accommodate the Government with a loan. The situation was so grave that the King felt obliged to demand the resignation of Mr. Delyannis, which, with that assurance which has never failed him, he refused to tender, alleging that he was still supported by a majority of the House. The manner of this refusal, as well as the previous conduct of the Prime Minister, was offensive to his Majesty, and was purposely offensive. When the King, finally, exercising an unusual but legitimate prerogative, felt obliged to dismiss his Minister, there were a few hours at Athens when the germs of a revolution seemed to be breaking out. It is generally believed that Delyannis had tried to tamper with the army, and was interrupted in his plans by the active initiative of the King. The new Ministry which succeeded was purely temporary and intermediate; the Chamber of Deputies was soon dissolved, and the election was set for the 15th of May.

In discussing the situation before the election, some shrewd authorities maintained that the King had made a mistake—that he had been over-anxious and hasty; that he ought to have given Mr. Delyannis more rope. Mr. Delyannis had already shown that he had many lives. His fiasco when, six years before, he nearly drew the country into a Turkish war, and was obliged to resign in face of the blockade and of a Turkish army, as the only solution of the emergency, would have been the death of most politicians in most countries. But this adroit demagogue had the most extraordinary knack of lighting on his feet, and it was felt that the action of the King might help him to retrieve his situation. As a matter of fact, in the canvass of the country which preceded the elections, Mr. Delyannis took the attitude of a defender of the rights of the people against the encroachments of the Crown. His "watchword" was Greece for the Greeks, and he posed as the true republican who scorned foreign influence and opinion, and was not, like Mr. Tricoupis, "a creature of Lord Salisbury." He even went so far as to hint in his speeches that "the will of the people must not be thwarted if it demanded a republic." In short, he showed himself in a small way the Boulanger of the crisis—a most adroit and ingenious mischief-maker, expert in the coining of phrases and charges which catch the ear of a prejudiced and ignorant populace. It may be mentioned, parenthetically, that in January last he had succeeded in passing a regulation which required all foreigners entering the country to present passports and to have them viséed—a regulation so Turkish (or Russian), so contrary to the present practice of all civilized nations, that certain Englishmen, on reaching Corfu, turned their backs on the country in disgust, and went direct to Cairo without visiting Greece. I am glad to say that the regulation almost immediately fell into abeyance, and no one has heard of it lately.

So skilful was Mr. Delyannis in these arts of the demagogue, and so great was his personal popularity in the Peloponnesus, that one month before the election even the best informed in politics did not venture to predict his defeat; and all sensible, sober minds in Greece as well as in the Levant felt the greatest uneasiness and anxiety as to the issue. Yet the two questions involved were the solvency of the Government and, to a certain extent, the stability of the monarchy. I was surprised to observe this uncertainty as to the decision of questions so fundamental. It seemed to me that it indicated the lack of any considerable body of voters in the country whose uprightness and judgment could be trusted in an emergency. I am not now recording an opinion of my own; I am only stating the natural inference from the alarms and apprehensions of the most solid men in Athens.

I was much interested in the Greek method of conducting a "campaign." The newspapers, excepting perhaps the *Astu*, the more immediate organ of Mr. Tricoupis, allow themselves all lengths in vituperation and abuse; they have a splendid Aristophanic instrument in the modern language, and there is no limit to the invention of effective epithets. They outdo in this respect anything that we are accustomed to in the United States. On the other hand, I was surprised and pleased to see that, on the Tricoupis side at least, the speeches of candidates were brief, temperate, and dignified to a remarkable degree. They confined themselves generally to a simple statement of the importance of the interests at stake and of their programme for the future. There were no appeals to passion, no assaults or innuendoes on the reputation of their opponents. A half a column, or a column at most, sufficed to report them fully. Such speeches, addressed to such an assemblage as I saw at Nauplia, for instance, composed largely of peasants in their own picturesque costume, certainly do great credit to the methods of the canvass. I can hardly believe that they are typical. However, the newspapers are the real battle-field of the elections, and every one, I am told, reads the newspapers; at any rate, the nine-tenths of the population who can read impart the news to the one-tenth who cannot.

I do not know how much weight the "demonstrations" (διαδηλώσεις) have in the actual results; but it is quite certain that nothing would induce the people at large to dispense with them. Night after night they occupy the minds and bodies of certain hardy and sleepless "workers," for nearly a month before election day. In Athens, during that period, they make life a burden to all lovers of peace and quietness. Every night a fresh procession, either small or large, makes its appearance, not differing much from our displays, except that it is accompanied by a noisy crowd shouting "zeto" and "kato" for friends and foes. The torches and carriages vanish before midnight, perhaps; but a large part of the assemblage continues to huzza and to howl until two or three o'clock in the morning. The exercise is responded to antiphonally by a rival gathering of the opposite party, until the lungs of one or the other side are exhausted. I have before me a cutting from the *Acropolis*, which describes several such "demonstrations" as going on in the squares of Athens on the same night. The reporter adds, with naïve pride, that a single patrol "kept the peace," if that expression may be used, between the contending factions, and that all had retired from the field without bloodshed by three o'clock in the morning.

The fact is, that to the uneventful life of the provinces the parade and preliminaries of the elections are a great treat and excitement which they could not lightly part with. There are other practices in vogue, however, which are much more questionable than the childishness of excessive "demonstrations." It used to be the custom in the rural districts for each candidate to keep open house during the canvass, and to entertain all comers on a scale which resembled the good cheer of the palace of Odysseus. This custom is vanishing, but, on the other hand, the indifferent voter is always sure at this season of an unlimited supply of *retsinato* and of creature comforts. If he is in debt, he may be accommodated with a loan; if he must travel a long distance to his voting district, his expenses are paid. Moreover, there are certain districts, such as those of Spetsa, and Hydhra, and Psara in Eubœa—"rotten boroughs," they may be called—which were granted by the National Assembly of 1843, as a reward for heroic services, the privilege of sending a Representative, although their population is much smaller than the required number of 10,000 souls. These districts are a natural source of corruption; for here money can be spent to obvious advantage, and there is reasonable hope of buying up a majority. In general, the indifferent voter may sell his vote as high as or even higher than with us. A great deal of money is spent by each candidate. Few spend less than a thousand dollars; I heard credibly of one who expected to spend eight thousand.

Moreover, the mode of voting at the polls gives large opportunity for personal influence and inspection—for seeing to it that these extravagant sums are not wasted. At the polling-place each candidate has his name and emblem (that of Mr. Tricoupis was the olive) painted on a separate urn; from the upper part of this projects a funnel into which the voter thrusts his arm when depositing a small leaden bullet or ballot. The urn or box is partitioned into two compartments, on one of which is painted in white, "Yes," on the other, in black, "No." Behind each urn a representative of the candidate is permitted to

stand, to call out the name of his candidate, and even to solicit votes for him. The intention of the law is that the voter shall give a secret ballot; but it is quite possible to watch from behind the twist of his arm as his wrist turns to right or left, towards the white or black compartment. Formerly the voters made use of written tickets or ballots. The present arrangement was contrived to protect the rights of the illiterate voter; but it is a case of "overprotection," and plainly lends itself to the purposes of fraud and undue influence—I might say, to intimidation. For certainly, in the remoter regions of Cephalonia and Thessaly and the Peloponnesus, the churches in which the voting takes place (election day is always fixed for Sunday) do not present that peaceful and even funereal aspect which the sanctity of the place demands, and with which the Australian system familiarizes us at home. Notwithstanding the presence of soldiers to keep the peace, serious affrays and "accidents" are frequent: four such cases occurred in Athens on the 15th, and the list of assaults and wounds in the provinces is proportionately larger. Such a record is not worthy of the civilization which, in various directions, the kingdom may justly claim. Moreover, the extraordinary provision which requires the voter to cast a ballot, or ball, in *all* the boxes—that is to say, not only in favor of the candidates whom he chooses, but also against those whom he rejects—lends itself to tricksy combinations and intrigues. It is at the same time exceedingly clumsy. On the present occasion, for instance, the voter in Attica was obliged to distribute thirty balls in as many urns. It would certainly be an education in honest politics if the nation could see its way to adopting some modification of the Australian ballot.

The result of the polling on May 15 gave 170 Representatives for Mr. Tricoupis and 37 for all others, about half of whom were claimed for Mr. Delyannis. It is quite plain that this extraordinary and unexpected majority was not the result of systematic bribery and corruption. It was, on the contrary, a declaration of confidence in the statesman who has so often before served his country with honor and a practical knowledge of business affairs; the statesman whom every traveller must remember for the railways he has encouraged and the admirable highways he has had built in the Peloponnesus and elsewhere. It was perhaps still more a spontaneous and hearty approval by the people of the recent unusual action of the King. It meant that the people not only stick by the present Constitution, and have no fancy for a republic, but that they also adhere to the King personally, as well they may—to that wise and upright and conscientious gentleman who for thirty years has proved himself without stain or reproach, and has watched faithfully over the interests of his people. If the crown had not been involved, undoubtedly the Tricoupis majority would have been smaller and less decided. As it is, the result is a satisfactory testimony to the general good sense of the voters of Greece; it makes one feel easier as to the future and the stability of the kingdom. It may be concluded that the Greeks are resolved as a nation to pay their debts, and to maintain the Constitution as it stands; it may be concluded that they are even proof against the arts of the demagogue when the vital interests of the State are concerned. They have at present condemned and dismissed their Boulanger; the newspapers say that he is politically dead. In any other country he might safely be so regarded, but he was a discredited man six years ago, and even now he has been reëlected to the "Boulê," or House of Representatives.

The immense majority for Mr. Tricoupis does not mean so much as it would with us or in England. Such a following is in Greece subject to rapid fluctuations and changes. When Mr. Tricoupis comes to distribute the appointments, dissatisfaction will at once arise—there are not places enough "to go round"—and disappointment will lead to secessions and to cabals. Purely personal interests are the strongest factor in Greek politics. The integrity, the experience, and the financial skill of Mr. Tricoupis will not necessarily secure long life to his administration. Yet it is to the credit of the Greeks that when they are among the rocks, they know their pilot and have the good sense to put him in command of the ship. The friends of Greece could wish they had more such pilots as Mr. Tricoupis. At present they do not make their appearance.

The policy which Mr. Tricoupis announced in his speeches was briefly this: The development of the resources and industries of Greece, economy in expenditures, the improvement of finance, and, finally, the declaration that it behooves the Government of Hellas to interest itself in the welfare of all Greeks wheresoever they may be. This latter sentiment has been criticised rather scornfully by most of the European press. The London *Times*, with that graceful opportuneness which has often so endeared the English nation to foreigners, remarks that the population of Greece could be taken out of a corner of London; and that people must pay their debts before they can expect to be heard in the councils of the nations. Yet it is not easy to see how Mr. Tricoupis or any Greek statesman could say less with reference to the six millions of Greeks who are mostly under Turkish rule. Is it possible that the kingdom of Hellas can really forget them? They certainly do not forget the kingdom of Hellas, either in their lives or in their wills. They are truer patriots, perhaps, than their brethren who have a country and a civilized government. They are not exactly "slaves," though they like to call themselves so; but they have no country, no share in any government of their own. The Greeks are above all clannish—they are too clannish, those who have studied them in the Levant complain. Their aims embrace only the Greek-speaking peoples; there is nothing cosmopolitan in their ambitions. But a national existence comes first and cosmopolitanism comes later. Certainly the Greeks of the Levant deserve a better fate than the Scylla of Turkish or the Charybdis of Russian rule; and who can blame the Greek-speaking peoples for looking to one another across the Ægean Sea? The bond of sympathy and sentiment is strong and close between them, even if it is not a bond of blood. They have no steadfast and disinterested friends among the European Powers; they know that the "balance of power," not of justice, is that which weighs their fortunes.

If they welcome Americans and defer to their opinion, it is because they know that the American has the privilege of being disinterested. There is, therefore, something pathetic in the situation of the youthful kingdom of Hellas, with her burden of great traditions, her great ambitions, and her comparatively small resources. It recalls the words of the helpless seer in Herodotus: "The sharpest pang in the lot of humanity is to have many thoughts, and to control nothing." Yet the Attic salt has not lost its savor. The last election was a moral victory; and if one wishes to measure material progress, let him compare Athens with Constantinople—let him look at the neat, and tidy, and charming capital of Hellas, with its municipal order and conveniences, with its beautiful public buildings—let him compare these with the insecurity and the heterogeneous slovenliness of Constantinople, where each nationality, in despair, has been driven to take care of its post-office and its citizens—and let him remember that from such precedents and from a hamlet of a few hundred houses Athens has reached its present growth in half a century's time. Such progress is at once a sample of what has been achieved, and a measure of what may be expected from Hellas in the future.

M. C. D.

HENRI BEYLE AND HIS SISTER.

PARIS, June 9, 1892.

'LETTRES INTIMES' of Stendhal: I saw this title-page a few days ago in the shop-window of a bookseller. The work had not been announced. I said to myself at first: Somebody has taken the scrapings of Stendhal, what could not be used in the two volumes lately published on him, and tried to catch the public by a mere name. Still, I bought the volume and read it, and was agreeably surprised to find it very interesting.

There is no introduction—only a few lines from the editor. "What we offer to the public," says he, "is the correspondence of Henri Beyle with his sister Pauline, with the person, consequently, or one of the persons, whom he had the least possible interest in deceiving; and people will see, we believe, a little of the naked soul of the personage through this easy, fraternal correspondence; they will discover something of the true philosophy of the writer in his undressed thought." The correspondence begins in Messidor, An X., which means 1801; and I may remark that the terms of the Republican calendar are almost always retained. Beyle asks his sister to write to him regularly once a week, and promises to do the same; he will be at a distance her guide and educator.

You are struck at once by the tone of the correspondence and by the high degree of culture which it supposes in the two correspondents. "I will send you a little book of 213 pages, 18mo, which will give you more ideas than all the libraries in the world. It is the 'Logic' of our compatriot, the Abbé de Condillac. It is useless to speak of this outside of the family—people would think me mad to send you such a book, and they would think you very presumptuous to attempt to read it; but, my dear Pauline, let the fools talk and let us go our own way." He proceeds to explain the beauties of this 'Logic.' If Pauline masters the great art of reasoning, there will be nothing to embarrass her—the most complicated cases of grammar, the most difficult calculations of algebra, will become play for her. This passage interests us as showing the influence which Condillac, who founded his philosophy wholly on sensation, had on the mind of Beyle. Was he not essentially a sensualist, in the highest as well as in the lowest meaning of the word?

Are there many brothers who would write to their younger sister such lines as these (Floréal, An XI.)?

"You cannot imagine how consoling in affliction the study of letters is, and when we reach a certain point it is a pleasure which always increases. When you have felt the beauties

of Corneille, of Racine, of Tasso, etc., you will not be able to detach yourself from them; and, if you are willing to help me, you will feel them very sensibly six months hence. . . . Here are some Italian verses by Vittorio Alfieri, one of the greatest poets of the eighteenth century; they give me much pleasure."

He recommends her to read La Fontaine, "if you understand him"; so he did not think it so easy to understand La Fontaine, and surely there is more in the fables than children can imagine. Occasionally he philosophizes a little:

"If you were blind, you would have no idea of red, green, yellow, of color in general; you would have no idea of the moon, you would think of the sun only as of a warm body. If you did not smell, you would not distinguish the smell of a rose from that of a pink. If you did not hear, you would not distinguish a *mi* from a *fa*. Therefore, all our ideas come from our senses. Think much of this great truth."

This is Condillac in its purest form: "Nihil est in intellectu quod non fuerit prius in sensu." The whole literary work of Beyle is pervaded by this doctrine; it made him an impressionist, a realist, before these terms were used as they are now. He talks to his sister of Vauvenargues, of Montesquieu; but he always advises her to keep her knowledge to herself. "For the *provinciaux*, whatever is reasoning is philosophy, and whatever is philosophy is odious."

"I lodge," he writes at another time, "in the sixth story, but just opposite the colonnade of the Louvre. Every evening I see successively the sun, the moon, and the stars disappear behind the galleries which have seen the *grand siècle*. I fancy seeing the forms of the great Condé, of Louis XIV., of Corneille, of Pascal, concealed behind these great columns." It is clear that sometimes when he writes to Pauline, he writes also for himself, for he recommends her to preserve his letters. Take, for example, the letter of 9th Pluviose, An XI.: "I am going to speak to you," he says, "of the moral principles of literature, of what constitutes the beautiful, and of what has induced great men to produce the beautiful." The letter is really a sort of essay. Beyle tries his own strength; he amuses himself; he knows that his sister "will not understand this at the first reading." He constantly refers to his poverty, he complains too much of his father, and accuses him of avarice. He has small debts; he owes money even to his porter, and he has pawned his watch. "I have been nowhere for a fortnight, for want of twelve sous in my pocket; I neglect M. Daru [his patron], Gen. Michaud, Mlle. Duchesnois [the actress]." He adds, however, immediately: "I have never laughed so much. Three years ago I should have been in despair; I have become reasonable." Then follows a little essay on tedium and the various ways to avoid it.

Some of these essays are tiresome, others are unbecoming, if you reflect that they proceed from a brother writing to a sister younger than himself. He tells Pauline, for instance, not to marry any man with whom she is in love. "All love comes to an end, however violent it may have been, and the more violent ends the quickest. After love comes disgust; nothing more natural." He asks his sister such questions as, "Es-tu amoureuse?" He makes her the confidante of his own love affairs. "All these little girls here bore me; their tenderness is mere grimace and studied grace—nothing frank, natural, energetic." In 1807 he writes from Berlin:

"I have conquered love with infinite pain, and, since I must say so, with tears. I was so agitated at seven o'clock in the evening, the moment when the question of my departure was to be settled, that I ran about the streets of Brunswick like a madman. I passed before the windows of a little girl for whom I have a passion. I felt torn. However, honor was stronger than love; I went to the Maréchal and told him that I wanted to go."

There is a certain Mina whom he calls Minette. "I have no more taste for Minette, the fair and charming Minette, this soul of the north whose like I have never seen in France or in Italy." His sister was then twenty-two years old; he constantly advises her to marry a good man, inferior to her in intellect, whom she could easily rein and rule; a rich man if possible. The two great qualities of a husband are "(1) not a tyrant; (2) rich." Beyle has perhaps an excuse in the character of his sister; she seems to have been a very masculine person, too masculine even for him. We infer this from a letter written from Germany (November 25, 1807): "What makes follies so fatal to great souls lodged in feminine bodies is the fact that people always attribute them to a contemptible cause. The most intellectual young man, and most in love, would not marry you if twenty or thirty ladies assured him that they had seen you running in the streets in the evening in men's clothes." He supposes that his sister answers: "But I am too much bored; I cannot continue this monotonous life." "Yes, but reflect that when there is a scandal, you can no longer find a husband." He always advises her to be first married. "A woman must first be married; that is what people demand of her. After that she does as she pleases." His sister was married in 1808. "How did you bear it? were you firm or weak? . . . Adieu, dear madame. Study yourself in this great circumstance. Marriage is like the stage of a theatre which you ascend from the pit. It seems large so long as you do not see the decorations behind."

You will find all of Beyle in this curious correspondence—his cynicism, his materialism, his mania for analyzing passions, his dogmatism. He is never tired of abusing Frenchmen for their vanity, but he is himself the vainest of all men—perpetually speaking of himself, of his smallest sensations, of his likes and dislikes; and with all this, which is not done to create any sympathy for him, an extraordinary clearness and terseness, a total absence of prejudice, an intense love of truth in all things, sometimes a curious sentimentality which contrasts greatly with the rest of his character—when he speaks, for instance, of music, of the emotions which it excites in him, when he speaks of Italy, its scenery, its monuments. Here and there, with much sobriety, there is an heroic note, as when he speaks of the battles of Napoleon, of his friends of the *grande armée;* but this heroic note has nothing of what we now call chauvinism: it is very simple and all the more powerful.

The most characteristic trait of the correspondence is the curiosity of Beyle about mankind and human nature. The world is to him a most delightful spectacle. He has a passion, a sincere passion, for society, he never wearies of making minute observations about men and women. The knowledge of the human heart, with all its intricacies and obscurities, is to him the supreme knowledge; his psychology is entirely founded on the doctrine of Condillac, on sensation.

"The finest secret I can give to you," he writes to his sister, "is to study the heart and the head of man. You know the heart well, your ardent soul has explained it to you; the head remains to be studied. I will send to you the 'Ideology' of Tracy. . . . If we are fortunate enough to live to be old, we will live in the same house and we will spend the evening of our life agreeably, in making a list of the passions, vanities, ambitions, hatreds, etc., and of the states of passion, hope, enjoyment, despair. Observe the habits of the souls of such men as D., who lies at every word you say to him, and write near every name the feature which you have seen developed in him."

Beyle did what he recommended to his sister to do: he studied the *comédie humaine* systematically—too systematically, for it is impossible not to see in the 'Chartreuse de Parme' and in 'Rouge et Noir,' his two masterpieces, a clear trace of the doctrines which he parades incessantly in his correspondence. Every human character is explained to him by what we now call, after him, a master passion (*passion maîtresse*). Every state of the heart and of the mind is the result of a sort of crystallization of sensations or of thoughts round a certain nucleus.

This correspondence, on the whole, though it is at times quite unpleasant, will interest all who consider Beyle one of the most original writers of our time. It is a pity that the editor does not give you the slightest detail about Beyle's sister, about her life, her marriage. We cannot, from the correspondence itself, reconstruct her life. The correspondence ends in 1814, with the French Empire. It may be that there will be another volume. So far we have only the letters written by Beyle from Germany, and during a short period from Paris, in 1810; from Russia in 1812, from Savoy and Italy in 1814.

Notes.

Henry Stevens & Son, 39 Great Russell Street, London, promise for next month Henry Harrisse's 'Discovery of North America,' "a critical, documentary, and historic investigation, with an essay on the early cartography of the New World," etc. This important work by the foremost investigator in the field will make a quarto volume of 800 pages, with 23 plates and many illustrations in the text, and will be issued to subscribers (up to July 11 for American orders) in three styles, ranging in price from £5 to £12 16s. Only 360 copies are to be printed.

Only 500 copies will be printed of Mr. Austin Dobson's edition of Fielding's 'Journal of a Voyage to Lisbon,' and 300 of George C. Napier's new work on 'The Homes and Haunts of Tennyson,' profusely illustrated, both of which are announced by Macmillan & Co.

The "Stanford" 'Dictionary of Anglicized Words and Phrases,' edited by Dr. C. A. M. Fennell, shortly to be issued by the Cambridge (Eng.) University Press, deals with 270 quotations, 1,800 phrases, and 10,880 words, and gives some 40,000 illustrative quotations.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in press several illustrated volumes: 'A French Ambassador at the Court of Charles II.—Le Comte de Cominges,' edited from his unpublished correspondence by J. J. Jusserand; 'Japan in Art and History,' by Félix Régamey; and 'The Fairy Tales of India,' collected and edited by Joseph Jacobs. The same firm will publish 'The New Exodus,' Harold Frederic's letters to the New York *Times* on the condition of the Jews in Russia; 'Lyrics and Ballads of Heine, Goethe, and other German Poets,' translated by Frances Hellman; 'Temperament, Disease, and Health,' by Com. F. E. Chadwick; and 'Hygienic Measures in relation to Infectious Diseases,' by George H. F. Nuttall, M.D.

Harper & Brothers will publish next week a

new volume of poems by Will Carleton, entitled 'City Festivals'; 'Mrs. Keats Bradford,' a novel by Maria Louise Pool; and 'The Magic Ink, and Other Stories,' by William Black.

D. Appleton & Co. will supply the American market with W. H. Hudson's remarkable work, 'The Naturalist in La Plata'; and have nearly ready also the following: 'Controverted Questions,' by Prof. Huxley; 'The Hope of the Gospel,' by George MacDonald; and 'Western Canada,' by Ernest Ingersoll, uniform with Prof. C. G. D. Roberts's guide-book, 'Eastern Canada.'

Ginn & Co. have in preparation a students' edition of Bulfinch's 'Age of Fable,' wrought over by Prof. Charles Mills Gayley of the University of California, with notes, cuts, and maps.

'Paddles and Politics Down the Danube' will be the title of Mr. Poultney Bigelow's collected articles relating his canoe voyage on that river. It will be issued by Charles L. Webster & Co.

The papers on Carlyle published by Sir Charles Gavan Duffy in the *Contemporary Review* have been collected into a volume called 'Conversations with Carlyle' (Scribners). They give, on the whole, a pleasant impression of the irascible Scot, as seen from the side of an intimate friendship of forty years' duration, and go no small way towards counteracting the idea, left by many of the later publications about him, that he was always domineering and unsympathetic. Moreover, they preserve a large number of his piquant and forcible opinions on writers and books, in which, if his inherent limitations are revealed, a good deal more than his ordinary kindliness is shown, with much of his best insight. Sir Charles touches lightly upon the question of Mrs. Carlyle's happiness in her marriage. He evidently thinks husband and wife to have been sufficiently compatible, but promises hereafter to recur to "the chief misapprehensions current in later years about the Chelsea household."

Landor's 'Imaginary Conversations,' as edited by Charles G. Crump (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan), is concluded with the newly issued sixth volume, of which the frontispiece is a view of the Villa Gherardesca at Fiesole. The opening conversation, between Landor, English Visitor, and Florentine, is one of the most incoherent of the whole, and has been most (and most carelessly) tinkered, so that the variants require an appendix in addition to the footnotes. It is also one which would naturally suggest an index of opinion and historical anecdote for the entire series, but this has not been undertaken. A bibliography of the Conversations, by Lucy Crump, follows the appendix, giving the dates of first appearance, which are usually but not uniformly, in this edition, supplied in connection with the respective conversations themselves.

Macmillan & Co. have brought out a second edition of the translation of Nägeli & Schwendener on the Microscope. The original treatise has an established place as perhaps the fullest exposition of the theory of the microscope as an optical instrument, from the physical and mathematical standpoint. The translation was made under the supervision of Messrs. Crisp and Mayall of the Royal Microscopical Society of London. A fire in the printers' establishment destroyed the "copy" of the last part of the work, and it is to be regretted that this has not yet been supplied, though the division of the subjects gives independent and substantial value to the work without the final chapters.

The Rev. J. C. Atkinson's 'Play Hours and Half-Holidays' (Macmillan) was first published some thirty years ago, and is the story of two English lads at school. Little is said of their indoor life, but much stress is laid on the discoveries made by the boys concerning the character and habits of birds and animals, the art of fishing and the making of artificial flies, the collection and preservation of butterflies, the location and nature of plants and minerals. In short, the book is an account of many of the excursions into different fields of natural science which boys generally make sooner or later. It is all told in a way that can hardly fail to create a desire to follow in the path the two lads travelled. If the style is somewhat stilted at times, this defect is compensated by the author's genuine sympathy with boys and their ways.

One of the founders of the Grolier Club, Mr. William Loring Andrews, has recently printed a little book on 'Roger Payne and His Art,' a short account of Payne's life and work as a binder (New York: The De Vinne Press). Among the illustrations are a reproduction of the etching which represents Payne in his workshop and seven books bound by him—these last being admirably reproduced by Mr. Bierstadt's artotype process with all the delicacy of colored leather and all the brilliancy of gilding. Mr. Andrews is more moderate in his claims than are most of those who write about Payne. The fact is, and these excellent plates are as good evidence as any one could wish, that Payne, although an honest and a loving workman, is wholly unworthy of comparison with the great binders of France and Italy—not merely with the anonymous artist who worked for Henry II. of France, or with the so-called Gascon, but even with secondary Frenchmen like Derome. Still, he is the best binder England produced until Mr. Cobden-Sanderson began to decorate leather covers with exquisitely fresh designs.

Among the multitude of books in the Dutch language itself and in other European tongues about Holland, there is none treating directly, and in the spirit of modern science, of the people of the Netherlands. Such a work is much needed, in view of the facts that there are few foreign students of the Dutch language, and that the popular books about it have such manifest limitations. In 'Geschiedenis van het Nederlandsche Volk' (History of the Netherlandish People), by Prof. P. J. Blok of the University of Groningen, we have what bids fair to supply the need of students who want more than Motley or Davies has yet given. The special abilities of Prof. Blok have long been known, for he is no tyro in the art either of research or of expression. With a combination of powers which suggests both Freeman and Macaulay, he makes the story of the Dutch people one of great human interest. His style is singularly clear, and he has availed himself of the garnered results of the geologist, archæologist, philologist, and legist, besides digesting the standard narratives and monographs. The first volume of his projected work comes in the form of a handsomely printed octavo, with index and colored map of the Netherlands in the thirteenth century, from the press of J. B. Wolters of Groningen. The text in this volume treats of the Roman dominion, the Frankish epoch, the period of the feudal States and their intestine strifes; the rise and power of the counts, bishops, and nobility, the various fortunes of the common people, and the emergence of political life in the form of States. The succeeding volumes will show the development of the nation in the centuries succeeding the thirteenth.

Baron Alexander von Artin's 'Kaspar Hauser: Des Räthsels Lösung' (Zürich: Schmidt) contains nothing new except two documents, namely, a letter of the Grand-duke Ludwig I. to the Minister von Berstett, dated June 5, 1828, and an extract from the diary of a prince to whom Von Berstett confided this letter on his death-bed, with the strict injunction not to publish it until fifty-five years after his decease. Von Berstett died February 16, 1837, and when the appointed term expired, February 16, 1892, the son of the aforesaid prince gave the letter to Von Artin for publication. If these documents are genuine, they prove conclusively that the foundling of Nuremberg was the legitimate heir to the crown of Baden. The brochure has already passed into the fourth edition. We may mention here that 'The Story of Kaspar Hauser, Drawn from Authentic Sources,' by Mrs. Elizabeth E. Evans, the first complete and consecutive account of this mysterious personage in the English language, will be issued early in September by Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London.

In a new volume of 'Essais sur la Littérature Contemporaine' (Paris: Calmann Lévy), M. Ferdinand Brunetière has gathered a dozen or more articles originally contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and dealing wholly with the books of the present—with M. Sully-Prudhomme and with the new school of the Symbolists, with the Impressionistic theory of criticism as practised by M. Anatole France and M. Jules Lemaitre, with Naturalism on the Stage, and with the Novel of the Future. Perhaps the boldest of his articles is a defence of literature itself against the sneers of M. Rousse, who was elected to the French Academy because he was a distinguished lawyer. But, whatever subject he discusses, M. Brunetière speaks in no uncertain tones, and he is always worth listening to.

The French author has a means of profit not possessed by American authors: he may arrange for a succession of serial publications of the novel or book of travels in periodicals of decreasing importance. While the *Revue des Deux Mondes* and *L'Illustration* and *Le Temps* contain only novels hitherto unprinted, many minor Parisian periodicals and most of the provincial newspapers are satisfied to offer their readers literary matter already printed in some other publication, and even after it is for sale over the counter in book form. *La Lecture*, for example, was founded two or three years ago to publish only first-rate literature in this second-hand manner; and it was so successful that the same publishers brought out *La Lecture Rétrospective*, to contain the writings of recently deceased French authors. Like most French reviews, *La Lecture* appears twice a month. The same principle is now to be applied to a new weekly, *La Revue Hebdomadaire* (Paris: E. Plon, Nourrit & Cie.), which is to be chiefly eclectic, like *La Lecture*, with original articles on politics and music and the fine arts.

Readers of *L'Art* are familiar with the prolific ornamental designs in head and tailpieces, borders, cartouches, etc., of J. Habert Dys. This artist has begun a series of *livraisons* without text, entitled 'L'Ornement Pratique: Documents d'après nature' (Paris: Librairie de *L'Art*). Each contains four plates of studies, as, of flax, primroses, pinks, grasses, and sprays; or, in another line, of cats, owls, etc. These are cleverly drawn, and many bor-

rowers will be glad to put them to "practical" account.

The Danzig and Berlin sheets of the fine Perthes Map of the German Empire are now procurable (New York: B. Westermann & Co.). There remain nineteen of the total twenty-seven to be issued.

The American Association for the Advancement of Science will hold its forty-first meeting in Rochester, N. Y., from August 16 to August 24.

—It is known to most readers that the Spanish Government has arranged for a series of international celebrations to be held in Spain, during the coming autumn, for the commemoration of the fourth centenary of the discovery of America by Columbus. In response to the invitation of the Spanish authorities, our Congress, by a recent act, has made provision for the representation of the United States at the most important of these celebrations, known as the "Historico-American Exposition," to be opened in Madrid on the 12th day of September next, and President Harrison has already appointed a Commission to preside over all arrangements that may be made in the name of the United States to this effect. It is greatly to be regretted that, owing to the late date at which Congress acted in the premises, the time for preparing an exhibit on the part of the United States is so short. The Exposition will be conducted, in the strictest sense of the word, according to the comparative method, and will consist of two great sections, one of which is known as the "Historico-European Exhibition" and the other as the "Historico-American Exposition." The former will represent the state which the European continent had reached, in its social development, in its industries and its arts, at the date of the discovery of the New World, while the latter will exhibit, under similar heads, the pre-Columbian social status of America and the social status of America contemporaneous with the conquest and settlements effected by European nations. In this way the two Expositions, standing side by side, will each have a double interest because of the cross-lights which the one will shed on the other. There are three sources from which they will be fed: Museums and establishments under national control; university cabinets and private collections; and treasures belonging to religious corporations. Congress has authorized the Commissioners from the United States to select from the archives of the Federal Government, from the National Museum, and from the various executive departments at Washington such pictures, books, papers, documents, and other articles "as may relate to the discovery and early settlement of America, and to the original inhabitants thereof." The Commissioners are further authorized to secure the loan of similar articles from other museums and private collections, and to arrange and install the whole as "the exhibit of the United States."

—The Commission on the part of the United States consists of Admiral S. B. Luce, U.S.N., Commissioner General, with Dr. James C. Welling, President of the Columbian University, and Dr. George Brown Goode, Assistant Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, as Adjunct-Commissioners. The Commission has issued a circular, explaining the purport of the Exposition, from which we take the following extract:

The Commission invites the coöperation of persons having objects of any kind suitable for exhibition on this occasion. The collections will be returned in January. Objects intended for the World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago may, by a special arrangement, be forwarded direct from Madrid to Chicago in ample time for installation.

It is especially desired that authors and publishers of books relating to the periods of discovery and conquest, and the colonial history of the several European settlements in America, shall exhibit them. The Commission and its staff will give special attention to the effective presentation of such publications.

Exhibits will be forwarded without charge to Madrid, and returned to the exhibitor free of expense, the Commission bearing the cost of transportation, and becoming responsible for the effective labelling and installation of the objects. All objects should be forwarded to Washington, if possible, before the first of July, addressed to the Madrid Commission, care of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington.

—More than fifty lectures on subjects connected with the discovery of America have already been read before the Madrid Ateneo. When that chief literary and scientific society of Spain debated the question, in June, 1890, how it could best contribute to the celebration of the centenary of the discovery, it approved the proposition of the Chairman of the historical section, Señor Moguel, that a series of public conferences should be given by leading scholars, the happy innovation being made of extending invitations to Portuguese and American specialists. The long and elaborate programme finally decided upon began with an inaugural address, February 13, 1891, by the Prime Minister of Spain, Cánovas del Castillo, himself a distinguished historian. Then the orderly course was fittingly opened with a lecture on the "Notions of the Ancients on Atlantic Lands." Next came the Portuguese historian and statesman Oliveira Martins, with a discourse upon the "Discoveries of the Portuguese anterior to Columbus." Out of the long list of professors and literati who followed, worthy of mention seem several of the Ministers from the South American republics to Spain, and, in particular, Fernández Duro, who spoke of the first voyage, principally with the aim of recovering for Martín Alonso Pinzón the glory which the lecturer thought his due in connection with the event; Capt. Patricio Montojo of the Spanish Navy, who argued that the "First Land Discovered by Columbus" was the island of Guanajani; Señora Emilia Pardo Bazán, whose theme was "The Franciscans and their Influence in the Discovery of America"; and Luís Vidart, who made the greatest sensation of all by his two lectures on "Columbus and Bobadilla," and "Columbus and Spanish Ingratitude." The first was a vehement attempt to rehabilitate the Governor dubbed "infamous" by Roselly de Lorgues, of which the patriotic motive may be seen in the assertion: "It must be clearly said that the opprobrium with which it has been sought to stain the memory of the Comendador Francisco de Bobadilla, depreciates and blackens all the glory which Spain attained in the discovery of the New World." A like note marked Vidart's second lecture, in which he essayed to demolish that part of the "Columbus legend" which asserts that Columbus died in neglect and poverty. Altogether, these Ateneo conferences, if they have made no striking contributions to knowledge, are yet highly significant of the persistence of the literary tradition in Spain.

—The new volume of the Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society constitutes Part VI. of the Winthrop Papers, which here range in date from July, 1675, to March 25, 1728, and are derived from the later correspondence of Maj.-Gen Wait Still Winthrop, younger son of the Connecticut Governor. He was, according to Samuel Sewall, who succeeded him as Chief Justice of Massachusetts, "a very pious, prudent, couragious New England man"—and Sewall had no higher praise for any one than to call him a (typical) New England man. Winthrop's seemingly Puritanic name was a triple union of family surnames. He left a great real property to his son and daughter, but died intestate, though he had drawn up a will; and the litigation which ensued forms a large topic in the latter half of the volume. Curious lists are given of the persons invited to his funeral, with indications as to their provision with gloves, scarves, rings, and escutcheons. Sixty gold rings cost £63. Sewall, of course, was in his element as one of the bearers, and was ready in due time to make the widow his wife, had she responded to his blandishments. The drapery of the mourners produced itemized bills for "Etalian crape," "allamode," "galoom," and other stuffs; and the military tradition of the deceased called for drum-covers, "cullers," halberts, and half-pikes. The troubles of his son John at New London now began with the estrangement of his sister Anne and her husband Thomas Lechmere over the settlement of the estate. Lechmere furnishes the thread that gives the most unity to the volume, and while the editors are doubtless right in belittling the numerous letters from his pen they have suppressed, those retained have the racy quality of an informal, easy-going nature, quite alluring amid so much primness and respectability. Before he "turned catt in pann" with his brother-in-law, he proved the sincerity of his profession that "a hearty welcome with mean things is better than otherwise." He uses a great many nicknames in his familiar letters, and indulges in much delightful gossip about immigration from the North of Ireland, which he mistrusted as much as the Bostonians of 1830–'50 did that from the South; about the sudden freezing of the harbor and its unbinding by a mighty January thaw, etc. He even dared to write of "a memoriall, or somewhat else, of Doctr. [Cotton] Mather & some other gentl. concerning the customes of the times; but in my weake opinion, notwithstanding its authors, I think it is the emptiest thing I ever read in all my life." Mather would have figured much more than he does in this series but that his letters had already been excerpted and published. Lechmere has been slighted in the poor index, which is neither accurate nor full nor very intelligently made. There are ten pages of valuable facsimiles of autographs of the writers of the several letters. The next volume will contain selections from the correspondence of John Winthrop, F.R.S., for the remainder of his life.

—The second volume of the "Saga Library," edited by William Morris and Eirîkr Magnússon (London: Bernard Quaritch), is entitled 'The Story of the Ere-Dwellers,' and contains felicitous translations of the Eyrbyggja Saga, and a fragment of the Heidarviga Saga ("The Story of the Heath-Slayings"). This last saga is said to be unquestionably the oldest of all the sagas of Iceland, and its quaint language has never before been turned into English. Of the Eyrbyggja Saga Walter Scott made an abstract in English, with the help of an old Latin version, in 1813, and it was printed in 1814 in the unhappy Henry Weber's 'Illustrations of Northern Antiquities,' and reprinted, in 1847, in Mr. Blackwell's edition of Mallet's

'Northern Antiquities.' The present volume is nearly twice as large as the first one of the series, the text filling 259 pages, and the introduction and notes a full hundred more, while the indexes extend to some ninety additional pages. This increase in the size of the volumes, due to an enthusiasm on the part of the editors which the intelligent publisher is loath to repress, has led Mr. Quaritch to make a modest advance in the price of the books, from 5s. to 7s. 6d. each volume. It is to be hoped that this slight increase will not deter librarians from subscribing for the series. The books contained in it are of permanent value and of high literary excellence, and as the edition is small, the volumes are likely to go out of print and rise in price. The next four numbers—in the printer's hands—are to contain an entirely new translation of the well-known 'Heimskringla' of Snorre Sturleson, with a special map and voluminous notes. Some improvement is desirable in the way of proof-reading, and it would be a gain to abandon, in future volumes, the antiquated method of dividing up the index under various heads (in this case there are five separate alphabets, besides subalphabets), and substitute one general alphabet, retaining, however, the interesting notes inserted in the index.

GEORGE MASON.—I.

The Life of George Mason, 1725–1792. By Kate Mason Rowland. Including his Speeches, Public Papers, and Correspondence. With an Introduction by Gen. Fitzhugh Lee. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1892.

In these comely and copious volumes we have a genealogy of the Mason family of Virginia; a biography of George Mason of Gunston Hall, the Planter Statesman of the Revolution; an abbreviated history of his times; a collection of his writings, speeches, and letters, so far as they can now be recovered; and a commentary on the political principles and opinions of which he was the distinguished advocate. Miss Rowland does her work so carefully that we can but regret the loss of much valuable material which, in the changes and chances of a hundred years since George Mason's death, has failed to be handed down to us. That some of this material was scattered by the havoc of war, in the way she recites, we can easily understand, but much of it was also lost from the want of an historic sense in whole communities of the American people before the civil war. This want was sometimes specially deplorable in its effects at the South, where tradition records, as Miss Rowland tells us, that the wife of Ludwell Lee, son of Richard Henry Lee, converted many of the letters of George Mason into covers for her preserve-jars, as similar treasures among the Bland papers are known to have served as lining for egg-baskets. In the days before the war, Virginia, with all her legitimate State pride, was slow to build the tombs of her political prophets. Miss Rowland makes it apparent, at every stage of her narrative, that she is a great admirer of "the old social order" which was based on slavery at the South, and she gives us a pleasing picture of the baronial independence in which the Southern planter lived on his broad acres, where he not only was surrounded by his village of negro laborers and artisans and by his flocks and herds, but, in the remoter spaces, could ride to the hounds and hunt the deer within his own domains. This segregation of the Southern social life was, however, little congenial to the nurture of an historic spirit among even the members of the ruling class; and though men like Washington, and Jefferson, and Madison abundantly showed that they knew the import and value of preserving records, their compatriots of a later period have often been singularly remiss in giving definition and distinctness to the images of worthies concerning whom they are justly proud. We learn from these volumes, with surprise, that no stone at this day marks the grave of George Mason, though he left five sons to the heritage of his honorable fame, as well as to the heritage of his ample estate. The family graveyard on many a Southern plantation was rarely visited save when its sward was broken to receive a new occupant, and so it might easily fall a prey to neglect, like that which overtook even the family vault of the Washingtons at Wakefield before the close of the first half of the present century.

Among the many modifications wrought in American character by the storm and stress of our civil war, we may count at least as a gain the stimulus it has given to the culture of studies in American history. The elaborate memoir devoted by his grandson to the 'Life and Times' of Patrick Henry, as recently reviewed in these columns, may be cited as a proof of such studies and of the new popular interest to which they appeal. And this becoming memorial in honor of George Mason may be gladly welcomed as an evidence of the same gratifying fact.

George Mason of Gunston Hall was born in 1725. He was a member of the Virginia Assembly in 1759. He was a vestryman of Pohick Church, near Mount Vernon, and was in early association with George Washington. He drafted the "Non-Importation Resolutions" adopted by the members of the Virginia House of Burgesses after the House had been dissolved by the Governor, Lord Botetourt, in 1769. In 1773 he wrote the Defence of Virginia's claim to the public lands west of the Alleghany Mountains on both sides of the Ohio River, and became ever afterwards the recognized expositor of Virginia's pretensions under this head. He drew up the "Fairfax County Resolves" of 1774, pronounced by Jared Sparks "one of the ablest and most luminous expositions of the points at issue between Great Britain and the colonies." In 1776 he drafted the Declaration of Rights and the State Constitution adopted by Virginia in expression of her new autonomy after the Declaration of Independence. Working loyally and zealously in support of American independence, he opposed the emission of paper money and denounced the knavery of legal-tender laws. He favored the honest payment of private debts due to British creditors after the Treaty of Peace, as being required equally by common honesty and by treaty stipulation. He was selected as a delegate to attend the Annapolis Convention called to consult for a revision of the Articles of Confederation, but did not attend because of illness. He was a member of the Federal Convention of 1787 and of the Virginia Convention which sat on the adoption of the Constitution in 1778.

Gen. Washington, who knew this neighbor of his most intimately in all the relations of both public and private life, wrote in 1779 that he had for George Mason at that date an "unreserved friendship," and "wished for instances in which to testify the sincerity of his regard." Jefferson said of Mason that he was "a man of the first order of wisdom among those who acted on the theatre of the Revolution, of expansive mind, profound judgment, cogent in argument, learned in the lore of former constitutions, and earnest for the republican change on democratic principles." A brilliant political controversialist has said of the Fourth Article in Mason's Declaration of Rights that if, in after days, "a deluge of despotism should overspread the world," this single sentence would be sufficient "to rekindle the flame of liberty and revive the race of freemen." If the tribute does something less than justice to the pith and condensation of George Mason's political style, it is only because of the too inflated rhetoric in which the tribute is couched.

Yet it is known by all that this political seer and sage, who certainly ranked among the foremost of the constructive statesmen of America during all the years of crisis which preceded and attended the Revolution, was numbered at last among the most embittered enemies of the new Constitution framed by the Federal Convention of 1787. Early in 1786 we find him opposing the impost bill recommended by the Continental Congress to the adoption of the States, and recommended only as a makeshift to meet the crying wants of the Government at that juncture. Madison, who knew the strength and influence of Mason, confesses at this time to his fears about Mason's "Federal ideas." A few months later he again expresses a fear that Mason may not yet be cured of his "anti-Federal prejudices." It was but natural that these "anti-Federal prejudices" of a planter statesman should be intensified in the latter part of the year 1786 by Jay's negotiations with Gardoqui for the provisional surrender of the Mississippi River to Spain. We know that Gen. Henry Lee, as a member of the Continental Congress at this time, was personally disposed to favor such a temporary surrender on grounds of public policy, though he voted against it in obedience to his instructions as a delegate from Virginia, and also because he foresaw that it would give a handle to "popular declaimers," as he calls them, in their agitation against necessary measures for "bracing" the Federal Government with enlarged powers. In this latter relation he foresaw and foretold that much would depend on the sentiments of George Mason and on his attitude before the Virginia Assembly.

Yet, in spite of all his prepossessions in an anti-Federal direction, Mason seems to have gone to the Federal Convention with an earnest desire to coöperate in measures which should have for their effect to brace the Federal Government against the imbecilities and anarchy of the Confederation. He avowed himself early on the floor of the Convention as favoring a government which should operate directly on individuals, and not on States, but he said that he did not wish to push the experiment too far. After the Convention had been sitting for some five or six weeks, and when the dissidence between the small States and the large States, as also between "Nationalists" and "States-rights men," had been fully revealed, he did not despair of an accommodation, and proclaimed that he "would bury his bones in Philadelphia sooner than expose his country to a dissolution of the Convention without anything being done." A few days later, it is true, he confesses much concern at the "aristocratic principles" which some gentlemen had advanced in the confidential debates of that body. With all his republican simplicity, he never failed to place civil security before political rights, and therefore he openly avowed that he had small faith in the result of elec-

tions for an office like that of President of the United States, if the choice of a President was to be left free to the people at large. He thought the reëligibility of the President should be absolutely prohibited as the very *sine qua non* of republican stability. The toleration of the slave trade till the year 1808 seemed to him at once a national infamy and a public peril. He thought that the provision made for the passage of navigation laws by a majority vote in Congress would for ever put the planting States at the mercy of the trading States, and so work to the disparagement and damage of the former. Towards the close of the session, when the ultimate shape of the projected Constitution had been pretty clearly defined, we find him no longer proposing to lay his bones in Philadelphia, but indignantly proclaiming that he "would sooner chop off his right hand than put it to the Constitution as it then stood."

What he then protested within the walls of the "secret conclave" he hastened, so soon as the doors of the Convention were opened, to proclaim from the housetops to the enemies of the Constitution who stood nearest to him among the disaffected and seceding members of the Pennsylvania Convention. "George Mason's hand in a chopping-box" became, for months, a by-word of derision among the Federalists. It seemed to the friends of the Constitution that Mason, in the violence of his opposition, was prone to exceed the limits of dispassionate debate. Jefferson has remarked that there was "a dash of bitter cynicism" in the oratory of Mason whenever "provocation made it seasonable." Shortly after the Federal Convention rose, Washington predicted, from his knowledge of his neighbor's character and convictions, that Mason's reasons against the Constitution "would be clothed in most terrific array for the purpose of alarming." Madison, in his correspondence, soon reports that Mason's "licentiousness of animadversion" was said to spare no longer even such as were the moderate opponents of the Constitution; and the complaint is made that, growing every day "more bitter and outrageous in the effort to carry his point," he would probably, in the end, "be thrown by the violence of his passions into the politics of Mr. Henry," whom Madison suspected of squinting at a Southern Confederacy. In fact, the opposition of Mason to the ratification of the Constitution was, if possible, more inveterate and intense than that of Henry. Towards the close of the Virginia Convention, he held up the spectre of civil dissension in order to deter the friends of the Constitution from forcing it on a reluctant people.

Miss Rowland thinks that some intimation concerning the effect of this exciting appeal on his part may be gathered from the remarks with which Gen. Henry Lee, the "Light Horse Harry" of the Revolution, sought to do away with the strong impression which Mason had obviously made on his hearers. But she does not tell us what it was that "the Federal advocate" said in order to do away with this impression. After expressing surprise and grief that such language, so well qualified to produce the sedition it menaced, should be used by "a character so venerable and estimable," Gen. Lee remarked that "if the madness of some and the vice of others should risk the awful appeal" forecast by Mason, he trusted that the friends of the paper then lying on the table "would meet the afflicting call with the firmness and fortitude which become men summoned to defend what they conceive to be the true interest of their country." It will be seen that the coming events at Gettysburg and Appomattox, even before "the paper then lying on the table" had been quickened into life, were already casting their dim shadows before them on the walls of the Virginia Convention of 1788. But how little could Gen. Lee foresee that in "the awful appeal" at which he shuddered, but which he accepted in the name of the Constitution, he would himself be called, at the head of Federal troops, to put down a popular insurrection in Pennsylvania, and that his own more distinguished son would one day be the serene and intrepid leader of insurgent forces arrayed against the Union in the name of the States. And how little could either Lee or Mason foresee that, in that collision of hostile forces, the very institution of slavery which Mason had denounced as bringing "the judgment of Heaven on a nation," would be ground to powder, with a profound sense of relief, after the agony was over, alike on the part of those who maintained and of those who opposed it. In the large logic of human events, the mills of the gods grind slowly, but they grind exceeding fine; and they grind exceeding fine precisely because they work incessantly in the *intervalla ac spiramenta temporum* of which Tacitus writes.

MAITLAND'S SLANG DICTIONARY.

The American Slang Dictionary. Embodying all American and English Slang Phrases in Current Use, with their Derivation and Philology. By James Maitland. Chicago: The Author. 1891.

"DICTIONARIES," said Dr. Johnson, "are like watches: the worst is better than none, and the best cannot be expected to go quite true." If the first part of this dictum is not correct in all cases, it approaches that result in most. The poorest of either of the two things mentioned gives information sufficiently exact much more often than it misleads. Therefore, those who are fully acquainted with the difficulties that stand in the way of perfection in the preparation of dictionaries of any sort can hardly fail to be lenient to shortcomings. There is so much inevitable drudgery in the compilation of the worst of them, there is so much inevitable inaccuracy pervading the very best, that he must be the most hardened of the fierce race of critics who can turn over the pages of one of the most ill-executed of this class of works and not experience some relenting feelings.

Yet it must be confessed at the outset that, in the examination of this work, the most tender-hearted of the tribe will need to call into active exercise every relenting feeling he possesses. He who would gladly say something favorable or else say nothing at all, is placed in a peculiarly trying position when called upon to notice the present performance. If the precise truth must be told, seldom has labor been spent to less purpose than in the compilation of this volume. Seldom has the accomplishment of a task of peculiar difficulty fallen into hands so ill-equipped for accomplishing it properly. The hopeless thing, too, about it is, that it is clear from the introductory matter not only that the compiler does in all honesty and sincerity think the work to be well done, but that he also purposes to continue doing more of the same sort.

Let us now, avoiding generalities, mention a few of the many particulars which are calculated to make the judicious grieve. The work is styled 'The American Slang Dictionary.' It uses the definite article in the title; it would have a great deal of difficulty in establishing a claim to the indefinite. So far from being an American slang dictionary, there is an exceedingly small proportion of the words and phrases contained in it which are peculiar to America. Indeed, the author himself professes that he aims to embody the accepted slang of daily use both in the United States and in Great Britain. There is surely a certain degree of impropriety, in such a case, in making this country even remotely responsible for the contents of the volume. But something much worse remains to be said. So far from being a slang dictionary, a considerable share of its words and phrases cannot be regarded as slang at all in the modern sense of that term. Furthermore, a large number cannot be regarded as slang in any sense that term has ever had.

This last is a characteristic which strikes the attention on every page. The compiler does not really know what is meant by the word slang, either in its original sense or in the sense in which it is now almost invariably employed. This is a peculiarity which he shares, indeed, with most editors of this class of works, and would not deserve special mention here were it not that, in his case, the usual ignorance has attained dimensions unusually formidable. The reader is kept in a perpetual state of wonder as to the motives which could have influenced the compiler to select the vocabulary he has brought together. He inserts in this dictionary a number of words which were once in good literary use but have now become archaic. Yet he assures us in his preface that he has found it necessary to exclude obsolete slang expressions of former days. He inserts in it also words that are merely provincial or dialectic. Here again he informs us that much of the gypsy cant has been omitted as now unintelligible. It would be interesting to know when the time was that gypsy cant was ever intelligible to the English-speaking people, or formed any part of what at the present time is called slang. Furthermore, he inserts in this dictionary technical terms and those peculiar to various trades and professions. Last, and worst of all, he inserts, as slang, expressions which have belonged to the language of literature from the very outset, and have been and still continue to be used by the best writers. In truth he has included in this collection any word or phrase which for any reason happened to strike his fancy as being at all out of the way, not caring to consider whether it is so in reality, but knowing nothing beyond the fact that it is out of any way with which he is acquainted.

Little, too, as have been the pains taken in the selection of words, the character of the vocabulary is no worse than that of the definitions. Of these latter many are inadequate, some are inaccurate. Much of the value of a dictionary of any kind, but specially of a dictionary of this kind, lies in the illustrative quotations it furnishes. This particular volume, however, does not furnish a single one. The nearest approach it makes to it is the citation of some common phrase in which the expression occurs; but even of these very few are found. Moreover, the information imparted is at times so peculiar that one is led to doubt whether the preposterous statement made is a perverse misapprehension, or a thinly disguised attempt at irony, or simply nothing more than the result of combined innocence and ignorance. Thus, under *Joe Miller*, its definition as "an old and oft-told story; a 'chestnut,'" is followed by this remarkable item of news: "One Joseph Miller, an English

clown, is credited with the publication of a book of moss-covered jests now in the possession of Chauncey M. Depew."

Nor are these the only respects in which the performance of the work fails to fulfil its promise. On the title-page we are told that this dictionary not only embodies all American and English slang phrases—which it is very far from doing—but also their derivation and philology. To illustrate the value of this assertion let us take the first letter. There are in this volume more than a hundred words and phrases recorded under the vowel A. Not half-a-dozen instances can be found in which there is the slightest attempt to give the derivation; and so far as the necessarily cursory examination of the whole vocabulary will justify the generalization, we are fairly confident that the same proportion will hold good for the rest of the alphabet.

Not that any fault is to be found with the omission. Attention is called to it because it supplies another instance of the discrepancy existing between the announcement in the title and the condition of things in the body of the work. In itself the neglect to record derivations is a positive advantage. The origin of slang words and phrases is on the whole the most puzzling question of its kind with which the student of language has to deal. The best-informed philologist might well refuse to undertake such a task. If he undertook it, he would be compelled to admit that in a large number, perhaps in the large majority, of instances he would be unable to solve the problems presented. It is easy to fancy what the result would be were the work attempted by one possessed of the linguistic acquirements of the present compiler. We are not, indeed, compelled to resort to our fancy. The derivations given, outside of a few instances where it is almost impossible to go astray, are remarkable for their absurdity or for their impossibility. The editor has not even taken the pains to examine the somewhat scanty sources of knowledge that exist, and is probably unaware even of their existence.

These observations may have the appearance of harsh criticism. To show that this is not really the side upon which they err, all that is necessary will be to make a strict examination of the very first page of the volume; for upon that one page, as in most of those that follow, the characteristics of improper selection, inadequate definition, and wrong derivation will be found exemplified. It contains the following eleven words and phrases: *A. B.*, *abaft*, *abeam*, *abide*, *Abigail*, *aboard*, *aboon*, *about right*, *above one's bend*, *above par*, *above snakes*. Of these *A. B.* as a contraction of "able seaman" may possibly pass. *Abaft* and *abeam* are both perfectly legitimate nautical terms, and are no more to be reckoned slang than "starboard" and "port." Then follows *abide* with the phrase quoted, "I cannot abide him." It is here inadequately defined as 'to suffer,' though it more plainly means 'to put up with,' 'to endure.' This sense of the word goes back to the fifteenth century at least, is found from that time on in good writers and serious compositions, and, though at present not so common as formerly, and perhaps steadily tending to be confined to the colloquial speech, has never been slang and is not so now.

The next word—*Abigail* in the sense of 'a lady's maid'—is a study in the editor's methods of derivation. He remarks that it is 'said to be from the name of Mrs. Masham (Abigail Hill), who, as lady-in-waiting to Queen Anne, distinguished herself as a mistress of intrigue.' A reference to so common a work as Webster's Dictionary might have suggested a doubt as to the correctness of the derivation, for in that work Pepys is given as an authority for this meaning. But a consultation of either the Century Dictionary or of that of the Philological Society would have shown that the word is taken from the name of the waiting-gentlewoman in Beaumont and Fletcher's play of "The Scornful Lady," which in the seventeenth century was extremely popular on the stage. A further consultation of the latter lexicon would, moreover, have supplied a quotation exhibiting the use of *Abigail*, in the sense mentioned, as early as 1693, some nine years before Anne came to the throne.

The inability to distinguish between what is an Americanism and what is American slang is illustrated in the editor's treatment of the next word. Under *aboard* is given the expression "all aboard." In itself this phrase is both legitimate English and ancient English. From an indefinite past it has been an order applied to those embarking on a vessel. The peculiarity of usage in this country of applying it to those who are going upon a land-vehicle of any sort may be deemed either an extension or a perversion of usage; but while it is a genuine Americanism, it can with no propriety be treated as American slang. An observation of a somewhat similar character can be made about *aboon*. It is a form belonging to the northern dialect of England, and has nothing whatever to do with slang of any sort, and least of all with American slang.

The four phrases which follow can, perhaps, be all fairly included under the denomination of slang, provided they can all be said to exist. They are taken from Bartlett's 'Dictionary of Americanisms.' One of them—*above par*—in its strict sense as referring to stocks, has certainly no business here; but in its colloquial extension to other matters it may be justly accorded a place. The last one, however—*above snakes*—must be regarded as extremely suspicious. It is given by Bartlett as a specimen of exaggerated cant for 'from the ground,' and the only authority adduced by him for its use is a sentence taken from Lady Emmeline Stuart Wortley's 'Travels in the United States.' It has every appearance of an expression originated by an individual, and not at all of one current in even the smallest of communities. At the same time it is not safe to make any positive statement on a point of this kind, for no one person can be expected to be familiar with the local peculiarities of speech that prevail over a continent. The very preface to the present volume furnishes in this matter an instructive warning as to the danger of general assertions. In it the compiler severely censures Hotten for mentioning as American slang four words which are particularly specified. He declares them to be atrocities of which no American has ever heard. Yet one of them—*exflunctify*—the present writer has known to be used by several persons; and two of the others, in a somewhat modified form, have been almost equally familiar.

The examination of every succeeding page in this volume would show a state of facts not essentially different from that found on the first. What, indeed, can be thought of the linguistic training or of the judgment of a man who puts down, as slang, terms descriptive of things peculiar to America, like *calumet*, *sachem*, *wigwam*, *bayou*, *crevasse*, and *eagle* as a gold coin; or such obsolete or obsolescent English words as *fardel*, *featly*, *frampold*, *dight*, *skinker*, and *thole;* or such common and legitimate ones as *athwart*, *attic*, *crabbed*, *dazed*, *dumbfounded*, *quandary*, and even the word *slang* itself? Yet these are merely specimens of scores and scores of examples that could be cited. The truth of the matter is, that the compiler of the volume has not made himself acquainted with the ordinary literature of his subject, in spite of the pretentious tone of his preface. There he tells us that "the compilation has been the work of years, the information has been derived from books of all sorts and men of all classes, and the work is offered as an honestly meant and painstaking contribution to the literature of slang." Elsewhere he says that no such collection as this has ever been made. No work, we are told, heretofore published upon this subject meets the needs of the educated people of the United States in the present day. No English one in particular has so much as touched upon the great store-house of native American slang, which has been born of our development and was made necessary by our novel conditions. After reading such remarks one comes to appreciate fully how something more than lively interest and virtuous intention is indispensable to the preparation of even the most ordinary glossary. Within the past two years reviews have appeared within these very columns of two English slang dictionaries. With all their imperfections, these not only contain such words as *boom*, *bonanza*, *boodle*, and *dude*, which we are here informed have never been recorded, but they also devote pages to quotations illustrative of their use, while to this point the volume before us can hardly be said to give up a line. Indeed, from a large number of the mistakes and misstatements here found a consultation of some of the most common books of reference would have saved the editor; and while the ambition to make a compilation of this sort is creditable, it must be said of the present work that it not only has no reason to show for its existence, but furnishes a good many reasons to suggest the desirability of its non-existence.

Mahdiism and the Egyptian Sudan: Being an Account of the Rise and Progress of Mahdiism, and of Subsequent Events in the Sudan to the Present Time. By Maj. F. R. Wingate. With 30 maps and plans. Macmillan & Co. 1891. 8vo, pp. xxviii, 617.

THE time has not yet come to write a complete history of the revolt of the Sudanese against their Egyptian rulers. Not only is it too recent for the various events to appear in their true relative importance, but there are still urgent political reasons why the part borne by England should not be fully revealed. These limitations are evident in Maj. Wingate's work, and make it chiefly valuable as furnishing important material for the future historian. He gives an interesting account of the Mahdi and the strange system of morals and conduct which he and his successor, the Khalifa, inculcate upon their followers, with numerous quotations from their letters and proclamations. The greater part of the book is, naturally, occupied with a narrative of the military operations in the twelve different provinces of the Egyptian Sudan, a vast region without well-defined boundaries. The difficulty which the reader would have in following the course of events in these widely separated districts is greatly lessened by an admirable series of maps which give the extent of the revolt at the close of each year from 1882 to March, 1891. The author, who is the head of the Intelligence Department of the Egyptian

Army, writes at times with much vigor and with not a little descriptive power. At others his style is as dry as that of an official report. This is especially noticeable in his accounts of the sieges and the more than seventy battles and skirmishes fought, in which sometimes minuteness of detail is carried to an extent too great for the patience of any but the purely military reader. His work as a whole, however, shows constant signs of painstaking and conscientious labor, and a complete mastery of his subject so far as his means of information have permitted. Some of the defects which are to be detected in his account are to be attributed to his official position, and to the possibility that the end of the struggle for the Sudan may not yet have been reached.

The culminating point of interest, of course, is the fall of Khartum, which was due, not to treachery, as has generally been supposed, but simply to the delay of the English rescuing force. Had Sir Charles Wilson arrived only two days earlier than he did, the city would have been saved and the whole course of events changed. This is apparent from the testimony of one of the Arab leaders in the successful attack, who has since returned to his allegiance and is now a respected teacher in the Azhar University at Cairo. He says that the Mahdi, greatly alarmed at the approach of the English, determined, with the advice of his principal officers, to abandon the siege and retire to El-Obeid in Kordofan. One man alone opposed this design and prevailed upon him to make one more effort to take the city before his retreat. The assaulting column found that the ditch which was the principal defence of Khartum on the south, had been partly filled with mud during the high Nile, and over this it made its way into the city, overcoming without difficulty the feeble resistance of Gordon's exhausted and famishing garrison.

Another unfortunate mishap in the long series of which this book is the melancholy chronicle, was the death of King John of Abyssinia. For some time it was believed that in a battle with the Mahdists he was killed and his army annihilated. It now appears that the Abyssinians were completely victorious, and that the King, while seated in the centre of the captured camp, fell mortally wounded by a stray bullet. Upon this his followers immediately retired to their own country without attempting to reap any of the fruits of their victory.

It is difficult to get a clear idea of the operations on the Red Sea littoral from Major Wingate's pages. Apparently at no time within the past six years has it been impossible, with a very moderate expenditure of men and material, to put an end to the guerrilla warfare which has so long desolated this region. As we read of the frequent change of commanders and the continual sending and withdrawal of troops, the impression prevails either that there has been no consistent plan for subduing the Mahdists, or that there is ground for the charge that it is in the interest of Egyptian politics that a running sore should be maintained in the country about Suakin.

Maj. Wingate's ostentatious refusal to touch upon the actual state of affairs at the present time in the Sudan, because it would be entering "into the region of undeveloped plans and current political questions," gives color to the belief that the reconquest of this country is contemplated by the military authorities of Egypt. There can be little doubt, however, that this will not be attempted so long as Sir Evelyn Baring holds his present responsible position. It is natural that there should be a strong desire to try the strength of the reorganized Egyptian army in other than merely defensive operations on the frontier. A very favorable account is given of the new fellaheen conscripts, who, under the influence of regular pay and humane treatment, have greatly improved, even developing fair fighting qualities. But Maj. Wingate does such scant justice to the native officers that the Commander-in-Chief, Sir Francis Grenfell, feels it necessary, in his introduction to the book, to apologize for the lack of the proper recognition of their services.

Character painting is not one of the author's strong points. A brief outline of the Mahdi's life is given, and there is a fine description of his preaching and its effects, but the man himself remains indistinct. He is credited with great abilities, but without sufficient evidence, since the success of the revolution which he headed was due wholly to the weakness of the Egyptians, men "who robbed without being strong, bore arms without having the courage to use them, and professed religion without confidence in its virtue." The same is true, though in a lesser degree, of his successor, the Khalifa, of Osman Digna, formerly a merchant and slave-dealer at Suakin, and of the brave fanatic, Nejumi, the greatest leader of them all, who fell at the battle of Toski. Much is told about them, and yet they have but a shadowy existence in these pages.

Notwithstanding the author's professed reticence in respect to the present condition of the Sudan, it is evident that the strength of Mahdiism as an aggressive force is well-nigh exhausted. Father Ohrwalder, one of the little band of European captives who recently made their escape to Egypt, estimates that three-fifths of the population of the Sudan have been destroyed during the past ten years through war, famine, and disease. One tribe, which in 1880 was 40,000 strong and possessed more than 100,000 camels, and was the main carrier of merchandise in the Sudan, is now "almost extinct." Maj. Wingate asserts, no doubt truthfully, that the only result of the revolt to the Sudanese has been the substitution of one set of tyrants for another even more cruel and rapacious, and that the remnants of the scattered tribes are now anxious for the return of their Egyptian rulers. Their new masters are the emirs of the fierce Baggara, "the Red Indians of the Sudan," who inhabit the fertile country to the south of Khartum. These Arabs, furious at the suppression of the slave-trade, their chief source of revenue, were the first to rise at the call of the Mahdi, who chose his successor, the reigning Khalifa, from among their chiefs. Whether this man, who is credited with great cunning, will succeed in the formation of a stable Mohammedan State, having peaceful commercial relations with Egypt, it is impossible now to say. This, however, is a solution of the question which many having the interests of both countries at heart profoundly desire, though it may be opposed to the designs of the military party to which this author belongs.

Maj. Wingate's story closed with a narration of the events of 1889, but in a supplement he gives an account of the operations on the Red Sea Coast and the occupation of the district of Tokar in February, 1891, a movement which has evoked much hostile criticism in England. In an appendix there are a number of official reports and other papers, such as Gen. Gordon's famous proclamation concerning slavery, and extracts from Col. Stewart's report on the Sudan made soon after the outbreak of the rebellion.

The Colonial Era. By George Park Fisher, D.D., LL.D. [American History Series.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892. Pp. xviii, 348.

THE present time is an age of "series" and brief handbooks on historical subjects, and publishers naturally recognize their opportunity in the Columbian year. The work under review is the first of five volumes designed to tell the story of that part of America which forms the United States, from its discovery to the period of reconstruction following the civil war. The planners of this series have been wise in their apportionment, and have done well to confine the story of American beginnings down to 1756 within the compass of a single volume. It may be questioned, however, whether it would not have been better had they included an account of the downfall of the power of France in North America in the history of the colonial struggles of which it is the completion, rather than yoke it, as they proposed to do, with the story of the Revolution of 1776.

Under considerable limitations of space, Prof. Fisher has prepared a most useful handbook. Three introductory chapters of less than thirty pages in all make ready the way for his real task, the history of the thirteen colonies which eventually formed the American Union. That story he divides into two portions, making the point of separation the English Revolution of 1688. The first part treats of Virginia, Maryland, the Carolinas, New England, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, in the order named—a grouping which allows the differing conditions of the Southern, Northern, and Middle colonies to be clearly pointed out. In the second portion of the book the narrative is continued to the outbreak of the final struggle with France, the colonies now being treated in their geographic order from north to south. The point of division between the two periods is certainly happily chosen, for the Revolution of 1688 had an influence in the colonies only second to its effects in the mother country.

In his preface Prof. Fisher acknowledges his indebtedness to the works of Winsor, Doyle, and Palfrey; but he is everywhere independent in his judgments, and is thoroughly abreast of current discussion on disputed points. Thus, for example, he holds, in distinction from the late Prof. Johnston, that in Connecticut colony the towns were not primarily independent communities whose union formed the State; while he points out that in New Haven colony, on the contrary, they were originally self-governing and separate (pp. 128-130). But the most conspicuous feature of Prof. Fisher's little book is its breadth and fairness. His conception of history is very different from the narrow view of the late Prof. Freeman; not only political events but religious thought and social conditions demand his attention. The book avoids the dangers into which a New England writer on American history usually falls. It is neither predominantly political nor theological, and it recognizes the contributions of other colonies than those east of the Hudson to our national life. Prof. Fisher is at his best in comprehensive but compact statement. The accounts of the early discoveries and attempts at colonization (pp. 12-29); of the causes leading to the settlement of New England (pp. 85-93); and of the effect on the colonies of the Revolution of 1688 (pp. 207-212) are admirable examples of condensed and lucid narrative.

Nor is the writer's impartiality less obvious. He recognizes the right of King James to re-

fuse the innovations proposed by the Puritans, while he declares the sovereign's spirit in dealing with that party "insolent and arbitrary" (p. 101). He admits the hostility of the early New England settlers to forms of faith and worship differing from their own; but he shows that, "in the absence of a commonly accepted principle of religious liberty, each party, in case its opponent should get the power, had nothing to look for but subjugation. For one party to give ecclesiastical freedom to its adversary was to forge an instrument for its own destruction" (p. 107). Yet the really tolerant spirit of the Lords of Baltimore has full appreciation, though Prof. Fisher's judgment is "that the younger Baltimore—and in this respect he closely resembled his father—while he aimed to provide a safe asylum for adherents of his own creed, was mainly concerned to build up a lucrative and flourishing colony, whatever might be the creed of its inhabitants"; and he points out that "when religious discussion at length became sharp [in Maryland], toleration gave way" (pp. 65, 107).

In Prof. Fisher's view, Roger Williams was neither a faultless prophet nor simply a disturber of the State. "He was an enthusiast, lacking that ingredient of hatred which turns the enthusiast into the fanatic." His vagaries, and the dangers which they brought to Massachusetts, led to his banishment; but the doctrine of "soul-liberty," though "not one of the main grounds of his expulsion from the colony," is sufficient to give him "lasting distinction" (pp. 114–116). A similar fairness of judgment marks Prof. Fisher's representation of the feelings of the colonies and the mother country towards each other during the first half of the eighteenth century (pp. 208–211).

Prof. Fisher closes with a brief sketch of colonial literature, so brief that it is little more than a suggestive outline which might well have been extended; but from his judgment there can be little dissent when he affirms: "In truth, in the colonial period prior to the middle of the last century there were only two authors who rise above a merely provincial rank. These were Benjamin Franklin and Jonathan Edwards" (p. 319). A chronological table of considerable fulness, a bibliographical note professedly designed for "younger students," but containing much in the way of comment that is of wider interest, a good index, and three well-executed but rather general maps, complete the book.

The work is remarkably free from errors of statement or typography. The name of the missionary at Norridgewock is printed "Rasle" on pp. 214, 346, and "Rasles" on pp. 229, 230. Probably "Rale," as Mr. Parkman spells it from an autograph, would be better than either. The publishers of the "American History Series" are certainly fortunate in the character of their first volume. Prof. Fisher has given us a compact, suggestive, and readable account of our colonial history—the best brief sketch of the period of which it treats.

History of the Nineteenth Army Corps. By Richard B. Irwin, Lieut. Col. U. S. V., Asst. Adjt. Gen. of the Corps and of the Department of the Gulf. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. 528, with maps.

Col. Irwin's book had hardly come from the press when the news of his death was also published. The task which was his last was that on which his heart was set, and he was happy in completing it, though he did not live to hear the commendations of his comrades and of all who are interested in the military history of the country.

A more conscientious piece of work was never done. The author spared no pains to be accurate, and there are many proofs of the bestowal of very great labor on minor points which a writer is tempted to neglect. The tone is one of candor, and the writer's spirit is a judicial one, with as little of prejudice as possible, and a freedom from rancor which is every way admirable. All this is the more noticeable and praiseworthy because the campaigns of the corps have been the subject of much bitter controversy. Some of its regiments were among those which accompanied Butler in the first occupation of New Orleans by the national forces, and most of the others went with Banks to Louisiana in December, 1862. The campaign in the Teche country, the siege of Port Hudson, and the Red River campaign were the chief events in the experience of the corps in the Southwest. It was then brought back to the North, and completed its military work in the Shenandoah Valley under Sheridan, where it had an honorable part in the battles of Opequon, Fisher's Hill, and Cedar Creek.

The Louisiana campaigns have been only vaguely known, and their military importance has been greatly underestimated. A clear and soldierly account of them was very much needed, and this is exactly what Col. Irwin has given us. Except in the Red River expedition, there was very little to apologize for; and even there, while the result was unsuccessful, there was much which reflected honor upon the officers and men of the several divisions that made up the army. A candid reader of the book will close it with a better opinion of Gen. Banks than has been the popular one, for, in spite of one or two great errors, his general leadership was good, and he had the merit (no small one in the eyes of soldiers) that he led his troops in person, and was to be found near the front whenever they were engaged.

Col. Irwin has also thrown new light upon the relations of Banks's campaigns to those of Grant, McClernand, and Steele. It has not been generally known that the orders of the War Department looked to the union under Banks of the forces commanded by all these officers, and it was evidence of honesty and unselfishness in Banks that he did not make what seemed to him the public good yield to the ambition to enlarge his own importance by a junction of Grant's army with his own. The author has also dealt out even-handed justice in emphasizing the fact that, in the ill-fated Red River campaign, the orders from Washington were that the expedition must be ended within a month and a half. He reasons fairly in urging that such an inflexible limit made it impossible for the army to resume the offensive after the check at Mansfield, since delays then became inevitable which would extend the time beyond that which was thus peremptorily set.

In his determination to write a strictly military memoir, Col. Irwin has systematically avoided matters of civil administration of the department. He has nothing to say of the political scheme for organizing loyal State governments in Louisiana and Arkansas, and he makes no reference to the cotton-trading scandals which are so intimately connected with the Red River campaign. This, of course, prevents a full discussion of the general plan of action; for these things were so intimately blended with the military reasons for action that the one part cannot be understood without the other. The author's task was undoubtedly a pleasanter one as he limited it, and possibly the scandals of the time were so distasteful to him that he would not have written at all if he had been obliged to treat of them. Yet the history of that period will not be completed until the dissection is thoroughly made, however repellent it may be. He has even gone further in his self-imposed limits, and has forborne all discussion of the personal relations of Banks to Grant, T. W. Sherman, A. J. Smith, Stone, Franklin, and to Admiral Porter. Here, also, are burning questions in each case, and Col. Irwin could have thrown great light on them, and so upon the history of the whole campaign, if he had been willing to do so.

But we must take the author's work for what he chose to make it. Within his chosen boundaries, he has done his task so well that it must be a permanent starting-point for those who may wish to push their researches more deeply into the characters and motives of the men who figured prominently in political and military affairs in the critical year of the war.

The Origin of Metallic Currency and Weight Standards. By William Ridgeway, Professor of Greek in Queen's College, Cork. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

Compound arithmetic can certainly make itself very disagreeable. From the urchin writhing in the agonies of a long sum in long measure, up to Belshazzar, watching the hand write upon the wall those distressful words, "Pounds, pounds, ounces, drams," that suggested there was an account to settle with God, mortals have doubtless undergone more misery, first and last, from this branch of mathematics than from any other. On the other hand, to accompany a learned and ingenious essayist in his explorations of ancient metrology, to cut the rope that ties us to the here and now, to mount the heights of speculation, borne up by a beautiful and globular theory, to cleave the thin air of ancient texts, and trust to our guide to get us back to *terra firma*, this is a most delightful and entertaining pastime. Alas! we have blown our last parting kiss to the theorists of our boyhood, Boeckh, Queipo, Hultsch, and the rest. They have sailed away for ever, and we shall never see their like upon earth again, with those two beautiful propositions of theirs, first, that, in the ancient systems generally, the units of weight, length, and capacity were connected in much the same scientific way as the gramme, the metre, and the litre are connected; and, second, that in the ancient world pretty much all the weights and measures of all climes and ages were in simple commensurable relations to one another. We know that, before the adoption of the metric system, different towns of Europe used at least 400 different pounds, and probably twice as many. The units of capacity and of length were quite as numerous; and there was no rational connection between them. In short, the language of quantity was as various as the dialects of speech. But the accepted doctrine until lately was that the Babylonian (or, as some said, the Egyptian) system was strictly scientific; and that all the peoples of antiquity followed that, or, at least, used only standards commensurable with those of that system, or, at most, slightly modified from it. These propositions rested upon the testimony of ancient authors, supplemented by divers ingenious arithmetical computations by which certain relations between certain quantities were made to appear. If anybody objected, as

many a man of logical sense did, that such calculations proved nothing but the idle industry of their inventors, and that the documents were almost all of extremely late date, and probably expressed merely convenient approximations, like "A pint's a pound the whole world round," the answer was that we were not at liberty to reject the only evidence in our possession. Yet some enduring work was accomplished by the old metrologists; namely, they weighed and measured, besides coins, perhaps a hundred ancient standards and a smaller number of other monuments.

Within a few years Mr. W. M. Flinders Petrie has determined the values of many hundred additional ancient standards and has measured thousands of monuments. What is far more important, he has contrived methods by which scientific logic can be brought to bear with all its force upon questions of ancient metrology. His conclusions will be found summarized in the article "Weights and Measures" in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' last edition. Having determined no less than 516 weight-standards unearthed by him in the Greek-Egyptian town of Naucratis, he has embodied the results in a curve whose abscissas measure the quantities of the weights, while its ordinates are proportional to the numbers of specimens of the different quantitative values. This curve shows certain maxima; and upon these maxima it is precisely that Petrie bases his reasoning. We know from many careful experimental researches that when men try to reproduce many times any quantity, the values they do produce will cluster about the truth, or about the truth affected by a constant error. The curve of these values will show a maximum at that point. Now, the Naucratis makers of weights were undoubtedly trying to reproduce some standards, legal or illegal. Consequently, each well-marked maximum of the curve represents the value of a standard they were trying to reproduce. This logic is irrefragable. Prof. Ridgeway endeavors to break it down by the remark that many of the weights may have been fraudulent, and *that* as well by being too heavy as by being too light. Granted; but this in no wise weakens Mr. Petrie's reasoning from maxima, which Prof. Ridgeway does not seem fully to apprehend. In order that these falsifications should produce maxima in the curve, it would be requisite that the counterfeiters should aim at quantitatively definite falsifications, and the definitely false standards so produced and put into use would be, *ipso facto*, new units. In short, a clearly marked maximum must represent a distinct unit, a distinct aim, explain its origin as you may. The general upshot of Mr. Petrie's inquiry into the weights of Naucratis is that many more units were in use in that town than could have been found in Nuremberg, or in Venice, or in any great mediæval mart. So the theory that the ancients did not have the same variety of standards that has marked the modern world down to our generation is exploded at one blast; and, that gone, the ridiculous idea that the units of mass, length, and capacity were scientifically adjusted evaporates by its intrinsic volatility. It is only commerce, extensive, pervasive, and voluminous, that can bring about a unification of units, and nobody can maintain that there was as much commerce when Gibraltar was at the end of the world as there was after men had circumnavigated the globe.

Prof. Ridgeway's theory is that before the use of metals there was a universal unit of barter throughout Europe, Asia, and Africa, to wit, the cow. Of all the metals gold first became known, and the balance was invented in order to weigh gold. Consequently, the earliest unit of weight was the gold unit; and this was fixed at the amount of gold exchangeable for a cow. Strangely enough, the cow had the same gold value in all countries and in all ages, namely, 130 to 135 grains Troy ($5 is 129 grains, 900 fine). In order to reproduce this unit, there were rules for building it up from the seeds of different kinds of grains. The author does not mention that similar rules were given by Arabian metrologists for forming the dirhem and mithcal. All the leading systems of weights of antiquity are passed in review and explained on these principles. The Roman *as* is made to have been a bar of copper from which fractions were broken off as required.

Though the author finds much fault with the "school of Boeckh," especially for supposing that units of different kinds were originally connected in the French style, yet he himself really belongs to the old school, because he attaches more importance to documents than to monuments. Now, experience has shown that this method cannot lead to any fixed conclusions. Many places in this essay are marked by the arbitrariness and the one-eyedness which belong to the old books. But judging it as a performance of the old school, in which complete truth and finality are not to be expected, but only valuable suggestions mixed with fancies, it must be acknowledged that this is a strong work. It bristles with interesting facts many of which have never before been used by metrologists. The evidences are marshalled with consummate skill, and we cannot doubt that several of the doctrines here put forth will take a permanent place among the principles of ancient metrology.

The Autobiography of an English Gamekeeper (John Wilkins of Stanstead, Essex). Edited by Arthur H. Byng and Stephen M. Stephens. Macmillan & Co.

To the lover of nature and of animals, to the votary of sport, but above all to the student of human nature, this book appeals. With all its faults, it fulfils the real mission of an autobiography, in giving a true picture of the man who wrote it, while his likeness, forming the frontispiece, with its keen, weather-beaten face, square shoulders, and angular, wiry figure, answers well to our idea of a true English gamekeeper and of the author. As the editors say, they make no apology in presenting this book to the public, and it needs none. Regarded solely as a book, it is discursive and repetitious, abounding in trivialities, and sometimes ungrammatical; but these defects are characteristic of the man, and as a study the narrative is charming.

We have been taught to look on the poacher in a rather romantic light. From the time of Shakspere he has been the hero, and the keeper the tyrant, but now we are shown the other side, and it is such a simple, kindly picture as to make us forget our allegiance and desert to the side of the oppressor. Wilkins captures his poachers in such a practical manner, and treats them so fairly and humanely, even after they have almost beaten him to death, as to leave no place for sentiment. Our keeper's pride in his profession is most pronounced. His lenity, he admits, is policy, but we may doubt it. His vanity is patent, but perfectly harmless. "What would unnerve most men," he says, "just brings me up to the scratch. For instance, with a lion or tiger, I should feel nervous whilst it was some way off, but, when I got close, I should think of nothing but killing him; the possibility of his killing me would not enter into my calculations at all." Needless to say he was never called upon to face either a lion or a tiger, but he had to face dangerous men, and his conduct under those circumstances seems to warrant his boast. The humor which he evidently thinks is necessary in writing a book, is not of a high order. Indeed, it resembles nothing more than the gambols of one of his own setter-pups—the most awkward exhibition in nature, next to the gambols of a lamb. A tremendous joke is perpetrated in the headings of four associated chapters—"Concerning Dogs," "Inasmuch as to Retrievers," "Inasmore as to Retrievers," "Inasmost as to Retrievers." And this humor, such as it is, is not relieved by the comments of the editors, fortunately used sparingly, *e. g.*, "(More humor, we presume)" and "(This Christian spirit of forgiveness is truly beautiful.)"

The hints on dogs, especially on their training, are valuable; and the old keeper's system of kindness, although he does not spare the rod when necessary, might be followed more closely by trainers, with advantage to both dog and master. Altogether, John Wilkins is a man with whom one would like to tramp all day through the field, or while away the pleasant idleness of a summer evening.

Etching and Mezzotint Engraving: Lectures delivered at Oxford by Hubert Herkomer, R.A., M.A., etc. Macmillan & Co. 1892.

This book is an exquisite production. It is a small folio with heavy hand-made paper, wide margins, and untrimmed edges; a baker's dozen of most charming etchings and mezzotints by the hand of the author; and a cover of cream-white canvas, simply lettered in gold. All the illustrations, which are literally illustrative of the points made in the text, are beautiful and admirably chosen for their purpose, and the type is large and brilliantly clear, making perusal an easy task.

The lectures really form a handbook, and one of the best we have ever met with, for the treatment of the two branches of engraving designated in the title. Nothing could be clearer, simpler, or more direct than Mr. Herkomer's explanation of the technical processes. This is in strong contrast to most essays upon these subjects, which generally leave the student in such a bewildered frame of mind as regards plates, grounds, acids, tools, printing, etc., that he is little likely to attempt an experiment with them, but rather to be utterly discouraged. Here, however, every step is described and explained in the fullest manner possible, and yet so lucidly that one is beguiled into thinking it cannot be, after all, such a very difficult matter to produce a good etching. Moreover, the artist's temperament and feeling inspire every word, and give to the whole a charm which is as rare in books that treat of processes as it is welcome. The individual characteristics of the different processes of etching, dry point, mezzotint, and the author's new patented process, which he calls, tentatively, "spongotype," are most justly discriminated, and the advantages and disadvantages of each for different styles of work emphatically brought out. A strong plea is made for painter-etcher work as one of the most alluring fields for artistic endeavor; and the limits of copyist and interpretative work are well defined.

Herkomer evidently has one quality which

does not always go with the highly developed artistic temperament such as he possesses, namely, a clear and orderly mind. This is shown not only throughout his text, but notably in two attractive descriptions which he gives; one is of the "little studio in my German home at Landsberg in Bavaria," and the other of the old paper-maker's workshop, also in Bavaria, whither he went in his search for that almost unique personage who should supply the craft with the hand-made paper so absolutely essential for the use of the etcher, no detail being too trivial for Mr. Herkomer's patient investigation, and no difficulty too great to be surmounted. These difficulties he frankly states at every stage of his elucidations, and even the frontispiece of the book typifies them. It is a striking etching of the etcher at work upon a plate, over which is lightly indicated, with a few masterly touches and in vague development, a female figure, head downward and with arms bound behind. So the etcher works, largely in the dark, not knowing just what will result, his design reversed and bound by many varying physical conditions which require the most careful consideration and attention.

Egypt: Three Essays on the History, Religion, and Art of Ancient Egypt. [By Martin Brimmer and Mrs. John Jay Chapman.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. viii., 86; 32 illustrations.

THE number of pages contained in this volume is no indication that it is unimportant or cheap. It is to be feared that the authors have in some degree defeated their object of making their book "an introduction to works of higher authority" by giving it the luxurious shape which it possesses. The paper is heavy hand-made linen, and the illustrations are reproduced from remarkably clear photographs by the neograph process. In order to profit as much as possible by a proposed trip to the land of the Nile, the authors made preliminary studies. These essays were afterwards written out while upon the scene from notes previously taken and under the influence of their surroundings. After a careful study of the subject the conclusion was reached which is summed up in the statement, undoubtedly correct, that "some conception of the true nature of the Egyptian religion" is necessary if one would derive all possible advantage from such a journey. In the religion lies the main secret which alone can explain many of the things that are to be seen. The history is important, and the study of Egyptian art of great interest, but they are subordinate to the religion.

While it is not necessary to agree with the authors in the opinion which they have formed as to the substratum of the religion of Egypt, it is impossible not to be impressed with the beauty and finish of the presentation of the facts from which it is inferred that the basis was monotheistic, even if it was esoteric in character. If one wishes to be convinced that the religion was monotheistic in any degree, these pages are to be recommended. But unfortunately the argument is to be regarded as incomplete and unsatisfactory. It is impossible for us to go back to the beginnings of literature, art, or religion in that ancient land. At the very dawn of its history we find it possessed of a language which, though written in characters as clear and as beautifully engraved as in any subsequent age, has well-nigh defied all attempts towards its elucidation and the explanation of its grammatical structure. This language must have been developed long before it was thus written, and the religion as embodied in the texts found in the pyramids of the sixth dynasty was not the growth of a day. A vista is thus opened whose further end no eye can see. To reason as to the very beginning of all these things seems idle, and only a mind specially gifted can hope to offer even a working hypothesis upon which to proceed. It is undoubtedly possible to gather certain facts which give plausibility to the view that the ultimate basis of all the religious conceptions of these lost ages may have been a solar monotheism. But when we find a system which is polytheistic as far back as we can go, the hypothesis that the sun was the centre and spring of all is merely a working hypothesis, nothing more. It is all very pretty if one can believe it, but the proof is not yet forthcoming and will long tarry.

It will be found that the authors have not given due prominence to the fact that each district had its triad of deities, or even its trinity of triads, and that each city had its special "city-god." In fact, the subject of the Egyptian religion is too large to be disposed of summarily. The element of time must enter into the consideration also, since, despite statements to the contrary found in some books which are considered as authorities on the subject, though not in the present work, there was a change, even a development, in the conception of the gods, their attributes and their functions. We have no adequate presentation of the religion of Egypt even so far as it is known, because no one properly equipped for the task has yet taken the pains to work out the results in accordance with modern methods, and so to produce an account which shall show the development from the earliest forms to the latest.

It is open to some doubt whether it is correct to represent the moral maxims of the philosopher Ptah-Hotep as containing the ethical code of the people. Such an assumption in the case of Seneca would certainly not be correct. That many of the injunctions thus set forth are lofty and profitable, even for to-day, is beyond doubt, but that is not the question. To some extent the case is different with the morals of the 'Book of the Dead,' but inferences from these can be pushed too far. The dissertation on the history of the land is quite different from the ordinary presentation. We gladly miss those dates which are so baffling in their uncertainty. Much is said which is of interest, but of dated history there is little. This is scarcely to be regretted, since anything short of an exhaustive study would be even less satisfactory than the division into great periods here indicated. The chapter on art is less adequate than the others. Many problems are connected with this subject, but its treatment here is full of eloquent omissions. Still a hearty appreciation of art is evident, together with a desire to display some of the more important facts.

History of the Town of Oxford, Mass. With Genealogies, etc. By George F. Daniels. Oxford. 1892. Pp. 856.

OXFORD in at least one point has a unique historical interest. It was the site of a Huguenot colony, and the only one in New England, for the Narragansett abortion hardly deserves the name. The Oxford plantation, one of the earliest in Worcester County, survived for a decade from 1686 to 1696, and was then destroyed by an Indian raid. Here, as so often the world over, the French turned out, as it were, pilot-fish, showing the way for English sharks. But Oxford has never been without survivals of the early French, aside from the fifteenth of her present population that was born in Canada. The Huguenot fort, being partly of stone—and now owned by the Huguenot Association—seems to be the best preserved military work of the seventeenth century which New England can show.

The Oxford volume would have been much less than half its present size but for two appendixes. One of these, well-nigh a new departure, describes all transfers of homesteads from the first settler to the present possessor. The other is a sort of encyclopædic genealogy of all Oxfordians up to the year 1850, following each family wherever it has wandered at home and abroad. This last feature will give the book a sort of cosmopolitan interest. The minutiæ of town life, political, religious, educational, military, and industrial, are set forth in a style which shows that the compiler has neglected nothing. Oxford is by no means the first town in the Bay State to stiffen the sinews of research by pecuniary aid. No town should neglect to follow in its footsteps. There is none whose annals can fail to shed side-lights on the evolution of the New England township—the most original product of the Yankee mind, and the protoplasmic germ of our most distinctive national institutions—

> "The baby figure of the giant mass
> Of things to come at large."

The indexes, filling one-twelfth of the book, seventy pages, and as good as they are long, furnish a model worthy of all acceptation. Their maker knew that a volume without an index resembles a clock-face without any hands to show either seconds, minutes, or hours.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ambrosi, Marietta. Italian Child-Life; or, Marietta's Good Times. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 75 cents.
Barrie, J. M. When a Man's Single. Waverly Co. 25 cents.
Beddard, F. E. Animal Coloration. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Boulger, D. C. Lord William Bentinck. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Boyd's Co-Partnership and Residence Business Directory of Philadelphia. Philadelphia: Boyd's Directory Office.
Braddon, M. E. The Venetians. Harpers. $1.50.
Bradford, T. L. Homœopathic Bibliography of the United States, 1825–1891. Philadelphia: Boericke & Tafel. $3.50.
Bradshaw, John. The Letters of Chesterfield, with the Characters. 3 vols. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $7.50.
Breul, Karl. Schiller's Geschichte des Dreissigjährigen Kriegs. Buch III. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Buchheim, Prof. C. A. First Part of Goethe's Faust. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Campbell, Douglas. The Puritan in Holland, England and America: An Introduction to American History. 2 vols. Harpers.
Cantillon, Richard. Essai sur le Commerce. Reprinted for Harvard University. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $1.50.
Chailley-Bert, J. La Colonisation de l'Indo-Chine. L'Expérience Anglaise. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Clarke, William. Walt Whitman. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Cohn, Morris M. An Introduction to the Study of the Constitution. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press. $1.50.
Coleridge, Christabel R. Amethyst; The Story of a Beauty. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Conway, M. D. The Life of Thomas Paine. 2 vols. Putnams. $5.
Crawford, F. Marion. Saracinesca. Macmillan. $1.
Cree, Nathan. Direct Legislation by the People. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 75 cents.
Cumings, Elizabeth. Miss Matilda Archambeau Van Dorn. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 75 cents.
Denney, Rev. James. The Epistles to the Thessalonians. [The Expositor's Bible.] A. C. Armstrong & Co. $1.50.
Dowdall, Rev. L. D. Ovid's Metamorphosis. Book I. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.

Drey, Sylvan. Lights and Shadows of the Soul. Baltimore: Cushing & Co. 60 cents.
Gotch, J. A., and Brown, W. T. Architecture of the Renaissance in England. Part IV. London: B. T. Batsford; Boston: Ticknor & Co. $8.
Grindon, Leo H. Lancashire: Brief Historical and Descriptive Notes. Macmillan. $2.
Hall, Bolton. Who Pays Your Taxes? Putnams. $1.25.
Hazlitt, W. C. The Livery Companies of the City of London: Their Origin, Character, Development, and Social and Political Importance. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $10.50.
James, Croake. Curiosities of Christian History Prior to the Reformation. London: Methuen & Co.
Jäschke, Richard. English-French Conversation Dictionary. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
Johnston, R. M. Dukesborough Tales. Appletons.
Jókai, Maurus. Dr. Dumány's Wife; or, There is No Devil. Cassell. 50 cents.
Kennedy, W. S. John G. Whittier, the Poet of Freedom. [American Reformers.] Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.50.
King, Charles F. Picturesque Geographical Readers. Third Book: The Land We Live in. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Layard, G. S. Life and Letters of Charles Samuel Keene. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $8.
Letourneau, Prof. Ch. Property: Its Origin and Development. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Love, A. E. H. A Treatise on the Mathematical Theory of Elasticity. Vol. I. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Lynch, Hannah. Daughters of Men. U. S. Book Co. $1.25,
MacEwen, Constance. A Cavalier's Ladye: A Romance of the Isle of Wight in the Seventeenth Century. New ed. London: Methuen & Co.
Maginnis, A. J. The Atlantic Ferry: Its Ships, Men and Working. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Mather, J. M. Popular Studies of Nineteenth Century Poets. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.
McClelland, M. G. Manitou Island. Henry Holt & Co. $1,
McLane, Rev. W. W. Evolution in Religion. Boston: Congregational Publishing Society.
Meade, Mrs. L. T. Out of the Fashion. Cassell $1.
Melville, G. J. W. The Interpreter; A Tale of the War. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co. 50 cents.
Muller, Donizetti. Links from Broken Chains. C. T. Dillingham & Co. $1.25.
Neally, Amy. To Nuremberg and Back; A Girl's Holiday. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
O'Rell, Max. A Frenchman in America. Cassell, 50 cents.
Pattison, Mark. Isaac Casaubon. 2d ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Peacock, T. L. Gryll Grange. 2 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Pomeroy, J. N. A Treatise on Equity Jurisprudence. 2d ed. 3 vols. San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Co.
Price, Lisbeth D. Nurses and Nursing. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. $1.25.
Prowse, R. O. The Poison of Asps. London: Methuen & Co.
Radford, C. S. Hand-book on Naval Gunnery. D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.
Ramsay, Sir J. H. Lancaster and York: A Century of English History. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Simpson, Sir W. G. The Art of Golf. Edinburgh: David Douglas; New York: Putnams. $4.
Skeat, W. W. Twelve Facsimiles of Old English Manuscripts. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Southwick, A. P. Wisps of Wit and Wisdom. A Lovell & Co. $1.
Spurgeon, the People's Preacher. London: Walter Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co. $1.
Stevens, B. F. Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773–1783. Vol. XIII. London: B. F. Stevens.
Strong, W. C. Fruit Culture, and the Laying-Out and Management of a Country Home. 2d ed. New York: Rural Publishing Co. $1.
Sutton, Katharine P. Leaves of Healing. Boston: American Unitarian Association.
Sweetser, M. F. The Maritime Provinces. 9th ed., revised and enlarged. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Sweetser, M. F. The White Mountains. 12th ed., revised and enlarged. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Sweetser, M. F. New England. 13th ed., revised and augmented. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Swinburne, A. C. Locrine: A Tragedy. U. S. Book Co. $1.25.
Swinburne, A. C. The Sisters: A Tragedy. U. S. Book Co. $1.25.
Talks on Graphology. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Thomson, W. H. Materialism and Modern Physiology of the Nervous System. Putnams. 75 cents.
Tremain, Mary. Slavery in the District of Columbia. Putnams. $1.
White, Prof. J. W., and Morgan, Prof. M. H. An Illustrated Dictionary to Xenophon's Anabasis. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Wright, J. A. How to Get Good Judges. San Francisco: S. Carson Co. 75 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 30, 1892.

The Week.

THE culmination of absurdity in the conduct of a national convention seems unquestionably to have been reached at Chicago, and it fully justified the resolution introduced by Gen. Collins of Massachusetts, that "the Democratic National Committee be instructed to provide in the next National Convention the accommodations necessary for the delegates, the alternates, the press, the National Committee, and none others." Modified into a recommendation instead of an instruction, this resolution was adopted. Gen. Collins was also able to maintain his reputation for consistency by pointing to the fact that he offered a similar resolution twelve years ago. He said "the time was not then ripe" for such a step, but he thought the events of this year's Convention would make everybody ready for it. Certainly there could not well be anything more ridiculous than to ask 900 delegates to act as a "deliberative assembly" with 15,000 people about and above them making pandemonium, and attempting to control their action by insensate howling. No presiding officer can keep such a mob in order, nor can any speaker make himself heard in their presence. Moreover, the theory that advantage can come to a candidate by having a preponderance of shrieking adherents in the gallery has completely broken down. Lincoln's nomination in 1860 may have been aided by the great expression of local sympathy inside the Convention, but the enthusiasm of packed galleries has since been always discounted, and has no effect whatever except to distract and exasperate the delegates. The scenes this year at Chicago were worse than those at Minneapolis only because the opportunities for disorder and turbulence were greater. Both parties ought to see the absurdity and indecency of present methods, and devise measures to make their national conventions more like gatherings of rational beings.

Mr. Cleveland owed his easy victory on the first ballot to the support of those Northern States which the Democrats must carry in order to elect him. New Jersey, the one State in the North which has gone Democratic in every Presidential contest for twenty years, cast every one of her twenty votes for Cleveland. Michigan, which under the new district system is sure to choose several Democratic electors, was unanimous for him. Indiana and Connecticut, which are always close and doubtful, were both of them solid for him. Illinois and Wisconsin, two of the old Republican States in the West which even Republicans concede to be close this year, cast every one of their votes for Cleveland. The same was true of New Hampshire and Rhode Island, two corresponding States in the East, and four-fifths of the delegates from Massachusetts were for Cleveland. In other words, outside of New York, every State in the North which the Democrats have ever carried in a Presidential contest, or stand any chance of carrying now, was overwhelmingly in favor of the candidate who was chosen. This is exactly the way a candidate ought to be selected.

The delegation chosen by the Syracuse Convention accomplished the unprecedented result of securing its object without admission to the National Convention. That object was to demonstrate to the Democrats of the country that the snap convention did not represent the real sentiments of the Democracy of New York, and that its claim that Cleveland could not carry the State was baseless. How thoroughly the demonstration was made, and how effective it proved, is shown by the result of the first ballot. Whether the men who brought this about were actually admitted to seats in the Convention was a matter of no consequence; and if it gives pleasure to anybody to rejoice because they were not, they would be the last people in the world to object.

"Oh, they have the mass-meetings and the brass bands, but I am getting the delegates." Such was the remark of David B. Hill in Brooklyn on the 10th of February last, when he was "fixing things" for his snap convention. What he meant by it was that Cleveland had the people on his side, but that he (Hill) had the Machine, and the Machine would control the Convention. Mr. Hill has learned something as to the power of public sentiment and the weakness of the Machine since last February. When the ballot was taken, he received in the whole United States, outside of New York, the votes of only forty delegates, while even Boies of Iowa secured seventy-seven outside his own delegation. The history of our politics does not present a more impressive spectacle of a demagogue's downfall. Even his sole claim to distinction, that "I am a Democrat," is now gone, for, after he had learned the will of his party, he persisted in an utterly undemocratic attempt to thwart it. Now that he is at last fully exposed, he is seen to be so weak and contemptible that the thought of connecting him with the Presidency seems an insult to common sense.

The Democratic candidate for Vice-President in the campaign of 1892 is not so well known to the country at large as the gentlemen who were associated with Mr. Cleveland in 1888 and 1884, but nobody could ask a better character than is given Mr. Stevenson by his Republican neighbors of Bloomington, Ill. His political strength among those who know him best has been twice demonstrated by his election to Congress from a district which is normally Republican; and it was a pleasant feature of the reception given him on his return from Chicago last Friday, that Gen. McNulta, the Republican whom he defeated in these two contests, headed the parade and delivered the speech of welcome. The local Republican newspapers were quite as complimentary and hearty. Says one of them: "Mr. Stevenson is a gentleman of unimpeachable character, and his political friends will have no reason to apologize for him in that particular, and of him they may tell the truth, without shame to themselves or scandal to their party." It would be unfair not to recognize the service rendered by Tammany in the Convention in preventing the nomination of Gray and securing that of Stevenson. Whatever the motive, the effect was a distinct gain for the Democratic ticket.

There will be 444 votes in the Electoral College this year, so that the successful candidate must secure at least 223. The "solid South" casts 159, and, despite the talk about two or three of these States being doubtful, nobody whose judgment is worth anything doubts that the Force Bill issue will carry every one for the Democratic candidate. New Jersey's 10 may be counted with equal confidence on the same side. The Detroit *Tribune*, the leading Republican organ of Michigan, admits that the Democrats will get at least four votes from that State. This makes 173 which may be called "sure." Connecticut and Indiana would add 6 and 15 respectively, making 194, and New York's 36 would carry the total up to 230, or seven more than a majority. The Republicans are relatively better off than before by reason of the admission of the new States and the changes in older States caused by the reapportionment, but the combination of 1876 and 1884 would carry the day again in 1892. There are chances for Cleveland this year in other States which no Democratic candidate has had in previous years, and it is possible that he might lose New York and still carry the country; but in all probability New York will again be, as so often before, "the pivotal State."

In the course of his eulogy on the McKinley Bill, in his reply to the notification of his renomination, President Harrison spoke of the increased exports to nations concerned in the reciprocity treaties. Of this very increase it is instructive to notice that the Acting Secretary of State, in a

report submitted to the Senate on the day of the President's speech, observes that "it is scarcely just to measure, as it is useless to conjecture, the results that have, or may, come from the advantages afforded by the reciprocity negotiations." These are at least the words of a practical student; but President Harrison hampers himself by no such qualifications. A brief study of the facts would have taught the President that the increase in our export trade with these reciprocity nations was almost exactly 3 per cent. of the increase in the year's total exports. In other words, the nations with which we have no reciprocity treaties have increased their imports from the United States in almost exactly the same measure as the nations now revelling in such treaties. The fact is, however, that the President was talking of meat and breadstuff exports. His assertion, therefore, amounts to this: that our huge exports of produce this season, and the higher prices paid to the farmers, are the direct results of the late protectionist legislation. Well-meaning but hasty reasoners have been ascribing the strangely distributed harvest of 1891, to which our enormous exports were due, to the vagaries of nature or the dispensation of Providence. Mr. Harrison brushes aside such notions in a single sentence. The great American harvest of 1891 and the great grain export were, in his view, due to one factor only—the McKinley Bill. When it is added that the "numerous reciprocal trade agreements" under the McKinley Bill, to whose auspicious agency Mr. Harrison traces so many blessings, went into effect, for the most part, some six months after the harvest of 1891 was gathered, astonishment grows into something like adoration.

There seems to be a peculiar fate attaching to President Harrison's messages relating to international disputes. They immediately excite a controversy over the question whether a satisfactory answer from the foreign country was not actually in Washington at the time the message was sent in. In the Chilian intrigue, if the apology from Chili was not in the President's hands when he sent his warlike message to Congress, it was only because the telegraph could not work fast enough to get it there. And now, immediately after his message calling for retaliation on Canada, the report comes from Ottawa that a reply from the Canadian Government was in Washington at the time. This is indignantly denied at the White House: the Canadian communication was not received, it is virtuously said, until some hours after the message was sent to the Senate. It must be admitted that the "just in time" character of the message is thereby fully vindicated. But it must occur to the President that it would have been better if he had waited for the promised communication, especially in view of the fact that his call for retaliation was at once pronounced to be silly by the chief organ of his party, edited by his associate on the Republican ticket.

The letter of the counsel of the Produce Exchange to that body on a phase of the Anti-Option Bill now before the Senate Judiciary Committee, ought to enlist against that measure the sympathy and active work of the large and important grocery and provision trades, wholesale and retail. Almost all grocers sell lard, pork, bacon, and other edible products of swine. Every day, wholesalers sell to retail grocers and provision dealers, and these to customers, hog products which they have not in their possession. In fact, it is the common custom in all trades to contract to deliver small quantities of goods which the sellers do not own at time of sale. In every such case of future sales of grain or hog products the traders would be brought under the Anti-Option Bill if it became a law. If a grocer at the time of such "future" sale had a contract with bona-fide owners of lard or pork to supply him with the quantities needed for his trade, such a grocer would have to procure an expensive license for so doing, and would be compelled to keep a record of his transactions which must be open to the inspection of the Collector of Internal Revenue. If, on the other hand, a grocer should sell lard or pork which he at the time of sale did not own or had not contracted for with some bona-fide owner, then the penalties of the Hatch Bill would apply, and they are so heavy as to mean ruin to the ordinary dealer, including fine and imprisonment. The effect would be the same if the salesmen of any wholesale house should happen to sell hog products to retail dealers when their firm at the time did not have the goods on hand. With such absurd and ruinous provisions, it may be expected that the grocery and provision trade, jobbers and retailers, will make their influence felt against the proposed legislation.

We recently animadverted on a decision of the Board of General Appraisers assessing duties upon old books that had been newly rebound, on the ground that a construction of paragraph 512 of the free list, as amended by the McKinley Act, rendered old books, bound or rebound within twenty years, liable to duty. We are glad to note that in a suit brought to recover duty paid under this ruling, the Circuit Court of the United States for the District of Massachusetts decided, on June 2, in favor of the plaintiff. The paragraph in question reads: "Books, engravings, photographs, bound or unbound etchings, maps, and charts, which shall have been printed *and bound* or manufactured more than twenty years at the date of importation." Judge Putnam, who rendered the decision of the court, seems to hold the opinion we previously expressed, that the inserted italicized words were intended to remove the doubt cast upon the Treasury Department rulings which held that unbound books were not entitled to free entry, by the opinion of the Attorney-General to the contrary. He says:

> "It is my belief that the change in the phraseology which appears in the Act of October 1, 1890, paragraph 512, so far as it reaches the present case, should be construed as intended to remove this doubt, and to make certain that the general policy concerning this subject-matter was not extended as the opinion of the Attorney-General permitted." "This was," he continues, "perhaps, sought to be accomplished by striking out the comma after 'unbound'—for whatever such striking out might be worth—so as, perhaps, to make that word limit what followed it, and not what preceded. It was reached effectually and certainly by inserting 'bound or' after the words 'printed and.' The present paragraph 512 is therefore to be construed distributively, the words 'printed and bound' referring to whatever should be bound to complete it as an article of merchandise, and 'printed' and 'manufactured' to everything else. I discover no evidence of any other change of legislative purpose so far as relates to printed books."

Judge Putnam holds that in the case of books which have been bound more than twenty years before importation, "as books of like character are usually bound before being offered for sale," such books are entitled to free entry as complying with the precise terms of the present statute; and as to books rebound he adds: "I would regard them as entitled to free entry, even though it also appeared that, in consequence of accident or ordinary use, they had needed and received repairs in all respects equal in extent to new and original binding." It is understood that the Treasury Department has already notified Custom-house officials that they are to be governed by this decision; so it is to be presumed that there will be no further assessment of duty on old books on the score of new binding. But how the decision is to apply in the case, for example, of books printed more than twenty years and kept in the original sheets until shortly before importation, and then newly bound, it is difficult to see; and on whom is the burden of proof as to the facts in the case, the importer or the United States?

Protection, like negro slavery, is a principle which cannot be allowed to stand still. Once conceded to be right in itself, the one movement, as was the case with the other, is morally bound to be advanced into new fields and carried to its remotest logical extremes. The manufacturers of Australia have discovered another possible step in the logical series. Bitter complaint has lately arisen among the Melbourne manufacturers of flour, tallow, leather, and preserved meats, that the "raw material" of their industry is exported to foreign countries, there to be turned into the finished commodity. The manufacturers protest that if the

farmers and cattlemen were compelled to bring their product to local manufacturers instead of sending them to foreigners, local business would be enlarged and thousands of Australians be employed in making the flour and tallow and leather which are now turned out by the pauper labor of England. On this ground, they have begun by demanding, at a public mass-meeting, that the Victorian Government levy an export duty of one penny a pound on raw sheepskins. The demand of the tanners will naturally be echoed, as applied to their own commodities, by the millers and the grocers; and inasmuch as Victoria is not, like the United States, hampered by a constitutional prohibition of export duties, it is hard to see how a protectionist Legislature can consistently refuse the demand. Indeed, the arguments in favor of the export tariff sound like an extract from a McKinley debate. Not one protectionist catchword is missing, from the "pauper labor of Europe" to "Australian markets for Australian workmen." This is only a fresh illustration of the fact that protectionist fallacies are best exposed by pushing the principle to its logical extreme.

The election address which Mr. Gladstone has issued puts home rule for Ireland in the foremost place. This could hardly be avoided, but in England, as in this country, the matter has lost some of its interest. No question can occupy the attention of the public for a very long time without becoming tiresome, and the Irish question has for a number of years given rise to a prodigious amount of discussion. But, whether the English people are tired of it or not, it is really the only question upon which the parties can divide. There are many subjects upon which action would probably be taken by the Liberals which the Conservatives would condemn, and vice versa, but these subjects are for the most part of no national importance, and could hardly bring about a change of government. Mr. Gladstone criticises the English Local-Government Bill and the bill intended to encourage the growth of a class of peasant proprietors, known as the Agricultural Holdings Bill; but even in regard to these measures the differences between the parties relate to matters of detail. Upon the proposed law making eight hours the universal day of labor Mr. Gladstone is rather non-committal, but reminds the working-classes that their true strength, after all, is closely connected with personal liberty. He speaks favorably of the payment of members of Parliament who represent these classes, and if this means their payment by the Government, it is very significant of democratic progress. But the report leaves it uncertain whether Mr. Gladstone did more than approve the practice already established, in accordance with which the miners have raised a salary for their member by voluntary contribution.

The general reduction of the rate of interest has been taken advantage of by the British Government in making a new contract with the Bank of England. By the terms of this contract the Government will save about £45,700 a year, a reduction which some of the Bank directors complain of as extortionate, and which in fact amounts to ⅜ of 1 per cent. on the Bank's capital. But this complaint, while natural, is not well grounded, for there is no reason why the Bank should not accept 2¾ per cent. instead of 3 per cent. on the Government debt of £11,000,000, since all the other creditors of the State have accepted a like reduction, and this difference in interest accounts for more than half the saving. After 1903 it is further provided that the rate shall be only 2½ per cent., but if this is not satisfactory to the Bank, the Government may continue the loan at 2¾ per cent. or pay the debt, at its option. The rest of the reduction is in the allowances to the Bank for various financial services, which allowances are deemed still sufficiently liberal by the *Economist*. It must not be forgotten that the Bank derives an annual profit of something like £100,000 from the privilege of issuing its notes against the debt of the Government, and that it has no legal claim to the perpetuation of this privilege beyond the periods from time to time agreed upon.

The interview with Prince Bismarck published by the *Neue Freie Presse* of Vienna is accepted as authentic by the German newspapers, whose comments on it are naturally severe. There has seldom been so much washing of domestic linen before the public eye. Not only does the ex-Chancellor in this interview disparage his successor, but he affirms that Germany has incurred the ill-will of Russia by his (Bismarck's) removal from office. It follows from this that nobody but Bismarck could insure the peace of Europe—a conclusion from which the Prince does not shrink. The peace of Europe may be preserved without him by a run of luck, but there can be nothing like a guarantee of it. "They reckon ill who leave me out," is the burden of his song. The *Tageblatt* of Leipzig is right in saying that Bismarck when in office hunted men to their ruin for saying far less than he has said in this interview. The Freisinnige journals, on the other hand, say that if it be true that the Czar is less friendly to Germany than he was during the Bismarck régime, Germany is now more united and self-reliant, and therefore better able to meet her enemies. The interview will certainly make the barrier between Bismarck and the Emperor impassable, and will reconcile most of the Prince's former supporters to his retirement from political life; for such a publication cannot be counted patriotic. It may be all true, but it is certainly disturbing. Indeed, it is hard to imagine a more disquieting communication coming from a person not charged with the responsibilities of office.

The three per cent. bonds of the French Republic, commonly known as *rentes*, have risen to par, and the French papers are naturally expressing much pleasure at this evidence of the credit of the Government. It was in 1824 that the three per cent. *rente* was introduced, when it sold for 75, and soon after fell to 60, but rose in 1829 to 80. The revolution of 1830 sent it down again to 60, but the conservative Government of Louis Philippe caused it to appreciate steadily until about 1846, when it sold at 84. The revolution of 1848 drove the price down to 50, but it struggled up to 56, and the establishment of the Empire caused a bound upward to 75 in 1852 and 79 in 1853. Yet after this the Empire seems to have lacked credit, for the *rente* ranged between 60 and 70 for a number of years. Just before the war with Prussia, when there was for a short time a belief that peace was assured, the price of 75 was attained, but the disaster of 1870 reduced it to 52 in October of that year. From that time on, the appreciation has been upon the whole steady, but the enormous expenditure of the Government evidently caused alarm, for from 85 in 1881 it fell to 78 in 1884. It thus appears that it has risen 20 francs in less than eight years, and during the last three years alone the rise has been 15 per cent. These fluctuations constitute a miniature history of the course of political events in France, but the extraordinary rise during the last few years, we apprehend, is due mainly to causes that have affected the rate of interest the world over, although due in part to certain financial measures adopted by the French Government.

There is a brilliant opening for a quorum-counter in the Brazilian Congress which it would be well worth the while of ex-Speaker Reed, in his present condition of political disinterestedness, to consider. The Congress should have met on May 3, but took things easy and did not attempt a session before the 12th. Even then no quorum was present. That state of things continued for five successive days. Finally, on the 18th, the legal number was got together and organization was partially effected, but the quorum imme diately disappeared, and it was not until nearly a month after the date fixed by law that Congress was ready for business. Various feeble excuses were presented, such as the fact that the President had exiled and imprisoned so many Congressmen that it was difficult to get a quorum, but we are sure that a good energetic Czar for Speaker would have figured out a "potential" quorum even under such discouraging circumstances.

MR. CLEVELAND'S CANDIDACY.

THE nomination of Mr. Cleveland is the most encouraging political event which has occurred in this country since the war. In many respects it resembles the second nomination of Lincoln, for, like that, it has been compelled by the people in spite of the combined opposition of the professional politicians. Every patriotic American, no matter what his political affiliations may be, has reason to rejoice over it, for it is at once a triumph for our methods of selecting Presidential candidates, and an immediate and, we trust, permanent uplifting of the level of our political discussion. It gives assurance that the campaign before us will be one of the most creditable ever conducted in this country. The nomination of no other Democratic candidate could have brought this about, for, without disparaging any of those who were mentioned in opposition to Mr. Cleveland, it is to be said that his personal character stands for more, in the estimation of the people, than that of any other American of his time.

Mr. Cleveland is, in fact, the candidate of the people, as Lincoln was, and as Washington and Jackson had been before him. He has done nothing to secure the nomination, but many things which seemed certain in the eyes of time-servers and trimmers to deprive him of all chance of obtaining it. He has been a private citizen for four years, going into private life after a defeat which he had brought upon himself and his party by his own deliberate act. In his retirement he made a public deliverance on a burning question of the day in which he placed himself squarely in opposition to what was generally believed to be an overwhelming majority of his party. Yet because he was honest and courageous, both in the step which cost him a reëlection and in the subsequent public utterance, he has accomplished the seemingly miraculous feat of converting his party, in practically solid mass, to his way of thinking. He is to-day not merely its nominee, but its platform. He has brought it to his position both on the tariff and on silver, and in doing this has performed a service of inestimable value to the country.

Especially is this true of the silver question. When he wrote his letter to the Cooper Institute meeting in February, 1891, it was known that the huge Democratic majority in the new Congress was overwhelmingly in favor of free and unlimited silver coinage, and there seemed to be no possibility of defeating the passage of a free-coinage bill when that Congress should assemble in the following December. Mr. Cleveland, by putting himself in direct and open opposition to this majority, was supposed by many observers to have ended his political career. It is now plain that he saved the country from the most baleful financial blunder which has ever threatened it, and saved his party also from the consequences of such a blunder. He stopped the passage of the Free-Coinage Bill in Congress, and has now stopped his party from the further consideration of such a bill by bringing it squarely upon a platform which, in plain and unmistakable language, binds it against free and unlimited silver coinage. These are the services and achievements which make all honest men of both parties speak with respect of Mr. Cleveland's character, and which make his candidacy an honor to his party and to American politics. They will constitute his chief strength in the approaching campaign.

There could be no stronger evidence of the public value of his nomination than is found in the tributes which his political opponents pay to it. "We do not," says the Philadelphia *Press*, "underestimate Mr. Cleveland's strength. We are not unmindful that he has won a large measure of confidence in his personal rectitude and purposes. He is a worthy adversary, and insures a battle of principles and not of personalities." "Republicans do not underrate Mr. Cleveland," says the Republican candidate for the Vice-Presidency. "No Republican will disparage either his strength, his sincerity, or his character. His nomination will make it sure that we shall have a clean canvass of discussion and not of vituperation. I do not believe that Mr. Cleveland is as strong as he was in '84, nor even as strong as in '88. Yet I think he enjoys more of the respect of his opponents than he ever did before. And the devotion of his followers is such that they will surely give us a very hard fight." To these high testimonies from representative Republican authorities in the East are to be added equally flattering ones from similar authorities in the West. The Chicago *Inter-Ocean* says: "There is a universal respect for Mr. Cleveland as a man having convictions that he will not sacrifice for his personal aggrandizement. We believe that a large majority of the voters of the United States consider the economic opinions of Mr. Cleveland to be ill-grounded, but we feel sure that a majority of the people feel more kindly towards a man who honestly believes in that which is untrue, than a man who would conceal his own belief and suppress that of his party for the purpose of deceiving the voters." Surely the nomination of such a candidate, against the power of the political machines of his party and without the aid of a particle of patronage of any kind, is an achievement which should inspire new faith in the capacity of the people of this country for popular government. No demagogue ever had a support capable of accomplishing a result like this, which has been won by simple adherence to common honesty and implicit trust in the "brave old wisdom of sincerity."

Whatever the result of the election, the action of both National Conventions combines to assure us a campaign of rational discussion, in which an intelligent citizen can join without loss of either temper or self-respect. Both political parties have succeeded in showing that they are stronger than their self-elected bosses, and are not afraid to go forward in defiance of the latter's wishes. It will not be wise for either party to calculate upon much help for its candidate from the treachery of these baffled and defeated political gamblers in the other. This is to be an election in which "treachery" and "knifing" will play no decisive parts. Both parties are threatened about equally, and the harm which one suffers is likely to be counterbalanced pretty evenly by that of the other. When the time to vote comes, we shall take the ballot for the first time in our history in absolute secrecy, and more free from corrupting and contaminating influences than ever before. All this is as encouraging as it is gratifying to every American who loves his country and has her welfare at heart.

THE DEMOCRATIC PLATFORM.

THE two planks in the platform adopted by the Democratic Convention last week which will above all others fix the attention of the country are those on the tariff and on silver. The corresponding parts of the Republican platform were regarded with equal propriety as the vital articles of the Republican profession of political faith. About them will rage the battle in the next four months. The other planks are of minor or local importance. Our first comments will therefore be upon the remarkable utterances of the Democratic party on the questions of tariff taxation and the currency.

The tariff plank may justly be called remarkable both on account of its tenor and the manner of its adoption. It squarely toes the mark on the great issue that now divides parties in this country. Without any circumlocutions or ambiguities, it declares protective legislation to be class legislation, the "robbery of the great majority of the American people for the benefit of the few." All the vain qualifications about "incidental protection" and "wise adjustments" are for ever abandoned, and the flat-footed demand is made that tariff taxes "shall be limited to the necessities of the Government when honestly and economically administered." Moreover, this "fundamental principle of the Democratic party" is wisely based upon the denial of any constitutional power in the Federal Government to levy protective taxes. This is simply appealing to the underlying idea of all free government—equality before the law. Whatever a partisan Supreme Court may have decided or may yet decide on this question, it will remain an ineradicable conviction of the mass of the people that to interpret into the Constitution the right of one class to enrich itself at the expense of another, is possible only through legal jugglery, and is in defiance of the principles of

equality and even-handed justice on which our Government was founded.

These clear and fearless declarations on the tariff show that the Democratic party has at last found its voice. They involve a more direct and profound comprehension of the inherent injustice of protection than has ever found expression in any party platform in this country. The Democratic party of the forties boldly opposed Whig protectionism, it is true, but Whig protectionism was free trade itself beside the monstrosities that have since fastened themselves on our laws in the name of protection. The Democratic platform of 1876 declared for a tariff for revenue only, but that was only a minor incident of the campaign at the time, as the tariff was not then an issue. Republican State conventions of the period adopted the same plank without debate. But within the last few years the issue has been coming to the front as the arrogant demands of tariff beneficiaries and the wrongs inflicted upon the people under the guise of protection have become more evident. The Democratic party has been headed right for the past three Presidential campaigns, and has declared its position in steadily clearer and more courageous tones. This year it comes out into the open, gives over futile dallying with protection, which it has at last found out to be wholly and altogether "a fraud," and forces the fighting on the entire dishonest system.

It is remarkable that this outspoken plank was put into the platform by the body of the delegates against the wishes of the majority of the Committee on Resolutions. The plank originally reported by that Committee was well enough in its main positions, feebly expressed though they were in comparison with the form of words finally chosen, but was guilty of the incredible stupidity of dragging after it an explanatory appendix in which the old protection devil could easily shelter himself. This was entirely to mistake the temper of the Convention. The timidity of other years clung to the Committee, but the mass of the delegates flung it off completely. They had just been cheering Chairman Wilson's hot denunciations of "law-made wealth," and were in no mood to listen to shuffling words about "industries that have come to rely upon legislation." With a better sense of the righteousness of their cause than many of their leaders, and with a better, because more instinctive, appreciation of the course to which the party is led by political wisdom as well as political honor, they insisted upon for ever renouncing the protection devil and all his works.

The silver plank is of great importance, though it will probably play but a small part in the canvass. It might easily have been of chief importance. If the Democratic party had run violently down a steep place into the sea of free silver, into which it seemed bent on plunging six or even three months ago, nothing that it could have said about the tariff could have saved it. But it has wrought out for itself a great deliverance, and made a currency plank which will leave wholly on its side whatever advantage is to be gained from discussing the silver issue in the campaign. For there can be no question among honest men that the Democratic plank on silver is infinitely better than the Republican. The latter is admitted by the *Tribune* to be capable of meaning free coinage of silver; and Senator Teller says it does mean that, and accepts it as satisfactory for that reason. No one can say the same of the Democratic position, which is that "the dollar unit of coinage of both metals must be of equal *intrinsic* and exchangeable value." Those Republican organs in the East which have been dismayed at the "straddle" of their own party on the silver question, and have been comforting themselves with the thought that the Democrats would be guilty of a worse one, will see that word *intrinsic*, and at once conclude that free coinage is not an issue.

We think ourselves that it will be but a minor issue; but whatever fighting there is on it, and whatever votes on it are gained in doubtful States, will prove to be to the advantage of the Democrats. They have surpassed the most sanguine expectations on this point, and will strengthen the faith of thinking men in the safety of the republic by the new proof they have given of the power of argument and education to break down and destroy a threatening popular delusion.

IS PROTECTION GAINING GROUND?

THE platform adopted by the Republican party reaffirms the "American doctrine of Protection," and calls attention to its growth abroad. It is hardly necessary to say that neither in the theories of protection expounded in this country, nor in the attempted application of these theories in tariffs, is there anything distinctively American. There is not an argument advanced in support of these theories that has not been urged almost from the beginning of time, or that will not, we fear, be heard till the crack of doom. The fear of foreign contamination constitutes a large part of early religion, the jealousy of strangers is the distinguishing feature of early politics, and the prevention of competition has been the end and aim of most commercial regulation and legislation from the dawn of history to the present day. The Phœnicians, the first people to engage extensively in manufacturing and commerce of which history has given us much record, were noted for the savage spirit with which they attacked those who interfered with their monopoly, and Pericles called the attention of the Athenians to the fact that they were the only people who allowed foreigners free access to their markets. Even in England protective duties existed down to 1860, and the policy of free trade has never been acceptable to a considerable portion of her people.

But, disregarding the "question-begging epithet" American, let us inquire whether in fact protection is growing abroad. As to England, attempts have been made and will continue to be made in this country to represent Lord Salisbury's speech as signifying a change in public sentiment if not in commercial policy. But as the comment of the English press reaches us we are struck with the unanimity with which the doctrine of the speech is condemned. It finds approval only among inveterate protectionists, and is condemned even by most of these as injudicious and inopportune. Moreover, it has directed attention to the history of the free-trade movement, with the result not only of showing the vast gain which it has brought to England, but also of exhibiting Lord Salisbury's blunders and misrepresentations of history with such clearness as to make his position extremely humiliating. It will not be foreign to the purpose to review some of the evidence upon this subject.

"Forty or fifty years ago," says Lord Salisbury, "everybody believed that free trade had conquered the world, and they prophesied that every nation would follow the example of England, and give itself up to absolute free trade." But England does not now enjoy absolute free trade, and certainly did not enjoy anything of the kind in 1842. Even in 1852 many protective duties were in force. The example of England at that time, therefore, was merely of a tendency away from protection, and, moreover, this example was generally followed. Furthermore, nobody believed at the period referred to that free trade had conquered the world, owing, perhaps, to the fact that nowhere in the world did it prevail. As to prophecies, it may be granted that Mr. Cobden indulged in some that were highly optimistic, but what is hoped for by an enthusiastic reformer is not accurately described as the prophecy of everybody. The Anti-Corn-Law League in England was made up of members of the middle class and the more intelligent workmen, and it would be more nearly correct to say that forty or fifty years ago "everybody," of social consequence at least, detested its motives and disbelieved its prophecies.

Upon this point it will be instructive to make some quotations, which we take from an admirable work just published by Cassell & Co., entitled 'Industrial Freedom,' by B. R. Wise, formerly Attorney-General of New South Wales. In 1887 Mr. John Bright wrote to Mr. Wise:

> "I never held the opinion that the reform of the tariff would be at once followed by a like change of policy in other countries. If Mr. Cobden expressed such an opinion, of which I have no recollection, I can only say that he had more faith in the common sense of other nations than I had. . . . Further, I would assert without fear of error that our adherence to our free-trade policy is the more necessary and advantageous to us, seeing that other countries have not yet followed our example. Surely, if other nations injure us by their high duties, it would be no compensation to us to put difficulties in the way of our buying what we want. It would be better if we were free to buy and to sell, but

to make it difficult to buy by high duties in our tariff, because foreign tariff makes it difficult to sell, seems to me an idea that can only be entertained by men who are totally unable to reason."

In 1846 Sir R. Peel said in the House of Commons, in a speech on the Corn Laws:

"I fairly avow to you that, in making this great reduction upon the import of articles—the produce and manufacture of foreign countries—I have no guarantee to give you that other countries will immediately follow our example. I give you that advantage in the argument. Wearied with our long and unavailing efforts to enter into satisfactory commercial treaties with other nations, we have resolved at length to consult our own interests, and not to punish those other countries for the wrong they do us in continuing their high duties upon the importation of our products and manufactures by continuing high duties ourselves. . . . You may, therefore, say in opposition to the present plan, What is this superfluous liberality, that you are going to do away with all these duties, and yet you expect nothing in return? I may, perhaps, be told that many foreign countries, since the former relaxation of duties on our part—foreign countries which have benefited by our relaxation—have not followed our example; nay, have not only not followed our example, but have actually applied to the importation of British goods higher rates of duties than formerly. I quite admit it. I give you all the benefit of that argument. . . . But what has been the result upon the amount of your exports? You have defied the regulations of those countries. Your export trade has enormously increased."

In 1849, Mr. Disraeli having laid down the same dogma that Lord Salisbury has just announced, "that you cannot fight hostile tariffs with free imports," Peel replied: "I so totally dissent from that assumption that I maintain that the best way to compete with hostile tariffs is to encourage free imports." It would be easy to multiply these quotations, but we have said enough to show that the protectionist arguments of to-day are the same as of old, that the agitation of "reciprocity" is but the stirring up of a theory deliberately abandoned when free trade was introduced, and that protection has gained ground in England only in the sense that ignorance is constantly gaining ground from education, which is won back again as knowledge is increased. As to commercial legislation on the Continent, we can only say on this occasion that the present tendency is decidedly towards freer trade.

ITALY AND THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE.

THE impression has generally prevailed that the great increase of taxation in Italy has been caused by the enormous armament required by the conditions of the Triple Alliance. This impression is declared to be incorrect by Sig. Crispi, who contributes an article upon the subject to the July number of the *North American Review*. He points out that it was but a generation ago that nearly the whole of Italy was under the rule of despotisms of the most reactionary character. The material progress which distinguishes this century had under these governments scarcely begun, while it is notorious that the expenditure of money for the education of the common people would have been regarded by most of them as an act of suicidal madness. Such railroads as were constructed were principally for strategic purposes, the highways were neglected, telegraphs had scarcely been introduced, and free communication and progress in general were discouraged as having a dangerous tendency to lead to free thought and free speech.

When the new kingdom was created, therefore, it was far behind in the industrial race. What other countries had begun in 1830 it had to begin in 1860, and the expenditure of two generations has been crowded into the lifetime of one. Thus in 1861 Italy had but 2,561 kilometres of railroad, while she has now 15,600, but at an increased expense of 4,300 millions francs. In like manner what we should call the "River and Harbor Bill" demands three times what was wanted in 1862, and has consumed extraordinary appropriations amounting to 678 millions of francs during the last decade. Public education, too, has had to be dealt with from the foundation up, and in many ways the backward condition of the country has had to be remedied at great expense.

Signor Crispi, however, makes very little of this argument. In point of fact, it would be to a considerable extent irrelevant to the question of the financial policy of the Government, because private enterprise would have furnished the railroads at far less cost than the State. English capital rejoices to pour itself forth in waste places, and the money that has with some trepidation been risked in South America, would have been spent most gladly in furnishing Italy with a complete network of railways. Abandoning this argument, therefore, Signor Crispi endeavors to show that the political situation, not the Triple Alliance, compelled Italy to spend enormous sums for military purposes, and that it is this expenditure which has embarrassed her finances.

This situation, according to Sig. Crispi, required arming with a view to resisting attack from France and Austria. These Powers, he says, have more than once sought to dominate Italy. But he fails to answer the question, Will they do so hereafter? The answer to this question shows the folly of the Italian policy. England is exposed to attack all over the world, and a powerful armament is a necessity for her if she is to maintain her position. Austria is obliged to be in readiness for a Russian attack, and Germany for an attack from both Russia and France. But Italy is protected not only by nature, but by the public sentiment of the world. Her territory is defined by the language of its inhabitants and by the mountains and the seas that enclose it. No Power desires to annex any of her provinces, and none has any wish to attack her. She is as secure without a soldier as with an enormous army. Perhaps she is more secure, for, as the recent experience of the United States has shown, people who come into possession of military appliances are anxious to put them to the test of practice. It is true that a certain rancor toward Italy has prevailed in France because Italy did not hasten to her assistance in 1870, but this rancor is not enough to make the French commit the folly of trying to dismember Italy; and unless they attempt that, there is no reason why Italy should keep in arms. Most of this rancor, indeed, is due to Italy's militant attitude and to its entering the Triple Alliance.

While it may be true, as Sig. Crispi says, that "it occurs to no one in old and turbulent Europe that the nation should disarm," it does not follow that "liberty is not secure and the independence of the country is always in danger unless its citizens be armed." "Turbulent Europe" has been peaceful enough for almost a quarter of a century, and when the next war comes, it will be one in which Italy need take no part, so far as her own defence is concerned. Signor Crispi mentions the fact that in 1873 it was ascertained that the navy upon which so much had been spent was worthless, and that the vessels might as well be destroyed. He shows that Italy can mobilize only 1,200,000 men, one-fifth of the number that the three Powers on the frontier can bring against her, while the two seas that wash her shores can be adequately defended only by two fleets. It is evident, therefore, that Italy could not resist a combined attack, while no Power would threaten her territorial integrity by itself. The example of Belgium shows what the public sentiment of Europe can effect in the way of preserving boundaries, and that of Spain shows the effectiveness of unity of language as well as of mountain ranges. Italy is protected by all three. An army and a navy she will of course maintain; but she does not need to overtax herself for this purpose.

The details of the financial situation in Italy are given very imperfectly by Signor Crispi, and his discussion of the taxation of the country is almost unintelligible. It would not be profitable to comment upon what he has to say upon these subjects, but one declaration of his is important if it is correct, viz., that the Triple Alliance imposes no obligation to maintain special armaments. The treaty, he says, is purely defensive, and each nation is to judge for itself as to the size of the force which it will be judicious to maintain. The conclusion is, therefore, unavoidable that the condition of the Italian finances is not due to any international obligations or pressure from other countries, but that the responsibility for it rests entirely with those who have directed the Government of Italy.

STATE OF PARTIES IN FRANCE.

PARIS, June 11, 1892.

SINCE the return of Parliament to work after the Easter recess, the debates have been somewhat dull. Contrary to general expectation, a question addressed to the Government

in reference to the Anarchist arrests fell flat on the attention of the House, and the vote that followed was a foregone victory for the Cabinet. Somehow or other the fighting humor with which both Chambers were inspired before the vacation seems to have melted away while the Deputies were enjoying their holiday; and at present the deliberations, of general or special utility though they be, are certainly without great interest, considered from a political point of view.

Such being the case, it will be wiser to take a look at the relations existing between the various political parties and the country at large. Here is something that merits attention. The tendency which has been now for some time at work in French politics is becoming accentuated every week. The parties of yesterday are non-existent to-day; those of to-day are likely to disappear to-morrow. Such is the order of things at present, and, amid the complicated and seemingly contradictory changes, it would appear that a vital transformation is slowly taking place, and one fraught with vast consequences to the future of the country. All this is for the moment obscure and difficult to analyze. Sufficient, however, can be seen or guessed to furnish at least a partial account of the present situation.

When the Republic was proclaimed in France, the Opposition was composed of a certain number of monarchical parties, classing themselves under three names: Legitimists, or partisans of the Comte de Chambord; Orleanists, who claimed the crown for the Comte de Paris; Bonapartists, who remained faithful to the Empire, and placed their hope in the son of Napoleon III. These anti-republican parties, enrolling themselves under one conservative banner, were numerically stronger than their opponents, and therefore able to hold the Republic in check. But when once it came to forming a definite policy of their own, the differences of opinion between Imperialist and Royalist, and between Royalist and Royalist, made any attempt to resuscitate monarchical institutions vain. The Republic naturally profited by this disunion, and established itself in 1876 by reason of the inability of any other form of government to exist in its place.

By degrees the Republic gained the heart of the country. At succeeding elections the number of Republican votes increased in a steady proportion. For this state of things there was a twofold cause. On the one hand, as has been commonly remarked, the French, with the exception of certain great centres of activity, are conservative of what already exists, dread nothing more than political upheavals, and are consequently disposed to uphold the Government in power, provided only it maintains tranquillity. On the other hand, the rivalries already referred to, which at first redounded to the Republic's advantage, instead of showing signs of diminishing bitterness, increased and multiplied as time went on. Thus, for instance, the death of the Prince Imperial was followed by a quarrel between Prince Jerome Napoleon, the then heir of the Bonapartist claim, and his son Victor, who is now the representative of the dynasty. From that date the Imperialist party was split in two and gradually grew weaker. On the Royalist side the two rival sections were nominally united by the death of one of the claimants, the Comte de Chambord. As luck would have it, however, the Comte de Paris, the surviving claimant, failed to show any of the qualities necessary in a party chief, and above all in one who sought a throne. His action and attitude, on not a few occasions, were characterized by a deplorable lack of political tact and judgment, and the result was to discourage a large number of his supporters.

The conservative party have endeavored now for some years to organize their forces and to consolidate their cause. The means adopted has been the identification of the interests of religion with those of the monarchy. The weapon used against the Government has been the reiterated accusation that its republicanism is the cause of the oppresssion of the Church. And in fine every act of the Republican party has been used as a censure, not of particular men or cabinets, but of the institution which they represent. Fixing in particular on certain laws—such, for instance, as the Public Elementary Education Act and the Military Service Obligation Act—the Conservatives laid it down as a principle that every good Catholic ought to do his utmost to bring about a change in laws which secularized the schools, and compelled candidates for the priesthood to gird on the sword. When it is remembered that France is mainly Catholic, and that the clergy possess immense influence in very many parts of the country, the cleverness of the tactics adopted will appear evident. In taking up the cudgels for the Church, the Conservatives obtained a very considerable share of clerical support, and by that means became possessed of a formidable weapon to be used against the Republic. This weapon has just been taken from them. The blow came from a quarter from which it was apparently least to be expected. It was the Pope who suddenly deprived the Conservatives of their rising power and activity, by officially announcing that the opposition the Catholics were manifesting against the Republic could not be sanctioned by him. He added that the republican form of government was as acceptable to the Church as any other form, and that the first duty of a Christian was to submit absolutely and loyally to the government which was established.

Beaten on the political ground, and seeing the religious ground thus summarily closed against them, the Conservatives are discovering that their dream of overturning the Republic is a vain one. There are still a certain number who do not care to avow the truth. Such, for instance, are the students who voted the other day a resolution of unalterable attachment to the Comte de Paris. Such, too, naturally, is Prince Victor Napoleon, who, in a sort of got-up interview, tried a short time ago to show that France must, in spite of herself, come back to the Empire. On the other hand, a section of the Catholics is endeavoring, by means of subtle distinctions, to prove that obedience to the Pope in the absolute is not incompatible with disobedience in the particular—*i. e.*, the present case. Amid this strife of tongues, one thing is especially visible, to wit, the rapid breaking up of the monarchist parties. One by one the leaders are abandoning their whilom commands. M. le Comte de Mun, for instance, formerly a chief among the Royalists, has recently made a public declaration of his submission to the Republic.

Granting, however, that the Republic seems to be at last definitively established, it is by no means so certain that the triumph will be an uninterrupted, peaceful progress. Fresh troubles are appearing already on the horizon; and, for the moment, it is doubtful if they will gather into a storm or melt away in some happier political breeze. It is scarcely necessary to recall to mind the considerable changes which have come over the Republican spirit during the last fifteen years. Without there being any modification of first principles, the succeeding governments have gradually passed from the Republicanism as understood by M. Thiers to tendencies and sentiments more radical and less conformable to tradition. Men of more advanced views have acceded to power, and the policy of the various cabinets has inclined more and more to the democratic side, less and less to the religious. It is pertinent to ask whether this evolution has been the natural product of the national will. To answer frankly, it is doubtful.

First of all, if comparison is made between the figures of the last few general elections, it will be found that the number of abstentions shows a tendency to increase. It is true that indifference enters largely into the causes which prevent people from recording their vote. But this indifference itself has a motive. In part arising from the national conservative instinct, it is also, in part, the result of a fairly general political scepticism. One government is neither better nor worse than another, is the conclusion which only too many arrive at after a long experience at the polls. Hence, both an unwillingness to vote for a candidate and an equal unwillingness to take the trouble to vote against him. For want of a wider and deeper interest in voting, petty local interests often interfere to decide a parliamentary contest, and the general election may be fairly estimated as lacking that proper national character which it ought to have and to confer on the Legislature.

Of course, this deliberate indifference may break out at any time into an active discontent. No further back than five or six years ago, the Boulangist movement furnished a striking example. Nor does it affect the main argument that Boulangism was a heterogeneous agitation, that the Royalists made use of it to try and restore the monarchy, and that many others were found in its ranks from mere personal ambition. The popularity of Gen. Boulanger, discount made of his individuality, came really from the fact that he represented a wide-felt dissatisfaction against the Government's policy, and his strength was neither more nor less than the temporary concentration in his hands of all the popular discontent. Circumstances so ordered it that the Boulangism of Gen. Boulanger failed to attain its end. But since the discontents which created it are more permanent than the man who personified them, there is a possibility of there being in the near future a Boulangism without Boulanger. Among those hostile to the present Government this idea has already found expression. It wants but a working basis, and an opposition party might quickly organize itself with a reasonable hope of coming into power.

But again, the Conservative party—or rather parties, since for the moment the sections are not properly united—might, in accepting the Republic, wonderfully increase their force. As a matter of fact, to accept the Republic would by no means necessarily be to agree to all its present political doctrines. And in declaring their definitive adhesion to the established rule, they would simply have to make it known that they reserved to themselves the full right to urge their views upon every matter not touching the form of government. Doubtless such an opposition as this, on strictly Constitutional lines, would tell far more against the party in power than an opposition based on revolution, and having to contend against the reluctance of the people. The Liberals and Radicals, thenceforth, deprived of their exclusive claim to the suffrages of the

masses on the ground of law and order, would have to fight against a consolidated Conservative party, that stated a clearly defined policy in opposition to their own; and the Conservatives, profiting, like their neighbors across the Channel, by the shifting opinions and changes of front among their opponents, would succeed sooner or later in seizing the reins of government.

To complete this rapid sketch of the chief political tendencies of the time, notice should be taken of the Socialist movement. But here we are in presence of an agitation so obscurely outlined that intelligent criticism or analysis of it is next to impossible. That the Socialists have succeeded in making themselves a distinct influence in the country it would be futile to deny. To go further than this general confession, and to attempt to estimate what is the Socialist factor in actual legislation, would be to speak without any reliable data. The Socialist party is in no sense at present a homogeneous whole. In addition to several sections, having doctrines peculiar to each, and apparently irreconcilable one with another, there is what might be called an unofficial section obscurely mixed up with the Anarchists, and aiming, like the latter, more at political destruction than at vital reconstruction of the social machine. What is to be the ultimate influence exercised by these incongruous, explosive elements on the main body of the working classes? What effect will they ultimately produce on the general political life of the country? For the moment no reply can be given to these questions; and so long as this is the case, it will be difficult, if not impossible, to read accurately the signs of the times.

To sum up, it appears that in spite of the rout of the Royalists and Imperialists—a rout brought on partly by accidental circumstances, partly by their own divisions and short-sightedness—the Republic is still menaced by a slumbering dissatisfaction in the country, which may at any time become active. Further, it appears that the Royalists and Imperialists have a very good chance of transforming themselves into a legitimate opposition and of snatching the coveted power and leadership from the hands of the present possessors. The struggle on both sides is rendered more doubtful by the presence of an unknown factor—the Socialist vote. What will be the outcome? No one at present can say. S.

Correspondence.

THE PRESIDENCY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The lists are cleared, the champions marshalled, and the conflict of four months is about to begin. Foreigners look upon it with unmingled horror. They see in it only uproar and turmoil, disturbance of business and enormous outlay of money, brass-bands and torch-light processions, endless speechmaking, mud-throwing, slander, and political intrigue, and all for no definite purpose whatever. It seems a spectacle to excite only disgust and contempt. They are welcome to their opinion. We believe it to be the grandest event in the world, not merely from a sentimental point of view, but for practical, homely, every-day value; that it is well worth every particle of its cost, whether in time or money.

Once in four years the whole people of the United States turn aside from their money-getting and their personal cares and anxieties to a question of politics, aside from themselves and yet of common interest to them all. In the cabin of the laborer, in the single room of the city tenement, in the palace of the millionaire, the morning paper which reports progress causes every pulse to beat in unison, and moves in every breast the old feeling, *Civis Romanus sum.* The man from Maine who visits Louisiana, the Oregonian sojourning in Florida, will meet at every street corner those with whom he can exchange warm sympathy and interest, not in reverence for a sovereign whose claim rests solely upon being born in a particular family, mostly kept up by the intermarriage of cousins, but as co-workers, at least in theory and however imperfectly the machinery may work, in the choice of their own Chief Magistrate.

The German and French armies are assembled every year at an immense cost, and for no present purpose, simply to keep them in the highest state of efficiency. We, too, have our "autumn manœuvres," not for the purpose of ultimate slaughter and destruction, but in training to give expression to the national will, and to quiet and peaceful submission to the outcome of a vote under the conditions prescribed by law. If we went on for a century with such elections, apparently settling nothing, yet if in one crisis like the civil war it gave us an Abraham Lincoln, the process would have paid for itself a hundred times over.

Among the proofs of wisdom which appear almost more than human in that wonderful instrument the Federal Constitution, not the least is in the fact that it places the chief executive power in the hands of a single President, elected, as it results in practice, directly by the people. It might have intrusted this power to a committee of three or more persons, which would have opened a Pandora's box of political intrigue and trading, and would have destroyed that personal enthusiasm which is the only effective instrument for moving multitudes. It might have made that President or that committee elective by Congress, in which case either would have represented the will of Congress and not the will of the nation, which the experience of the century is showing more and more to be totally different things. It did give us that, like which there is nothing else in the world, and which contains untold possibilities for the future.

How important it is is shown by the two recent conventions. Perhaps there have been none in which meaner and more selfish intrigues were aiming to control the nominations, yet they were swept away like reeds; and necessity, for any chance of success with the people, compelled the prompt nomination of at least the two most respectable candidates who were available. It is hardly entering upon party politics to say that there is in the century of our history hardly a case of more complete poetic justice than the pulverization of Mr. Blaine.

What is the reason of the certainly well-grounded complaint of foreigners that our Presidential elections have no meaning? The simple one is that, having elected a chief magistrate, we proceed to tie his hands and feet. Consider for a moment that this man, elected, and the only one elected, by sixty millions of people, has no direct power over legislation or financial policy, and but very little over administration, which is the outcome of both. Neither of himself nor by any of his chosen officials, has he any voice in shaping the measures of government. That is left to four hundred local representatives, any one of whom has more power in the matter than the President himself, unless the latter chooses to compete in the intrigues of the lobby. Mr. Cleveland probably owes his nomination, and will owe his election, as much as anything to his bold and ringing message on the tariff, and will probably follow it up with another. But, after all, it is only a general expression of opinion, endorsed, no doubt, by the country, but which does nothing towards settling the details upon which the whole question turns. The lobby will continue to govern the country after as before, and so this superb machinery of the Presidency is brought to naught, at least in its objective working, by the grasping ambition of Congress, which hugs its own anarchy and refuses to submit to leaders.

Imagine a President who should address a message not to Congress but to the country, saying to the people in substance: "You have sent me here upon a policy of tariff reform. It is impossible for me to do anything about the matter unless I am authorized to place before Congress a definite measure embodying your and my opinions in detail, and can have an opportunity, through the Secretary of the Treasury, of explaining and defending it before the country. Will you require Congress to receive such a measure?"

How long would it be before that body received a mandate to which it would be compelled to yield? G. B.

Boston, June 25, 1892.

THE RUSSIAN PROFESSORSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is a legitimate question: What is the province of a professor of foreign languages? If it is to inculcate accurate pronunciation, then by all means have only native incumbents. But there is something far more important than that: it is the ability to teach and inspire.

It is the experience of many graduates of colleges that foreign tutors and professors, no matter how learned they may have been, failed in appreciating what their students required. Not having had to learn the language themselves, they could not supply the help which one "not to the manner born" would almost instinctively afford. Who would not prefer to study German, French, Italian, or Spanish with men like Longfellow or Lowell than with any foreign professors that could be named? Students who expect to learn to speak a foreign language must go elsewhere than to the class-room.

Even were a Russian imported to act as professor in some American university, there would be no absolute security that he would be able accurately to pronounce Polish, Bohemian, Wendish, and all the other dialects of Slavonic. If he came from Kieff, he might even pronounce Russian with a Little Russian accent! There would be a large chance, moreover, that he would not understand American wants, and would make as ghastly a failure as Prof. Ko made at Harvard in teaching Chinese.

There is still another point. A professor of Russian would not be likely to be overrun with pupils. A large part of his time would be naturally given to study and research. To any one who has looked into the matter there offer many inviting fields of study—philology, art, poetry—which a man with the leisure granted by such a position might exploit. Would not an American who had been educated for several years in Russia be better

qualified to do good work in these branches than a Russian who would be disqualified from writing idiomatic English?

There is no occasion for any jealousy in the matter. There is room for a dozen to work: the more the merrier. It would be interesting, for instance, if two universities should establish chairs of Russian, one filled by a native, the other by such a man, for instance, as the Hon. Jeremiah Curtin, who not only speaks Russian almost like a native, but is acquainted with Polish and many dialects besides of the noble Slavonic language. It would then be soon easy to see which would be the most successful in attracting students or in furnishing the English-speaking world with a knowledge of the sealed books of the East.

Enthusiasm, good temper, and the genius of teaching are more important than a mere name. NATHAN HASKELL DOLE.

BOSTON, June 21, 1892.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of June 16 there is to be found a discussion by Miss Isabel F. Hapgood on the Russian professorship.* I heartily concur with her in advising a careful selection of a professor of Russian; but I must guard the readers of the *Nation* against an erroneous impression which the exalted requirements of the article must produce. A professor of Russian must, above all, be conversant with the Russian language and literature; for the rest, he need possess only a philological and not necessarily a linguistic knowledge of the other Slavic tongues. Do we ask of a professor of German that he should speak or even read Icelandic, Swedish, Anglo-Saxon, Dutch, etc.? Of course not. I can think of only one professor at a European university who speaks fluently three Slavic languages, and that is the great philologist, Prof. Miklositch of Vienna; in fact, the seat of comparative Slavic philology is not in Russia, but in Austria. Miss Hapgood says that the professor in question ought to know, among other things, Servian, Croatian, and Montenegrin. Now Miss Hapgood ought to know that Montenegrin is a mere dialectic form of the Serbian, and that Croatian is treated by nearly all philologists as one with Serbian. One might with equal propriety demand that a professor of German should speak English, American English, and Tennessee English. Further, a knowledge of the Russian dialects is said to be needed. I confess I am at a loss in trying to define such dialects, as the Russian is almost free from dialectic differences. The Ruthenian is, indeed, a distinct dialect, but the study of it is discouraged in Russia for political reasons.

The Russian language is not such a bugbear as some would like to make it; it is scarcely more difficult than Greek. The verb offers no more difficulties than the Hebrew verb, and I have known foreigners who have made very creditable progress in it. There is a chair of Russian at the University of Oxford, ably filled by Prof. Morfill, and I see no reason why an American university could not be successful in establishing a chair for Slavic languages. L. S. WIENER

(A Russian).

KANSAS CITY, Mo., June 24, 1892.

Notes.

MR. R. L. GARNER, who will shortly visit Africa for the purpose of studying in the open the language of apes, will first bring out, through Charles L. Webster & Co., a work embodying his researches on 'The Speech of Monkeys' in confinement, which have already been reported in divers periodicals.

'German and English Sounds,' by C. H. Grandgent, illustrated with diagrams, is in the press of Ginn & Co., Boston.

A new and extensively revised edition of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' will in no long time be issued by Macmillan & Co. It will, of course, be copyrighted in America.

A 'Life of Ethan Allen,' by the late Henry Hall, will be published at once by D. Appleton & Co.

'A History of Peru,' by Clements R. Markham, will introduce the series on the Latin-American Republics projected by Charles H. Sergel & Co.

A work on novel lines, for schools and for the general reader, is 'England and Its Rulers,' by H. Pomeroy Brewster and Geo. H. Humphrey, shortly to be issued by S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, who also announce 'Columbus: An Epic Poem,' by Samuel Jefferson, and 'A Phrase Book of Eclectic Shorthand,' by J. G. Cross.

Roberts Bros. send us two more volumes of their very taking edition of Jane Austen, viz., 'Mansfield Park.' From Harper & Bros. we have the eighth edition of Mr. Laurence Hutton's 'Literary Landmarks of London,' revised in the plates and also supplemented with notes, many of them recording the demolition of old buildings since the first appearance of this work, and one citing Prof. Lounsbury's destructive comments on the Chaucer legends recorded in the text. The publishers have inserted a number of full-page portraits, of varied excellence, but in the sum an enhancement of the value of the work. Macmillan & Co. have brought out still another reprint of the first editions of Dickens's novels, this time of 'Nicholas Nickleby,' with the usual historical and bibliographical introduction by the younger Dickens, with Phiz's illustrations, and with copies of lithographic stage pictures fr m the dramatization of the story. We can but repeat that the cheapness of this series, its excellent typography, and the editorial apparatus should insure it a very wide popularity. The Clarendon Press has very properly undertaken a second edition of the late Mark Pattison's 'Isaac Casaubon,' the first (published by the Messrs. Longman) being out of print. We judged the work, on its appearance, "a model of biography," and it has been bettered in sundry details with the aid of manuscript additions and corrections left by the author, and by the suggestions of friends. The American publishers are Macmillan & Co.

The methods of building construction in iron and steel are well shown in the second volume of Berg's 'Safe Building' (Boston: Ticknor & Co.), the first volume of which we noticed when it appeared some years ago. Like the first, this is made up of articles which were printed in the *American Architect*. It covers ground on which no one can venture a step in practice without special knowledge, and which Mr. Berg had treated but slightly before; consequently he has followed out his subject with minuteness, giving most attention to riveted work, which preponderates in modern building because of its ease of construction, and which has its peculiar risks. The same care and thoroughness that gave value to the former volume appear in this.

For the seventeenth time MM. Édouard Noël and Edmond Stoullig have sent forth their year-book of music and the drama in Paris, *Les Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique* (Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern). As on former occasions, they have asked some celebrity of the dramatic or musical world to prepare a preface, this year M. Gustave Larroumet, one of the most learned and acute of French dramatic critics. He devotes himself to a defence of Eugène Scribe, in the course of which he incidentally sets forth more than one of the underlying principles of the dramatic art. Confessing frankly Scribe's deficiencies as a man of letters, he exhibits Scribe's surpassing skill as a man of the theatre. The book which this brilliant paper precedes resembles its predecessors, for as a whole the year 1891 was much like the two or three years just before it; but that the French theatre is alive and vigorous, these four hundred solid pages testify abundantly.

The meeting of the American Institute of Mining Engineers often affords opportunity for the preparation of instructive handbooks. The most recent of these is the 'Guidebook of Baltimore,' for the meeting of last February. The novel element of the book is a contoured map of the region around Baltimore, colored for the geological formations, being a reproduction of one of the first sheets thus prepared by the National Geological Survey. The field-work required for it was done by Prof. G. H. Williams of Johns Hopkins University and N. H. Darton of the Survey. This is hardly a matter of popular interest, as the structure of the region is complicated; but geologists must welcome the publication of such a map as giving good promise of what may be expected for the country at large when the many sheets that are to follow it come to be issued with frequency.

Mr. Henry Gannett's paper on "The Mother Maps of the United States" has been reprinted from the *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington). It briefly enumerates the several Government, State, and private surveys which have furnished the material for original maps, and then indicates what portion of the country can be mapped on the scale of 1, 2, 4, 8, and 16 miles to an inch, respectively. On the largest scale named only four States can be mapped, namely, New Jersey, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts. The scale of two miles to an inch is that on which the Geological Survey is systematically at work, and a scattered area of 460,000 square miles, or from a fifth to a sixth of the whole country, has thus been mapped. Omitting Alaska, which is yet in the stage of exploration, all but about 225,000 square miles of the United States can be mapped on a scale of sixteen miles to an inch—the scale adopted by the Geographic Congress for mapping the whole earth. Mr. Gannett summarizes his data in tabular form, and also graphically on a colored map. It is noticeable how extensively the Appalachian region from the Pennsylvania line southward has been mapped by the Geological Survey, for obvious material reasons.

From the same magazine has been extracted Mr. Harry Fielding Reid's "Studies of Muir Glacier, Alaska," the fruit of an expedition in 1890 prompted by Prof. Wright's description of the glacier in his 'Ice Age in North America.' "Glacier Bay offers the luxury of exploration," says Mr. Reid, owing to its being in weekly communication with the rest of the world by steamship service. A hundred years ago he thinks it might have been in large part filled with ice from the several glaciers, which are now rapidly retreating—Muir Glacier at the rate of a mile in seven years. Mr. Reid's map will be invaluable for noting future changes. His paper, which is written in a

popular style and is interesting reading, is accompanied by numerous striking photographic views of mountain, ice-stream, and buried forest.

The Boston municipal authorities have printed, forty years after date, the 4th of July oration delivered before their predecessors in 1852 by the Rev. Thomas Starr King. The theme, "The Organization of Liberty on the Western Continent," was actually handled without an allusion to slavery, and this makes the oration a real curiosity to-day. Mr. King's subsequent transplanting to the Pacific Coast had, as is well known, important effects in preserving that section to the Union on the outbreak of the slaveholders' rebellion. The pamphlet may be had of Alvah H. Peters, City Messenger, at the Boston City Hall, on application from libraries and collectors.

The June number of the *Inland Printer* (Chicago) contains a report of the banquet given by their employees to the proprietors of the De Vinne Press, on April 30, in acknowledgment of the voluntary profit-sharing allowed upon the business of the past year. The spectacle is not a pleasing one to trade unions; but no one can read Mr. Theodore L. De Vinne's words of honest tribute to his associates and frank discussion of labor controversies without being thankful that here is an establishment where the walking delegate has no occupation, though he must often look through the grille with longing to disturb the happiness within.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us an imperial panel photograph of Prof. Richard T. Ely of Johns Hopkins University, and an equally speaking but smaller likeness of the late Father Mollinger of faith-cure notoriety.

—In *La Réforme Sociale* for June 1, M. Albert Bordeaux, a mining engineer resident in Bosnia, has an interesting article on the condition of that country under Austrian domination. By the treaty of Berlin, of July 13, 1878, Bosnia, which had been for four centuries one of the provinces of the Ottoman Empire, passed, together with Herzegovina, under the Austrian rule, only a nominal overlordship being left to Turkey. According to M. Bordeaux, the change has been an unmixed benefit, and there is promise of much greater improvement in the future. At the time of the Turkish conquest, the feudal landlords abandoned the Christian faith and became Moslems in order to preserve their estates and privileges, while the tillers of the soil remained Christians and were, in time, reduced to the lowest social stage. Their methods of agriculture were of the most primitive description, while, at the same time, they groaned under a crushing burden of taxation and disqualification. Attempts at reform, principally by abolishing feudal conditions, were made by the Turkish Government in 1859, but were never sincerely enforced by the local authorities, and resulted in no amelioration of the lot of the masses. Even during the first four years of the Austrian domination, the improvement was not perceptible. Since the rising of 1882, however, the Austrian Government has made remarkable progress in organizing the administration of justice on an equitable basis, in rendering life and property secure, in making taxes payable in money instead of in kind, in facilitating communication by building roads (the labor being performed by soldiers), in suppressing brigandage; in short, in converting a feudal State into a modern community. M. Bordeaux goes into some detail in describing the moral improvement in matters pertaining to religion and popular education, and anticipates that much more will be accomplished in the near future. He says that the House of Austria is becoming an Eastern Power, having already more Slavic subjects than it has subjects of any other nationality. The figures as he gives them are: 17,500,000 Slavs, as against 6,000,000 Magyars, 10,000,000 Germans, and 3,600,000 Latins. It should not be forgotten, however, that, for the present at least, the Magyars hold the political balance of power.

— The June Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with the annual address of Sir M. E. Grant Duff, in which he dwelt especially upon the need of a greater attention to the study of geography in the schools and universities. In order to obtain the necessary time, he advocates the giving up of Greek and Latin composition "as a piece of regular school business," saying that "this bears much the same relation to serious intellectual pursuits as does to the proper works and ways of an intelligent dog the art of jumping through a hoop filled with paper, or that of balancing on his nose a piece of biscuit till he is told that it is 'paid for.'" This is followed by an account of a journey in central Peru by Mr. A. Ross, made with a view to reporting upon its suitability to tropical agriculture. An interesting discussion took place when the paper was read before the Society, in the course of which the Consul-General of Peru claimed that in the northern department of Piura, where it rains once in seven years, cotton yields "two crops, maize four crops, potatoes three crops, coffee and tobacco two crops, a year, and in addition to the quantity you have the quality." Lord Donoughmore referred to the fact that on the sugar plantations of the coast, which is practically rainless, where there is a system of artificial irrigation, so far as sugar cultivation goes you are independent. "You can put your water on the fields when you like and take it off when you like, and plant in any month of the year, reap in any month of the year, and keep your mill going all the year round." Mr. Clements R. Markham dwelt especially on the excellence and value of the products of the country, *e. g.*, rubber and the Peruvian bark, which sells for twice as much as Indian bark. He paid a high tribute to the capacity of the Incas Indians, who are among the most skilful shepherds and farmers the world has ever seen. After centuries of patient and skilful care they domesticated the alpaca, "producing the most silky fleeces that are known." They developed the potato, and have brought maize to such perfection that "one cob of Cuzco maize is equal to five or six of any other kind." And lately they have produced the coca, whose cultivation and curing requires the utmost care and skill. What the country most needs is a larger agricultural population, and more and better roads communicating both with the Pacific Coast and with the navigable affluents of the Amazons. Mr. Markham also contributes a highly appreciative and well-deserved tribute to the late Prof. E. A. Freeman, with especial relation to his services to geography.

—In 'Tanganyika' (London: E. Stanford), Mr. E. C. Hore gives an account of eleven years of pioneer missionary work in Central Africa. A sailor by profession, he devotes himself wholly to descriptions of the practical side of missionary life, the long journeys through the wilderness, the founding of stations, intercourse with the natives, and voyages upon the great lake which he was the first to explore thoroughly. His book is marked by the frank hopefulness characteristic of men of his calling, as well as by the appreciation of what is good in his fellows. The interior natives, for instance, are "neither evil nor degraded," and there is a cordial recognition of the numerous services of the Arabs to the mission, and especially of the much decried Tippu Tib. The few references to the Roman Catholics who, coming later here as in Uganda, must be regarded as intruders, show a kindly feeling very different from that which unfortunately now prevails in the latter kingdom. There is an interesting chapter on Lake Tanganyika or "mixture," in which it is shown to be the "heart of Africa," geographically, politically, and ethnographically. In its surrounding heights are the sources of three of the four great continental rivers, the Nile, the Congo, and the Zambesi. Its shores are not only the meeting-point of the possessions of Great Britain, Germany, and the Congo Free State, but they are the home of twelve tribes, the typical representatives of the aboriginal African races. From Mr. Hore's story we should conclude that the work of the mission has been largely of a civilizing and educating, rather than of a distinctively religious, character. Among other things a steamer, fifty-four feet long, has been transported with immense pains over nearly a thousand miles of roadless wilderness, and successfully launched upon the lake, where it is used in the service of white and black alike.

—Among the "Études Romanes" dedicated by his pupils to Gaston Paris on the twenty-fifth anniversary of his *doctorat ès lettres*, was one by Alexandre Beljame on the curious subject of the pronunciation of the name of John Law, the financier of the South Sea Bubble. "We write it *Law*," says Prof. Beljame, "and we pronounce it *Lass*," though the *aw* sound presents no difficulty to the French vocal organs, and has its equivalent in *mort*, *sort*, *dort*, *tort*, etc. Saint-Simon records the change to "Las," without offering any other explanation than Law's greater notoriety at the time. Louis Moland, the editor of Voltaire, surmised that the possessive "Law's" was so often heard from his English financial associates speaking of his "system" that the genitive was finally mistaken for a nominative. M. Beljame shows that the pronunciation was in vogue in France before the "system" was advertised; and as the form "Lav" is wanting in the various documentary spellings, he concludes that the name was *heard* before it was read. His researches were directed aright by a letter of Steele's addressed "To Mr. John Laws at Paris, Aug. 12, 1719," and he then discovered this form in several places, in manuscript and in print, sometimes accompanied by the ordinary form. Both usages, he is able to prove, prevailed in Law's time. The legal form was "Law," as is evidenced by the birth-register of the financier, and by his invariable signature without the *s*. This suffix, in a great many instances in England, furnishes doublets like Adam and Adams, Andrew and Andrews, Brook and Brooks, Edward and Edwards, etc., and denotes a true genitive signifying "son of," so that "*Laws* is equivalent to *Lawson*." M. Beljame closes his agreeable little monograph by justifying the retention of the French pronunciation *Lass*, especially now that the reason of it is apparent. As a survival of an old Scotch (rather than English) pronunciation, he likens it to the English *Bi'veur* for Belvoir, "souvenir d'une ancienne prononciation française." The pamphlet bears the imprint of Émile Bouillon, Paris.

—Franz Liszt, in his delightful essay on Robert Franz (now incorporated in his 'Gesammelte Schriften,' vol. iv., pp. 207-244), refers to the remarkable fact that America anticipated Europe in the formation of a circle devoted to the songs of Franz—Schubert's greatest successor. This honor was won for America chiefly through the devotion of the late Otto Dresel, at one time Boston's leading pianist. He was a personal friend and enthusiastic admirer of Franz, whom he assisted in the task of writing additional accompaniments to Bach and Handel scores. His pianoforte score of the "Messiah" is based on Franz's edition, and is the best in the market. Of original works Dresel did not compose many, the best being a collection of songs—'Lieder-Album'—just issued by Breitkopf & Härtel (Leipzig and New York). This album includes twenty songs, with German and English words in each case; and for Americans there is this advantage, that some of the *Lieder* were composed to English words. Mr. Dresel's songs cannot be too highly commended to amateurs and professionals. They betray the influence of Franz so strongly that one might often fancy he was listening to a new song by that immortal composer; just as Franz himself constantly suggests Bach in his best mood. Note, for instance, how Dresel's exquisite "O Listen, My Darling," suggests Franz's "Wonne der Wehmuth." There are many other jewels in the collection. Breitkopf & Härtel have also sent us a collection of five "Liebeslieder," by Heinrich Zöllner, praise of which must, however, be pitched in a much lower key. Zöllner is not happy in his modulations.

GEORGE MASON.—II.

The Life of George Mason, 1725-1792. By Kate Mason Rowland. Including his Speeches, Public Papers, and Correspondence. With an introduction by Gen. Fitzhugh Lee. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1892.

We have seen that, in many of his political opinions, George Mason was far in advance of the common mind among his contemporaries. He had the large discourse of reason which looks before and after. A man of thrift and a slaveholder, he had philosophic insight to see that slavery was as bad in economics as in ethics. He began his economical agitation against slavery as early as 1765, when, in the preface to "a scheme for replevying goods under distress," he expounded the policy of encouraging the importation of free people and discouraging that of slaves. His denunciation of the effect which slavery had on social life and manners was persistent, running as it does through his writings and speeches from 1765 to 1788; and it was so vehement that Miss Rowland feels called to explain to us that George Mason was "no abolitionist." Certainly he was no abolitionist, but John Wesley never said harder things against slavery. Miss Rowland suggests, by way of exception to the sweeping generality of his statements, that he offered in his own courtly person a contradiction of his thesis that "slavery produces the most pernicious effect on manners." If, as Jefferson said, he sometimes dashed his speeches with "cynicism," it may have been a disdain which sprang from a lofty sense of his own personal honor, rather than from contempt for others. If, as Madison thought, the chafe and friction of "little circumstances" in the Federal Convention, arising from impatience of cross opinions in debate, "conspired to whet his acrimony" against the Constitution, it is certain that he proved the sincerity of his opinions as much by the sacrifices he made for them as by the earnestness with which he maintained them.

There are a few things in which the conduct of Mason in the Federal Convention seems scarcely consistent with his general character and antecedents, except on the suspicion that he may have sometimes played the part of a *Frondeur*, and put himself in opposition for opposition's sake. He moved to strike out the clause prohibiting bills of attainder and ex-post-facto laws. He thought bills of attainder had saved the British Constitution! He was unwilling to see the hands of Congress tied against the passage of legal-tender laws, though, as passed by the States, he held them to be the offspring of delusion or fraud. He favored an express provision for the Congressional enactment of sumptuary laws, under color of which the Federal Legislature might have controlled the dress and food of every man, woman, and child in the United States. It would seem that the power of paternalism could no further go. Yet this tribune of the people supposed himself to be the special champion of personal liberty and State rights.

George Mason took little part in public affairs after the ratification of the Constitution. He was appointed to the Senate of the United States after the death of Grayson, but he refused to serve. He naturally drifted away from Washington after the sharp cleavage of their opinions on the subject of the Constitution. They did not come to an open rupture of personal relations, but Washington now called him a "quondam friend." It was natural that as a soured patriot he should soon despair of the republic. In a letter to Jefferson in the early part of 1791, after less than two years of Federalism under the Administration of Washington, he expressed the opinion that there was even then "a particular circumstance, little attended to, which was constantly sapping the republicanism of the United States." Jefferson wrote to ask what this "particular circumstance" was, and as the reply of Mason is lost, Miss Rowland thinks that "for us there is no answer to the query," though she suspects that Mason was hinting dispraise of the Judiciary Act of 1789. It seems to us that the query can be easily answered by a reference to the writings and speeches of Mason as here preserved for us by his accomplished biographer. The "particular circumstance" to which he adverted as being "little attended to," could not have been the Judiciary Act, for that "abomination" of Federalism was constantly looming in the eyes of the Virginian Republicans. We cannot doubt that what seemed to Mason at that moment so menacing to republican simplicity in the United States, was the reëligibility and the actual reëlection of executive and legislative officers alike, under the Federal and the State Governments, so far as opportunity had offered under the new régime. When the section in the Constitution relating to the office and duties of the Federal executive came up for discussion in the Virginia Convention of 1788, Mason used in that body the identical phrase which he now used in writing to Jefferson, and it was to this vice of Presidential reëligibility that he pointed as opening a sap and mine under the very muniments of republicanism. He said: "There is not a more important article in the Constitution than this [the section relating to the office of the President]: the great fundamental principle of responsibility in republicanism is here sapped. The President is elected without rotation. . . . Nothing is so essential to the preservation of republican government as a periodical rotation. . . . It is a great defect in the Senate that they are not ineligible at the end of six years."

This maxim of republicanism was so fundamental in the political dogmatics of George Mason that when the Fairfax Military Company, "composed entirely of gentlemen," was organized at the outbreak of the Revolution, he insisted that all its officers, with the exception of its captain (George Washington), should be newly elected every year. In a constitution drawn up by him for the government of the company, he propounded the following as a universal doctrine: "Wherever any military establishment, or authority, is not by some certain mode of rotation dissolved and blended with the mass from which it was taken, inevitable destruction to the State follows." In the Federal Convention he held it as "an essential point for the preservation of the rights of the people—as the very palladium of civil liberty—that the great officers of state, and particularly the executive, should at fixed periods return to that mass from which they were at first taken." In the Virginia Convention he did but strike the same keynote with a shriller tone, and in view of the fact that all his trumpet-calls had passed unheeded by the American people, he now sounded his alarm in the ears of Jefferson. Jefferson had been absent in Europe while Mason was inveighing against the Constitution. How sincerely Jefferson sympathized with him in this opinion is now known to us all. That George Mason should have mourned in 1791 that this "particular circumstance" was so "little attended to," is easily explained when we remember that in spite of the iteration with which he pressed it, and in spite of the embodiment which he procured for it in the proposition of amendments to the Constitution as made by the Virginia Convention, only two other States could be brought to take any notice of this peril.

We observe that Miss Rowland dismisses as a fable the newspaper story that George Mason, on passing through the town of Alexandria (Va.) on his return from the Philadelphia Convention in 1887, was waited upon by the Mayor and corporation with a notification that "they did *not* come to return him their thanks for his conduct in refusing to sign the Federal Constitution, but to express their abhorrence of it," and with the advice that he should withdraw from the town within an hour, as they could not answer for his safety from an enraged populace. Miss Rowland thinks that the story cannot be true, because George Mason was too much respected by the Mayor and corporation of Alexandria to have received any such treatment, and because neither Gen. Washington nor Mason himself makes any allusion to the alleged incident. But it seems to us, without venturing any positive opinion in the premises, that the "probabilities" of the story are to be measured not so much by the respect in which the Alexandrians had once undoubtedly held the statesman of Gunston Hall, as by the admiring reverence they cherished for Gen. Washington, and by the resentment they were likely to feel at the reflection on him implied in Mason's harsh denunciation of the document which Washington was known to advocate. The county of Fairfax, in which Washington and Mason resided, elected Federalists to the Convention, and Mason, as a candidate for the Convention, was compelled to look for his election to another county than that in which he lived. It is true that Washington makes no distinct reference to such an incident, but he does tell

us that Mason's conduct in the Federal Convention was "reprobated" in his neighborhood ("in this country"), and Mr. Madison recites in a letter to Jefferson about this time that Mason's conduct had given "great umbrage in the County of Fairfax, *and particularly in the town of Alexandria.*" This latter statement shows that, according to Madison's information, there had been some particular manifestation of "unpleasantness" on the part of that town. And if there had been no demonstration of Mason's unpopularity in Alexandria in 1787 and 1788, how does Miss Rowland account for the genesis of the story which she recounts on page 210 in her second volume, and which sounds like an echo of the earlier legend? She doubtless knows that the earlier story had a wide dissemination in the newspaper press of the time, and is not found alone in the journal which she cites. The incident, whether true or false, has no value whatsoever for its bearing on the real greatness of Mason, but it may have an interest as showing the "pillar of cloud" which overhung the steps of "the fathers" in this transition epoch of the republic. It is in this sense alone that the story is worthy of any special wonder.

We are pleased to find that the acute mind of George Mason was early puzzled by the same problem in social and political dynamics to which we have more than once called the attention of our readers, without taking time for its formal discussion. We refer to the question why it was that a social democracy in New England produced the most inveterate type of aristocratic politics ever known in our country, and why it was that a social aristocracy in Virginia produced a democratic order of Federal politics at the very beginning of our history under the Constitution. After his first contact with the delegates composing the Federal Convention, he writes as follows to one of his sons under date of May 20, 1787:

> "What is a very extraordinary phenomenon, we are likely to find the Republicans on this occasion issue from the Southern and Middle States and the anti-Republicans from the Eastern. However extraordinary this may at first seem, it may, I think, be accounted for from a very common and natural impulse of the human mind. Men disappointed in expectations too hastily and sanguinely formed, tired and disgusted with the unexpected evils they have experienced, and anxious to remove them as far as possible, are very apt to run into the opposite extreme; and the people of the Eastern States, setting out with more republican principles, have consequently been more disappointed than we have been."

This solution is drawn simply from a view of facts lying on the surface of recent events, and, besides being in itself, as it seems to us, a hasty and insufficient induction, was perhaps confirmed in Mason's mind by the outgivings of his sympathetic friend and political confederate, Elbridge Gerry. Certain it is that we find Gerry confessing, in the confidence of the Federal Convention debates (as recorded by Madison), that he had at one time "been too republican," but that he had been taught by experience (referring, we presume, to the Shays rebellion) "the danger of the levelling spirit." In fact, we must look much deeper than all this for any adequate explanation of such a curious double antithesis in our national politics. Mason's and Gerry's solution answers only one branch of the compound problem, and leaves unexplained the still more puzzling fact that it was the Southern social system which, in spite of its aristocratic structure, produced "Jeffersonian simplicity" and "Jacksonian vulgarity," as they were called on a notable occasion. We have our views on this subject, but their discussion here would lead us too far afield at the heel of this review.

Miss Rowland certainly does not expect that all her readers will concur with her when she says that the Virginia Convention, by the form under which it ratified the Constitution, "declared the right of secession, as a correlative of accession, for all the thirteen sovereignties." It is known that the Convention, in its formula of ratification, "declared and made known, in the name and in the behalf of the people of Virginia, that the powers granted under the Constitution, being derived from the people of the United States, be resumed by them whensoever the same shall be perverted to their injury or oppression." From the fact that the word "people," as here used, must be taken, with Mr. Madison, to mean "not the people as composing one great body, but the people as composing thirteen sovereignties," Miss Rowland infers that the right of separate State secession is involved in the formula not only as a necessary implication, but as being expressed "in unmistakable terms." That Miss Rowland should make this deduction for all it may be worth in political hermeneutics, or that she should draw it *arguendo*, as the lawyers say, seems to us quite legitimate in what John Taylor of Caroline would call "construction construed"; but, as a matter of cold history, this interpretation of the formula was distinctly repudiated at the time the formula was adopted. We have the express statement of Madison to this effect—a statement not made in after years, when South Carolina politicians were trying to read this interpretation between the lines of the formula, but a statement made by Madison at a date when the ink with which the formula was written had hardly had time to grow dry. Madison, it is known, immediately after the Virginia Convention had adjourned, hastened to New York, and there resumed his seat in the Continental Congress. Alexander Hamilton, sore bestead at Poughkeepsie in his battle for the Constitution against an overwhelming anti-Federalist majority in the New York Convention, wrote to Madison on the 19th of July, 1788, to ask if it would not be possible to ratify the Constitution "with the reservation of a right to recede, in case our [the New York] amendments have not been decided upon . . . within a certain number of years." Madison immediately replied that "the idea of reserving the right to withdraw had been started at Richmond," in the convention called to sit on the Constitution, and had been "abandoned as worse than rejection." "The Constitution," he added, "requires an adoption *in toto* and forever. It has been so adopted by the other States. An adoption for a limited time would be as defective as an adoption of some of the articles only." Such was the understanding alike of the friends and of the enemies of the Constitution in 1788. It was this understanding which inspired its friends to work so earnestly for its ratification. It was this understanding which inspired its enemies to work so earnestly against its ratification. "The battle of giants" in the Virginia Convention is made unintelligible on any other theory, and no other theory was ever propounded, so far as we are advised, until the exigencies of the Nullification controversy, as raised by South Carolina, seemed to call for the extremest doctrine of reserved rights in the individual "sovereignties." Madison, we know, always denied that this doctrine could be found in the "Resolutions of '98," with all the ambiguities which may be justly laid on their heads.

It was inevitable that there should be an occasional slip of the pen in a work so voluminous as that to which Miss Rowland has set her hand. Everybody sees that it is a mere slip of the pen when Councillor Carter of Nomini, so called because he was a member of the Governor's Council, is designated as "Counsellor Carter," on p. 90 in the first volume, or as when the name of John Dickinson of Pennsylvania is sometimes miswritten "Dickerson." We are a little surprised at the free use made of 'Yates's Minutes' of the Federal Convention, without any intimation, so far as we can recall, that their accuracy has been impeached at so many points as to make them practically valueless in disputed questions.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Practical Play-Writing and the Cost of Production. By Alfred C. Calmour. Bristol: J. W. Arrowsmith.

Les Recettes de Cuisine Théâtrales de M. Sésosthène Rabichon. Par Auguste Germain. Paris: Ernest Kolb; New York: F. W. Christern.

A Book of Burlesque. By W. Davenport Adams. [The Whitefriars Library of Wit and Humor.] London: Henry & Co.

Occasional Addresses. Collected by Laurence Hutton and William Carey. New York: The Dunlap Society.

Choses et Gens de Théâtre. Par Paul Ginisty. Paris: Didier; New York: F. W. Christern.

Études d'Histoire et de Critique Dramatiques. Par Gustave Larroumet. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.

Mr. Wm. Davenport Adams contributes a preface to 'Practical Play-Writing,' from which we learn that the author, Mr. A. C. Calmour, is an actor who has written and produced many plays. "Though he has secured most popular approval as a writer of plays written in verse and dealing with poetic *motifs*, he has had much practice in various dramatic methods, and has always devoted much attention to dramatic *technique*." One of his more or less poetic plays was acted a few years ago by Miss Ellen Terry; it was called "The Amber Heart." None of them has as yet been acted in the United States, so far as we know. His little paper on practical play-writing was written to be read at the Play-Goers' Club and also at Prof. Herkomer's School of Art at Bushey. It is scarcely more successful in showing the novice how to write a play than was Prof. Hennequin's elaborate treatise that we reviewed a year or two ago. It is less successful than the rather vulgar book which was reprinted from the London *Stage* four or five years ago as 'Playwriting.' What it contains of most value is derived from Mr. Pinero and Mr. Grundy, who have contributed letters each describing the writer's own methods of dramatic work. These letters may be compared profitably with those which M. Abraham Dreyfus extracted from the leading French dramatists and printed in the *Revue Bleue* several years ago. Of local interest to British dramatists only are Mr. Calmour's statements as to the cost of giving an experimental matinée of a new play in which its author may have faith enough to assume the expenses of setting it before the public. This method is more often adopted in London than in New York, and has its advantages, as Mr. Palmer proved when he gave his series of authors' matinées at the Madison Square Theatre four or five years ago;

but Mr. Calmour's statements show that the cost of introducing a play to the public for a single performance varies from three to five hundred dollars. Thus we see how great a disadvantage the aspiring dramatist is at when compared with the aspiring novelist. Perhaps, however, it is as well that the beginner should not back with his own money his own judgment as to the merits of his play or his book, preferably waiting until a manager or a publisher happens along who can "see money in it."

The advice of Mr. Calmour is meant to be practical. The advice of "M. Sésosthène Rabichon" is meant to be ironic. The recipes for the theatrical kitchen which M. Germain has put into a little pamphlet are "wrote sarcastic." M. Germain is not trying to help the new dramatist, but merely to discredit the old dramatist, the trained theatrical hack who knows all the tricks of the trade. His method is the familiar one: "How to make a Bowery drama: Take a villain double-dyed and a virtuous hero. Add a heroine. Drop in abundant low-comedy characters. Mix to taste," etc., etc. In this spirit and in this manner M. Germain makes fun of the "curtain-raiser," of the *vaudeville à quiproquos*, of comedy, of melodrama, and of all the other forms of the drama as they survive in France to-day. His hand is light and facile, but his tongue is bitter.

Mr. Adams has given to his 'Book of Burlesque' a sub-title: "Sketches of English Stage Travestie and Parody," and he accomplishes his purpose in ten chapters, in which he first outlines the "Beginnings of Burlesque," the "Knight of the Burning Pestle," the "Rehearsal," Fielding's "Tom Thumb," Carey's "Chrononhotonthologos," the "Critic," and "Bombastes Furioso." This brings him to the pieces of pleasantry which Planché wrote, light, easy, witty. Then he traces the slow and steady descent to "The New Burlesque," to which his final chapter is devoted and for which the obvious criticism is that it is most lugubriously unfunny. The New Burlesque is to be seen at its brightest and best in "Little Jack Sheppard" and in "Faust Up to Date," and in "Joan of Arc" and in "Monte Cristo, Junior"—strange productions all of them, rarely humorous, often vulgar, and yet delighting the British public for hundreds and hundreds of nights. Mr. Adams gives extracts from the dialogue of these witless and artless pieces, and they are enough to make mankind blush that such sorry stuff should cause a laugh anywhere out of a lunatic asylum. That they should be offered to the readers of a volume purporting to belong to a "Library of Wit and Humor" is a strange thing; it casts a light on George Eliot's saying that "a difference of taste in jests is a great strain on the affections."

The Dunlap Society has now existed five years, and among the fifteen publications which it has issued, three a year, are reprints of four plays, Tyler's "Contrast," Burk's "Bunker Hill," and Dunlap's "Father" and "André." Among them there are also single volumes devoted to T. A. Cooper, Charlotte Cushman, John Gilbert, and W. E. Burton, besides the most useful series of theatrical biographies contained in the three parts of Mr. William Winter's 'Brief Chronicles.' But none of the publications of the Society is more interesting or in its way more useful than the two volumes of poetical addresses delivered in various American theatres since the first one was opened not a century and a half ago. The volume of 'Opening Addresses' was edited by Mr. Laurence Hutton alone, but in the preparation of the volume of 'Occasional Addresses' he has had the assistance of Mr. William Carey. The verses here gathered together in chronological sequence begin with a poem written by Myles Cooper in 1773, and end with one written by Mr. G. P. Lathrop in 1890. Among the other poets are Sprague, Woodworth, G. P. Morris, A. B. Street, R. G. Conrad, Henry Timrod, John Brougham, Dr. Holmes, Mr. R. H. Stoddard, Mr. William Winter, Mr. George H. Jessop, and Mr. T. W. Parsons. Like all the publications of the Dunlap Society, 'Occasional Addresses' has been printed at the De Vinne Press, with the elegant simplicity for which that press is well known.

M. Paul Ginisty's volume is a haphazard collection of theatrical estrays—reviews of books, some of them, and newspaper articles called forth by some incident of the theatrical season, and even sketches in dialogue. There are nearly a score of them, all neatly turned, all light reading, and some of them worth reading. The best of them, or at least those of most interest, are on a show given by the Compagnie des Sots, on Lenau's "Faust," and on Mme. de Beaumarchais.

M. Larroumet's volume of studies in the history of dramatic literature is a book of another sort altogether. It is made up of articles on Œdipus, on Molière and Marivaux, on Shakspere in France, on Beaumarchais, and on kindred topics, reprinted from the *Revue des Deux Mondes* and from the excellent *Revue Bleue*, all of them marked by solid knowledge and a charming style. Like M. Sarcey and M. Lemaitre, M. Larroumet is a scholar first of all, and, like them, he is intensely fond of the theatre. To him the drama is as a living thing which he loves; therefore he is always investigating its past and always curious as to its future. Perhaps to the general reader in the United States the most interesting of his papers is that on Shakspere, originally delivered as a lecture before the fifty-eighth performance of "Much Ado about Nothing" at the Odéon in 1888. Those among us who think that the Germans are the only foreigners who appreciate Shakspere might read this paper with advantage—and no doubt with surprise.

From the Arctic Ocean to the Yellow Sea. By Julius M. Price, F.R.G.S. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892.

Records of Siberian travel can hardly, as yet, be considered a drug in the market, but they threaten to rival, in number and in the diversity of views which they express, the works of travel in Africa. Mr. Price accompanied the expedition to the river Yenisei which started from London in July, 1890, with the object of continuing Capt. Wiggins's experiment of 1887—the establishment of a direct line of commerce between England and Siberia through the Kara Sea. In spite of the two unsuccessful attempts to pass the ice, made during the summers of 1888 and 1889, the feasibility of this route may be considered as demonstrated by the trip of the *Biscaya*, on which Mr. Price sailed as correspondent of the London *Illustrated News*, provided a mild season and good fortune supplement the skill of the mariners. That it can never be relied upon as a great commercial highway seems to be proved with equal clearness. Mr. Price's graphic narrative of the dangers, difficulties, and peculiarities of the voyage to Yeniseisk demonstrate this, and remind us of the fact that gallant Capt. Wiggins and his companions on an earlier voyage were shipwrecked and forced to walk a very long distance, amid arctic cold and privations, before they reached help.

The book is founded on the correspondent's letters to the *Illustrated News*, and is, in substance, practically identical with them. Naturally, the reader expects a partisan discussion of the exile system as soon as the writer has fairly landed in Siberia, but all intention to furnish this is distinctly disavowed in the preface; and after noting the author's really impartial and sensible observations on other points which fell under his eye, we cannot refrain from placing a good deal of reliance upon his occasional remarks on the convicts and the system, although they do not coincide with many assertions which have previously been made. As an instance of his discrimination, even when he first arrives in the land and does not thoroughly grasp the situation, we may quote his experience in sketching and painting the peasant family at Kasanskoi. The man understood what was wanted of him, and sat quite rigid while Mr. Price sketched him, after having examined the cottage in detail without interference. When the artist spent the whole of the following day in painting the assembled family, the children were forbidden to talk loud or to go near him; every one went on with his occupations in a way to disturb him as little as possible; no one even showed any curiosity to see the result; and, to crown all, the peasant host prepared a repast of tea and cakes to refresh him in the afternoon. As he suggests, that sort of cavalier proceeding on the part of a stranger, in the midst of an English family, and that sort of treatment following, cannot be imagined. His error consists in attributing their conduct and their lack of curiosity to stolid indifference. Had this not been his first experience with a Russian peasant family, he would have recognized the fact that their conduct arose from inborn kindliness and courtesy.

On numerous occasions, the authorities, voluntarily or on request, furnished Mr. Price with complete facilities for inspecting prisons and prison hospitals. He remarks, after the first of these occasions: "So far as I could judge, the criminals of Siberia have little to complain of. They pass their forced seclusion in absolute idleness, if they so wish, for the work they do, if any, is voluntary. Eating and sleeping, they while away the time as best they can, like so many caged beasts." On another occasion, he notes the remarkable fact that the prisoners are allowed to keep their pet dogs, cats, and pigeons, and are at perfect liberty inside the prison walls. Educated men, who have occupied good positions, and are guilty only of forgery or of petty misappropriations, are not obliged to associate with common criminals, but, though they travel with the same gang, they are kept apart, and may travel in their own conveyance if they have the money to pay for it, and are provided with a room to themselves at the *étapes*.

There is much which deserves quotation, but one of the most significant passages, which cannot be omitted, is the following:

"How any writer who has actually seen a gang of criminal exiles on the march can describe it as a pathetic sight, beats me; and my only astonishment is that convicts of other countries are not also spoken of in the same sentimental way, for they are probably worse off than Siberian criminals, who, as a matter of fact, have a much better time of it, *considering their crimes*, than they would have anywhere else, barring, of course, the trifling discomfort of

having to 'foot it' the whole distance if they are able. If they are footsore or lame, they are permitted to ride on one of the baggage conveyances. The more I learn about the prisoners' life, either on the road or in the *ostrogs* [prisons], the more astonished I am at the humane way in which they are treated, and how little is really known of it in the outer world. I am not referring to the system as a whole, which I am not only convinced is a wrong but a demoralizing one, but to minor details, which show a kindly feeling on the part of the authorities which is somewhat unexpected. For instance, all Jews or Mohammedans receive ten kopeks per day, both on the road and when in prison, so that they can purchase their own food and have it cooked according to their belief, the food and cooking being looked after by one of their own religion deputed by themselves. In a country where it is said that the Jews are so persistently persecuted by the authorities, this comes as rather an astounding revelation, in my opinion. I know nothing whatever about prison life in England, but I am anxious to know whether we treat our convicts in the same way. Political prisoners never march [unless they wish to do so], but are conveyed on telegas or sledges, according to the season, and always follow some distance behind the criminals, with whom they are never associated. [As to this last particular, Mr. Price agrees with the report of another English traveller in Siberia, Mr. de Windt.] For these 'unfortunates,' when not criminal ones, all one's sympathy is due; but the canaille marching on ahead, and who are thus most *en évidence*, in most cases richly deserve more than their fate, and ought to thank their lucky stars that they are Russian and not English convicts."

He also records that prisoners are allowed to work in prison for their own benefit, and describes the result of his getting some cigarettes made by one of them. Having made the discovery that "that most complete device for heating a house that was ever devised, the Russian stove, robs the Siberian winter of many of its terrors," that his thick flannels are intolerable, and that a single thin blanket is sufficient at night, he sensibly applies his observations to the prison rooms of the étapes, and argues that as "the heating arrangements were so complete, no covering was necessary" on the bare sleeping platforms. In the Irkutsk prison he found many men working at all sorts of trades, and working cheerfully. One man, an artist, had been allowed to fit up his solitary-confinement cell as a studio, and to paint what he pleased, and another executed orders for portraits and sacred images. The author remarks that this is permitted pending their sentence (they had already been convicted), but the artist added, with a smile, that "they would probably be able to do a little even at the mines if they behaved themselves." In Kiakhta he found an artist, a political exile under a long term of banishment, who showed him a mass of sketches relating to prisoners' life (a couple being reproduced in this volume), which the man had made during his long march across Siberia. "I could not help being strongly impressed," says Mr. Price, "with the idea that a system which would allow a prisoner to beguile the tedium of the march by following his artistic proclivities cannot, however faulty its theory may be, in practice be so cruelly *disciplinaire* as many would have us believe." Another fact worth noting, in view of the capital made by two recent travellers in Siberia of the filth of the post-houses and the hardships of the journey and the cold, is Mr. Price's praise of the general cleanliness of these houses, and the pleasure and comfort of the journey, except in one or two instances.

Although the author's English is slipshod at times, his book is very interesting, and his illustrations are profuse and good. The portion relating to Siberia is of the most importance, his description of the trip across the Desert of Gobi and China to Pekin being much inferior to Mr. de Windt's record of his journey over the same ground. It is evident, however, that Mr. Price was more favorably impressed with the manners of the wealthy Siberians than was Mr. de Windt, and the question naturally occurs to the reader: Does not this arise from the fact that they met different classes of the rich?

The Kansas Conflict. By Charles Robinson, late Governor of Kansas. Harper & Bros.

MANY have essayed to write the history of the Kansas conflict, but it has not yet been so well done that we can feel that none need make another trial. The earlier annalists were too near to the events to see their relative significance, and they trusted to vague rumor for much that subsequent investigation has entirely changed. Prof. Spring's 'Kansas,' in the series of State histories, was clearly an advance upon its predecessors, but the narrow limits of a single small volume cut off the author from those modifications and elaborations in which the truth of history resides. With Mr. Sanborn the Kansas conflict was but an incident in the personal history of John Brown; and his conception of the stout old Puritan as a person supernaturally inspired and sent was not favorable to a judicial estimate of his part in the general work, though it made it easy for him to accept the facts of Brown's connection with "the Pottawatomie executions" without the least misgiving. But Mr. Sanborn's rendering of the Kansas business was far from satisfactory to many who were concerned in it, and especially to two of the principal actors, the Hon. Eli Thayer, who made a splenetic deliverance two years ago, and the Hon. Charles Robinson, who has now stirred up his pure mind by way of remembrance and brought many strange and doleful things to light. There is much similarity in the temper of Mr. Thayer's book and of Mr. Robinson's. Each glorifies its author's name above all others; each spends most of its force in belittling persons who have been supposed to have something to do with freedom in Kansas and America; each is unsparing of its praise of the great hero of the other. "Without Eli Thayer the emigrants would not have come, and without Charles Robinson it would have been in vain that they did come." These words of the introduction are the common thesis of the two books, and it is maintained with ardor in them both. Thayer finds in Robinson "majesty of mind and humility of heart, stern justice and tender sympathy, heroic will and sensitive conscience, masculine strength and maidenly modesty, leonine courage and womanly gentleness," etc., etc., and Robinson's admiration of Thayer is almost equal to his own: "There was but one such in the nation"; a "David who seemed ready to challenge single-handed the Goliath of slavery"; his "broad, calm brow loomed up" at Emigrant Aid Company meetings with unrivalled splendor. The relations of Profs. Stubbs and Freeman were not more cordial when,

> "——ladling freely from alternate tubs,
> Stubbs buttered Freeman, Freeman buttered Stubbs,"

than those of these compatriots.

But for all the likeness in their books, there is much difference. The objects of their scorn are different. Thayer's are the Garrisonian abolitionists. Robinson's, too, are these, but they are much more violently John Brown and Jim Lane, for whom Thayer also had great contempt. Everything is relative, and in praising Robinson's modesty Thayer was, perhaps, thinking of his own, in comparison with which Robinson's is immense. Not only does it express itself in his exclusive use of the third person singular in speaking of himself, but in a meagreness in the account of his own doings so remarkable that no one would ever suspect from his narrative that he was the man described by Mr. Thayer or the man he actually was. For he was, unquestionably, a very prominent and strong and useful man in the Kansas conflict, second to no other on the ground. But torn asunder between a natural modesty and a nervous anxiety for his reputation, he has wasted his strength in crying others down when a perfectly simple account of the conflict would have shown his *magna pars* in its true light.

A history of Kansas written nearly thirty years ago describes Robinson as made "peevish" by his hard experiences in the civil war, when Lane was preferred to him at Washington. The course of subsequent events has not restored him to his better self. Especially have the histories of Messrs. Sanborn and Thayer aggravated his self-consciousness and increased his vanity and irritation. He has, too, done more to make the Kansas conflict appear poor and mean and sordid than any one else has done or could do. Some of us have thought of it as a conflict in which high courage was involved, and noble generosity; and doubtless it was so, but it is hard to keep the faith while reading these chapters of bickering and recrimination. Every baser element is insisted on with wearisome iteration. If Robinson is to be trusted, the only virtue of the Free-State party was in its Fabian inaction, its refusal to lift a hand against the national Government or the national troops. The wisdom of such virtue was, perhaps, justified of her children, but it was not of a strain to quicken any generous ardor in the reader's breast, especially as it was associated with a hatred of the slave as great as, or even greater than, the hatred of slavery. The proportion of the Free-State party that was in favor of excluding free negroes from the Territory was always large. Gov. Robinson was not one of the negro-haters. In his passion for political equality for all races and both sexes, he came perilously near the sentiments of the abolitionists. But he was an eager politician, and the amount and quality of the politics of the unhappy Territory were melancholy features of the time.

Whatever Robinson's ability to lead the Free State party and to hold it to the policy of passive obedience to the Federal Government, his ability to write an interesting and instructive book about the things he saw and was a part of, is extremely small. One would not believe in advance that the story of events so stirring and important could be made so miserably dull. There is no clearness in the narration, and, if one does not know in advance the order of events, to disentangle it from these fragmentary chapters will be no easy matter. Forty pages are intruded about the author's life in California, which was an excellent preparation for his life in Kansas, but deserving of no such extended exhibition. Contemporary journalism is largely drawn upon, so largely that our sense of relationship with the author (if he should not be called the editor) of the volume is not a constant quantity. Orderly arrangement of his material there is none; for dates he has a great indifference, and the details of printing second the general negligence of his work: for example, the name of Andreas, whom he is always quoting, is written Andrea's in the possessive case oftener than not. But

the worst enemies of Gov. Robinson's historic sense are John Brown and Jim Lane; and Sanborn and Redpath and others who have spoken well of these. Let them come upon the scene, and the course of his narrative is forgotten while he goes off in a fresh tirade against them. His estimate of Lane's moral character is fair enough, but he does no justice to his picturesqueness. A character in which the elements of cowardice and of bravery were so strangely mixed, a man who had so much influence upon others, and so little government of his own spirit, of such fantastic dress and startling speech, with such a varied course and such a tragic end, would be a perfect godsend to an historian able to pounce upon his own with the unerring instinct of his art. For Gov. Robinson, Lane is little more than his personal rival, and all the dramatic possibilities of his wretched career are simply thrown away. That Lincoln, in his mistaken apprehension of Lane's character, favored his ambition in the civil war, is to Gov. Robinson a sufficient reason for putting him in the same pillory with Lane and Brown, and invoking for the three the universal scorn:

"One of these men, not receiving the punishment due for his crimes in Kansas, sought to inaugurate a servile war, the most revolting of all wars, and suffered the penalty prescribed by law. Another was overtaken in his crimes, and executed himself; while the third, although glorified for his proclamation freeing the slaves of the South, has the lustre of his fame and name terribly tarnished by his conduct of the war in the West, if not in the East."

Between Gov. Robinson and John Brown there was no such political rivalry as that between himself and Lane to fill up the measure of his hate, and still it does not lack for copious addition. With Brown alive he had no trouble; it is Brown's fame as one of the liberators of Kansas that infuriates his mind, and resolves him to destroy "the laurels of Miltiades" at whatever cost. So far as he succeeds, he does so at the cost of his own character for intelligence and discrimination. Many of Brown's friends were long in coming at the facts concerning the Pottawatomie massacre. Gov. Robinson was not one of these. As late as 1878 he wrote:

"I never had much doubt that Capt. Brown was the author of the blow at Pottawatomie, for the reason that he was the only man who comprehended the situation, and saw the absolute necessity of some such blow and had the nerve to strike it."

He now contends that the testimony of one Townsley, which Mr. Sanborn calls "true in the main," shows that the Pottawatomie victims were not deserving of their death. If that was so, Gov. Robinson's late discovery of the fact is most remarkable. But that does not affect "the absolute necessity of some such blow." Gov. Robinson now attempts to show that the blow did only harm, stirring up the pro-slavery party to make terrible reprisals. His late opinion here is no sufficient offset to the conviction held for a period of thirty years. He writes as if the disposition of the Missourians had been most amicable, when in fact the sack of Lawrence had happened within a few days. His whole recollection of the purpose and the meaning of events has been distorted by the necessity of depreciating John Brown's character and work in order that he may magnify his own.

Our Life in the Swiss Highlands. By John A. Symonds and his daughter Margaret. London: Adam & Chas. Black; New York: Macmillan. Pp. 366.

FOURTEEN years ago Mr. Symonds wrote for an English magazine an article on "Davos in Winter," in which he sang the praises of his dwelling-place as a resort for sufferers from lung disease. He dwelt on the fact that in this Alpine village, where the thermometer frequently falls to 10° to 15° below zero, "the most sensitive invalids can drive in open sledges with impunity, expose themselves without risk to falling snow through hours of exercise, or sit upon their bedroom balconies, basking in a hot sun, with the world all white around them, and a spiky row of icicles above their heads." At that time the cure of lung disease by Alpine air and sunshine was hardly known in England, and when Mr. Symonds resolved to go to Davos, his doctor replied that if he wished to leave his carcass to the Davos doctors, that was his affair; he had warned him. But Mr. Symonds went, and the result was that he who had, ever since he left school, never remained more than three months in one place, being always in search of a change of air for his health, made thenceforth his home in Davos, to which he has clung to this moment—the epilogue to his book is dated "Davos Platz, Feb. 13, 1892." Under the conditions described not only he has found health, but "the marvellous brain tonic of the mountain air" has enabled him to write about twenty-five books in prose and verse, notwithstanding the distance from literary centres and libraries.

Mr. Symonds, however, as he tells us on page 284, considers life itself a much graver and more important affair than literature, which is simply "an honest, healthful, harmless pastime." Accordingly he has little to say, even in the chapter "A Page of My Life," about his pursuit of literature or health, but devotes himself chiefly to a description of the numerous interesting phenomena which Switzerland presents during that time of the year when the tourists avoid it. Being an invalid, he cannot, of course, thrill the reader wi h narratives of dangerous mountain ascents, like Tyndall or Whymper; still, the description of a midnight journey through the ice and snow of a dangerous mountain pass, when even the driver reproached him for having ever undertaken it, and various other incidents, show that it was not a lack of courage, but a lack of lung power alone that prevented him from following in the footsteps of those famous climbers. The chapters contributed by Miss Symonds, including one on "Tobogganing on a Glacier," and another describing the still more dangerous feat of tobogganing down a snowfield on a bale of hay, show good descriptive power, and a courage that one would hardly expect of any one of her sex but an Englishwoman.

Mr. Symonds has many interesting facts to relate at first hand about the various kinds of avalanches, and about the Föhn wind, which the Swiss call the Schneefresser, or snow devourer, and which is no longer regarded as the sirocco of the Mediterranean coming heated from African deserts, but is believed to be generated in the upper regions under special atmospheric conditions. There are also a number of short sketches of mists, clouds, mountains, and valleys, interspersed with mountain-made sonnets, odes, and anecdotes. Hotel life is only casually dealt with, except in a sort of romance, "The Life of a Swiss Porter," which explains how those functionaries succeed in acquiring so many foreign languages, and finally work their way up to the position of head porter, which is worth $500 to $1,000 a year, although the porter never receives a salary, and often has to pay $150 or more for his place. Strange to say, Mr. Symonds approves of the tipping system which brings about this anomalous state of affairs; but his reasoning on this subject is the least convincing thing in his book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Austen, Jane. Mansfield Park. 2 vols. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.50.
Bardoux, A. La Jeunesse de La Fayette. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Christern.
Bates, Arlo. Told in the Gate. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Black, W. Madcap Violet. Harpers.
Bosanquet, Bernard. A History of Æsthetic. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $2.75.
Cheal, J. Practical Fruit Culture. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Cobb, A. G. Earth-Burial and Cremation. Putnams. $1.
Dolbear, Prof. A. E. Matter, Ether, and Motion. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.75.
Duffy, Sir Charles G. Conversations with Carlyle. Scribners. $1.75.
Fletcher, L. The Optical Indicatrix, and the Transmission of Light in Crystal. Macmillan.
Handley Cross; or, Mr. Jorrocks's Hunt. London: Bradbury, Agnew & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.25.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. Flower de Hundred. Cassell. 50 cents.
Heard, John, Jr. A Charge for France, and Other Stories. Harpers. 50 cents.
Howell, Jeanne M. A Common Mistake. St. Paul: Price-McGill Co.
Johnston, C. F. H. The Book of St. Basil on the Holy Spirit. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

Fine Arts.

LINTON'S MASTERS OF WOOD-ENGRAVING.

SINCE Mr. Linton ceased from the practice of wood-engraving, some thirteen years ago, he has devoted much time to investigating the history of his craft. We take our date from his paper on "Art in Wood-Engraving" in the *Atlantic Monthly* for June, 1879. This was followed in the same year by a small book entitled 'Some Practical Hints on Wood-Engraving'; in 1882, by the 'History of Wood-Engraving in America.' To write in his leisure a general history, was a task imposed upon him by his personal intimacy (if we may use the expression) with much of the material for such a work. Bewick died in 1828, the very year in which Linton was apprenticed. How fresh everything pertaining to the great "north country master" must have been at this time. But Mr. Linton could also write of what John Thompson may have said about "developments" that were debasing the art in his day, and could report personally of Harvey, S. Williams, Powis, Orrin Smith, and numerous other notabilities who composed, with Mr. Linton himself, the great English school of woodcutters of two generations ago. He was, in fact, included by Chatto—in Jackson's 'History of Wood-Engraving' (1838)—under the caption, "The English wood-engravers now living who, next to Charlton Nesbit and John Thompson, seem best entitled to honorable mention"; and for a full half century since that date he has more than maintained that distinction. All this constituted a pressing, an authoritative call to produce the work before us.* In form it is a small folio, with an ele-

*'The Masters of Wood-Engraving.' By W. J. Linton. New Haven: The Author; London: B. F. Stevens.

gantly simple exterior—heavy covers, in olive-tinted linen, devoid of ornament other than the title in gold. Within we have antique paper and type, the letter-press and illustrations filling 215 pages, and being both provided with indices. The edition is of course limited—to five hundred signed and numbered copies, of which one hundred are on large paper.

Mr. Linton says in his preface:

"Want of any treatment of Wood-Engraving in a manner satisfactory to an engraver is the reason, and may be sufficient occasion, for my book. It is as an engraver and not as a bibliographer that I write. My purpose is not so much to give account of books in which engravings on wood have appeared, as to collect together the finest examples of the art, and to give its history through the exhibition of its Master Works."

After having had free access to the British Museum and other depositories of original prints, Mr. Linton still acknowledges a large indebtedness to Chatto; yet in reviewing the field of his predecessor's research, his own practical experience as an engraver enables him to throw fresh light upon the several topics, detecting a blemish here, and there bringing out a hidden lustre. This exhibition is arranged under three general heads, viz., Knife-work, Graver-work, and Chiaroscuro, the last alone being without subdivision into chapters, and all being accompanied with marginal notes, occasionally illustrated. In the first chapter, on "The Beginnings of Engraving," Mr. Linton goes over familiar ground with independent judgment. Because of the absence of connections for holding the interior portion in place, he discredits the production of monograms like those of Theodoric and Charlemagne from stencils rather than from engraved stamps. In the chapter on "Saints and Playing-Cards," discussing the priority of saint-pictures [*Helgen*] and cards respectively, he writes:

"Taking into consideration all the material for judgment I have been able to collect together, I subscribe to Chatto's conclusion, and cannot but believe that monastic leisure and ability first found opportunity for employment of woodcuts in the service of religion, and that the wage or profit to be had for an article of commerce in growing demand would be the later temptation of the card maker."

Mr. Linton objects, with reason, to judging of the relative antiquity of early prints by the quality of their execution, as the difference may well reside in the skill of the respective workmen. His second chapter is devoted to the "St. Christopher" of 1423, which passes for the earliest authentic woodcut, and "affords a specimen of the combined talent of the *Formschneider*, or wood-engraver, and the *Briefmaler*, or card-colorer." A full-page reproduction of this famous cut serves as a frontispiece to the book, and appears to have been colored, like the original, by hand. It is as near a facsimile as it were possible to give of every detail of every line, showing clearly the traits peculiar to knife-work. In the text the "Brussels Virgin" is introduced before a small copy of the "St. Christopher," as if by way of conceding its claim to priority. The former print was discovered in 1844 and bears the date 1418, but there are evidences of its having been tampered with. The "Annunciation," which was found pasted inside the cover of a manuscript volume with the "St. Christopher," is here reproduced in miniature, along with the "St. Bridget" and the "Berlin Virgin"—both these last, as well as the "Brussels Virgin," being unknown to Chatto.

"These prints may be taken as samples of a numerous series of pictures, popular in the early part of the fifteenth century, perhaps earlier; all of the same character, little varying—altogether unvarying so far as the engraving is concerned. At first only pictures of Saints and Martyrs (illustrations of Bible story came later), they served as pious reminders, and, carrying out a precept of St. Gregory, filled the place of tracts or books to the illiterate multitude."

The Block Books, cut on planks in the manner of the *Helgen*, are next fully shown. Besides many illustrations of detail, there is a reproduction of an important page in each case. The 'Speculum Humanæ Salvationis' is, owing to the apparent use of movable type in connection with it, treated by itself. Comparison is afforded between different prints of the same subject as an aid to determining which is original and which a copy. Qualities of drawing, in Mr. Linton's view, should here outweigh clearness of print. On the debatable ground between wood and metal, we are introduced to the Alphabet in the British Museum, the 'Speculum Humanæ Salvationis,' the Brydenbach title-page, the 'Hypnerotomachia Poliphili,' and a title-page from the 'Heures à l'usage de Chartres' by Simon Vostre (about 1502). The pictures for which the last-named stands as representative, are very refined and beautiful; they display a new treatment in the "killing" an otherwise solid or black surface with *criblé* or dotted work. It has been assumed that these were "the finest possible specimens of early wood-engraving"; but evidences of the use of a stamp in producing the dots determine for our author that they were done on metal after the manner of wood-engraving.

It is a surprise at first to find under the head of Jerome of Nuremberg the work usually attributed to Albert Dürer, and Holbein's under the head Lützelburger. The engravings of Jerome from Dürer's drawings here given are a full-page each of the Holding of the Winds from Dürer's "Apocalypse," the Flight into Egypt from the "Life of the Virgin;" Ecce Homo from the "Greater Passion," and four from the "Triumph of Maximilian." Another page print is "St. Jerome in Penitence," after Cranach. Lützelburger is represented by a number of small engravings after Holbein, principally from the "Dance of Death." They are marvels of exactitude and delicacy in facsimile cutting. It is interesting to study these masterpieces of early craftsmanship so familiarly, and in reproductions so convincingly faithful as to inspire almost the same reverence as the original impressions. Paper and type, too, are in admirable consonance with all this *Formschneider* work; but often the heliotype has been resorted to as conveying better the delicacy of old prints together with the primitive conditions of paper, ink, and press-work—*e. g.*, in the case of the 'Ars Moriendi' and the 'Biblia Pauperum.' Or again, a like imitation has been effected with some of the smaller cuts by printing them on India paper and mounting them in the letter-press. The refinement thus achieved is the appearance of age. The concluding chapter on Knife-work ("Altdorfer to Papillon") contains brief notices of a number of little known and not highly esteemed artists, though Mr. Linton has a good word for Papillon as workman and as author of a "most exact and complete account of engraving with the knife, the method of execution, and all that could be wanted for its instruction."

"Graver Work" brings us in the second chapter to Bewick, from whose 'Fables,' 'Quadrupeds,' and 'Birds' a number of illustrations are selected, and a full page is assigned to the cut entitled "Waiting for Death." These reproductions are far from doing justice to the genius of the father of modern wood-engraving, either because of the paper or because the resources of the pressman were not availed of as they might have been; a fact much to be regretted. Bewick's pupils are treated of in the chapter headed "Clennell and Nesbit," with the exception of his favorite Harvey, who is displaced to reappear in a later chapter—not, however, in token of Mr. Linton's depreciation. Of the "Assassination of Dentatus," our author declares that "it is not only a daring but a really magnificent and unequalled work. . . . This one engraving . . . would entitle Harvey to rank, if not among, yet closely to, our greatest." Branston and Thompson have a chapter with extensive illustrations, which suffer in the same way as Bewick's. Some of Thompson's cuts occur in a copy of the *Westminster Review* for August, 1838, which lies before us, and are beautifully printed, whereas in the 'Masters of Wood-Engraving' there is about them the lack of clearness that suited very well the old, faded-out work of the *Formschneider*. A similar comparison holds good between the clear, bright prints of the Arch of Titus by S. Williams, and Nineveh by Powis, in the *Westminster* collection, and the blurred, unsatisfactory prints in the 'Masters' (chapter "Aftermath"), notwithstanding the India proof. Powis's cut is subsequently referred to by Mr. Linton in controverting Hamerton's appreciation of American wood-engraving: and certainly there is nothing better in what Mr. Linton calls "the American development," nor anything so very different. To represent Orrin Smith, we wish he could have chosen the picture "Elba" in the *Westminster*, instead of the "Thibet Dog." As we recollect Smith's work, he was preëminently a landscape engraver of great excellence, rather than one who "excelled in animals."

The second division of the 'Masters' closes with the chapter "In the Winter," and here Mr. Linton has assigned him elf a place—too low, it might be deemed, and ill-supported by his choice of illustrations from himself: we doubt if a better example of the "near-enough" facsimile "which a well-trained Chinese rat would gnaw out with more nearness," could be found than his Edwin Booth in "Don Cæsar." The page of facsimile by Kretzschmar is unworthy of insertion in a collection of masterpieces. The portrait of Ludwig Richter, excepting the head, which closely resembles Mr. Linton's own manner, is not remarkable engraving. The portrait of Delacroix by Seriakoff is in contravention of all Mr. Linton has had to say about simplicity, being a mere imitation of the effects of copperplate. It is very doubtful, too, if many will share the opinion that Pannemaker is the exponent of a large class of French work; or that Jonnard's work "is of the best"; or that Ligny may be singled out from all the great engravers of Doré, while Pisan ("the Linton of France") deserves no mention. Neither can we see a reason for the "American development" being lugged in here without being allowed to speak for itself in black and white. In this part of his subject Mr. Linton is too near for historical perspective; but to discuss the question with him would lead us too far.

The concluding section, "Chiaroscuro," has reference to pictures produced by a printing from several blocks or metal plates engraved in relief. They are interesting, but of no great account. A page reproduction is given of "Adam and Eve" by Hans Baldung Grun (1511), in two printings.

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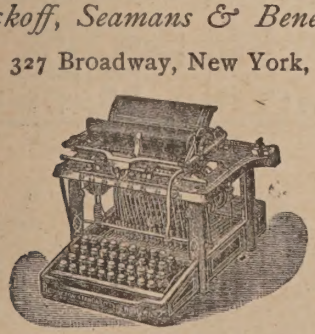

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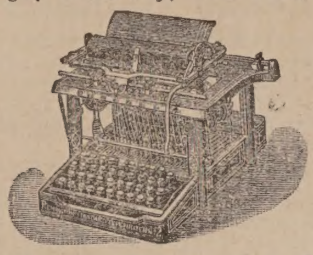

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Total Liabilities	31,395,228 48
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Surplus	1,567,912 47
Receipts from all sources	1,629,446 12
Payments to Policy-holders	796,618 83
Insurance in force (16,198 Policies)	32,161,776 00

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Real Estate and Loans on Bonds and Mortgage	$2,013,150 00
U. S., Brooklyn City, and other Bonds	3,351,869 71
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Disbursements "	290,216 66
Assets, January 1, 1892	$2,233,994 91
Liabilities "	1,727,311 56
Surplus to Policy-holders by Conn. and Mass. Standard	$506,683 35

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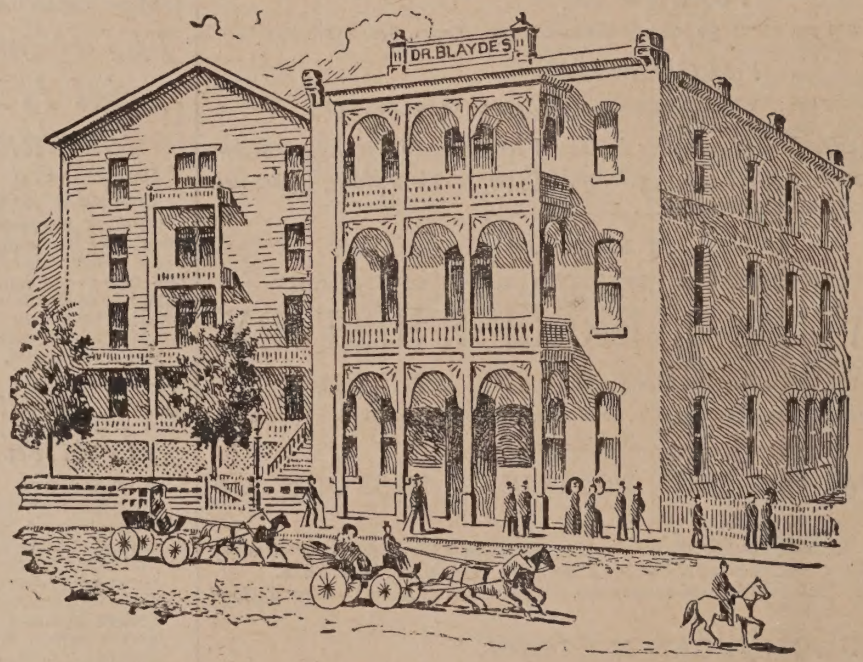

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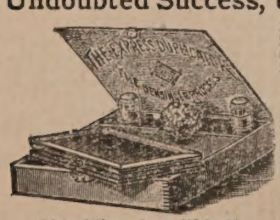

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Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1891, to 31st December, 1891.....		$3,862,687 97
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1891.....		1,394,177 87
Total Marine Premiums.....		$5,256,865 84
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1891, to 31st December, 1891.....		$3,784,723 36
Losses paid during the same period.....	$1,836,325 11	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses.....	$784,790 57	
The Company has the following assets, viz.:		
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Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise..		2,009,100 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at.....		1,083,400 36
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable....		1,425,030 93
Cash in Bank.....		193,895 88
Amount.....		$12,278,582 17

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The assets of The Washington have always been of a character to make the fact of its solidity absolute. The proportion invested in bonds and mortgages (first liens on improved and productive real estate) on the 1st of January was over 83 per cent.; probably the largest per centum held by any of the life insurance companies of this country.

The regard in which bond and mortgage investments are held by life insurance companies is shown by the prominence given them in their schedules of assets. They are recommended, moreover, by State insurance officials in their reports to the several departments as the best class of securities. The Commissioner of Massachusetts, in the thirty-second annual report, goes so far in his approval of *sound investments* as to put them above every other consideration. In a paper read before the "National Insurance Commissioners' Convention" by the Actuary of the Department of Maine, on September 30, 1891, are these words: "Loans upon real estate have ever been the principal investment for life insurance assets. . . . The very low rate upon national securities, and the uncertainty of railroad and corporation stocks and bonds, *practically exclude these for insurance purposes.*"

The *United States Review* says: "The question of careful investments lies at the foundation of the work equally with the securing of business and the collection of premiums. . . . The question arises as to how the funds of this character should be invested. The evident reply is, only in the choicest securities. The aim should be safety rather than a high rate of interest. . . . For years we have been of the opinion that loans secured by mortgage of real estate furnish the best possible avenues for the investment of funds."

A leading company made a strong point in its weekly statement a few months since in proving its alleged superiority over two other companies that are close competitors by comparing the amounts on bond and mortgage held by each of the three companies. The company making the comparison claimed that 42 per cent. of its assets were thus invested, and its two rivals 22 and 17, respectively. At the same time The Washington held, and still holds, more than 83 per cent.

It will be noted that The Washington maintains superiority on this strong ground, namely, sound assets and enough of them.

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FOR THE YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31st, 1891.

ASSETS.

Bonds and Mortgages	$26,339,321 32
Real Estate, including the Equitable Buildings and purchases under foreclosure of mortgages	18,976,621 92
United States Stocks, State Stocks, City Stocks, and other investments	59,702,665 27
Loans secured by Bonds and Stocks (Market Value, $10,626,163.00)	8,418,500 00
Real Estate outside the State of New York, including purchases under foreclosure	12,226,996 32
Cash in Bank and in transit (since received and invested)	5,006,328 52
Interest and Rents due and accrued, Deferred Premiums, and other Securities	5,528,085 03
Total Assets, December 31, 1891	**$136,198,518 38**

We hereby certify, that after a personal examination of the securities and accounts described in the foregoing statement, we find the same to be true and correct as stated.

Thomas D. Jordan, Comptroller. Francis W. Jackson, Auditor.

LIABILITIES.

Total Liabilities, including the Reserve on all existing Policies (4 per cent. Standard) and a Special Reserve (toward the establishment of a 3 1-2 per cent. valuation) of $1,500,000	$109,905,537 82
Total Undivided Surplus	$26,292,980 56

We certify to the correctness of the above calculation of the reserve and surplus. From this surplus the usual dividends will be made.

Geo. W. Phillips, J. G. Van Cise, Actuaries.

INCOME.

Premiums	$33,126,349 56
Interest, Rents, etc	5,928,594 29
	$39,054,943 85

DISBURSEMENTS.

Claims by Death and Matured Endowments	$9,848,716 84
Dividends, Surrender Values, Annuities, and Discounted Endowments	4,951,979 53
Total Paid Policy-holders	$14,800,696 37
Commissions, Advertising, Postage, and Exchange	4,397,821 83
General Expenses, State, County, and City Taxes	3,768,566 93
	$22,967,085 13
New Assurance written in 1891	**$233,118,331 00**
Total Outstanding Assurance	804,894,557 00

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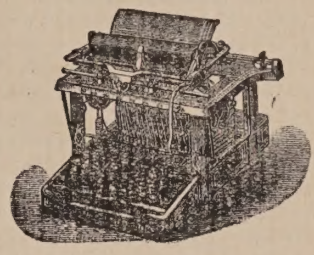

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RECEIVED IN 1891.		
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For Interest and Rents	3,218,354 27	
Profit and Loss	81,310 18	
		$7,804,479 00
		$65,093,573 04
DISBURSED IN 1891.		
For claims by death and matured endowments	$4,126,317 24	
Surplus returned to policy-holders	1,161,209 56	
Lapsed and Surrendered Policies	527,844 22	
TOTAL TO POLICY-HOLDERS	5,815,371 02	
Commissions to Agents, Salaries, Medical Examiners' fees, Printing, Advertising, Legal, Real Estate, and all other Expenses	778,639 74	
TAXES	291,767 40	
		6,885,778 16
BALANCE NET ASSETS, Dec. 31, 1891		$58,207,794 88
SCHEDULE OF ASSETS.		
Loans upon Real Estate, first lien		$36,417,372 87
Loans upon Stocks and Bonds		39,782 50
Premium Notes on Policies in force.		1,569,873 30
Cost of Real Estate owned by the Company		7,185,284 70
Cost of United States and other Bonds		11,420,898 39
Cost of Bank and Railroad Stocks		408,085 25
Cash in Banks		1,156,563 85
Bills receivable		1,645 00
Balance due from Agents, secured		8,289 02
		$58,207,794 88
ADD		
Interest due and accrued	$944,190 26	
Rents accrued	7,110 65	
Market value of stocks and bonds over cost	425,487 70	
Net deferred premiums	153,896 46	
		$1,530,685 07
GROSS ASSETS, December 31, 1891.		$59,738,479 95
LIABILITIES:		
Amount required to reinsure all outstanding Policies, net, Company's standard	$52,765,312 00	
All other liabilities	914,012 14	
		53,679,324 14
SURPLUS by Company's Standard		$6,059,155 81
SURPLUS by State Reports will exceed		6,650,000 00
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Policies in force Dec. 31, 1891, 64,794, insuring		$155,043,055 00

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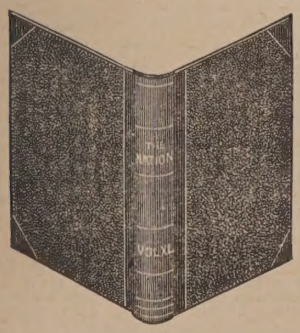

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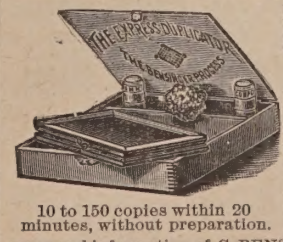

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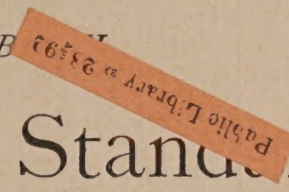

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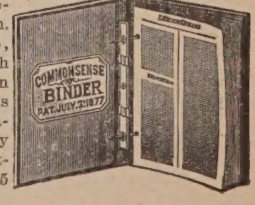

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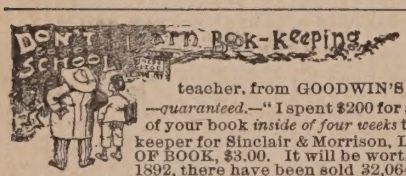

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The Conditions on which Progress Depends.
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The Ethics of Progress.

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4. *The Function of Philanthropy in Social Progress.*

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5. *Statistical Presentation of Industrial Problems.*

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Progress of Industrial Statistics in the United States.
Statistics Pertaining to Production and the Efficiency of Labor.
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6. *A Critical Study of the Labor Problem and of the Monopoly Problem.*

Aug. 11–17. Prof. H. C. ADAMS.

The Genesis of the Labor Problem.
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II.—Department of History of Religions.

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This department will be devoted this year to the study of the religious ideas of the Hebrews.

1. *The Prophets.*

July 7–13. Prof. GEORGE F. MOORE, D.D., Andover Theological Seminary.

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2. *The Religion of Ancient Persia and Its Relations to Judaism.*

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The Ancient Persian Doctrine of a Future Life.

3. *The Ritual Law.*

July 21–27. Prof. MORRIS JASTROW, Jr., Ph.D., University of Pennsylvania.

The Documents for the Study of the Ritual Law, and Their Relation to One Another.
Priests and Levites.
The Festivals.
Sacrifice.
Worship.

4. *The Psalter.*

July 28–Aug. 8. Dr. JOHN P. PETERS, New York.

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Early Religious Ideas Surviving in the Psalter.
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5. *The Wisdom-Books.*

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General Course of Israelitish Thought.
The Question of the Nature of Human Virtue, and Its Relation to the World.
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Wisdom of Solomon.

6. *The Talmud.*

Aug. 11–17. Dr. EMIL G. HIRSCH, Chicago.

(Special subjects will be announced later.)

SUNDAY AFTERNOON LECTURES.

These lectures will deal in general with the relation of religion to modern life and thought.

Judge W. C. ROBINSON, Yale University, *Religion as a Social Force.*

President ORELLO CONE, Buchtel College, Akron, O., *The Relations of New Testament Criticism to Religious Belief.*

Professor B. P. BOWNE, Boston University, *Ethics and Religion.*

Father J. O. S. HUNTINGTON, New York. (Subject announced later.)

Two Sundays not yet provided for.

III.—Department of Ethics.

Director, Professor FELIX ADLER, New York.

The shorter courses in this departmeut will deal with different phases of political ethics.

1. *Variations of Moral Standards and Ideals, in Connection with the History of National Life and Thought.*

July 7–29. Prof. WILLIAM WALLACE, Oxford, England.

Philosophy in Its Relations with Life.
Greek Ethics and Politics in their Bearing on Modern Problems.
Aristocratic and Democratic Ideals of Life.
Plato; the Theory of Social Organization.
Aristotle; the Virtues of the Individual.
Stoics and Epicureans.
Theological Ethics; the Moral Principles of Christianity.
Problems of Law and Conscience in English Moral Philosophy.
Utilitarianism versus Moral Sentiment.
Characteristics of European Ethics in the Eighteenth Century.
German Idealism; Its Critical and Revolutionary Period.
German Idealism; the Period of Reconstruction.
History of the Development of Moral Ideas.
Variations of the Moral Standard.
Indications of Progress—Recapitulation.

2. *The Moral Evolution of Our Political Institutions.*

July 16, 23, 30. Mr. W. L. SHELDON, St. Louis.

Thomas Jefferson; His Life and Work as Applied to Present Conditions.
Alexander Hamilton; His Opinions and Work in Reference to the Political Problems of To-day.
Daniel Webster; His Life and Opinions Applied to the Close of the Nineteenth Century.

3. *The Temperance Question.*

August 1–2. General A. B. NETTLETON, Washington, D. C.

The History of Temperance Reform.
The Relation of the State to the Temperance Question.

4. *The Relations of the Church to Civil Government, Historically and Legally Considered.*

Aug. 4–13. Prof. J. W. BURGESS, Columbia College.

The Church and the Frankish Kingdom.
The Church and the Carolingian Empire.
The Feudal System and the Church.
The Peace of Westphalia and the Church.
The French Revolution and the Church.
The Influence of the Religious Reaction at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century upon European Politics.
The "Cultur Kampf" in Prussia.
The Legal Relations of Religious Organizations in the Modern State.

5. *The Idea of Justice, with Its Political and Economic Applications.*

August 15–17. Mr. WM. M. SALTER, Philadelphia.

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1891	1,394,177 87
Total Marine Premiums	$5,256,865 84
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1891, to 31st December, 1891	$3,784,723 36
Losses paid during the same period	$1,836,325 11
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$784,790 57

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Amount	$12,278,582 17

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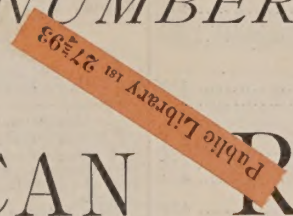

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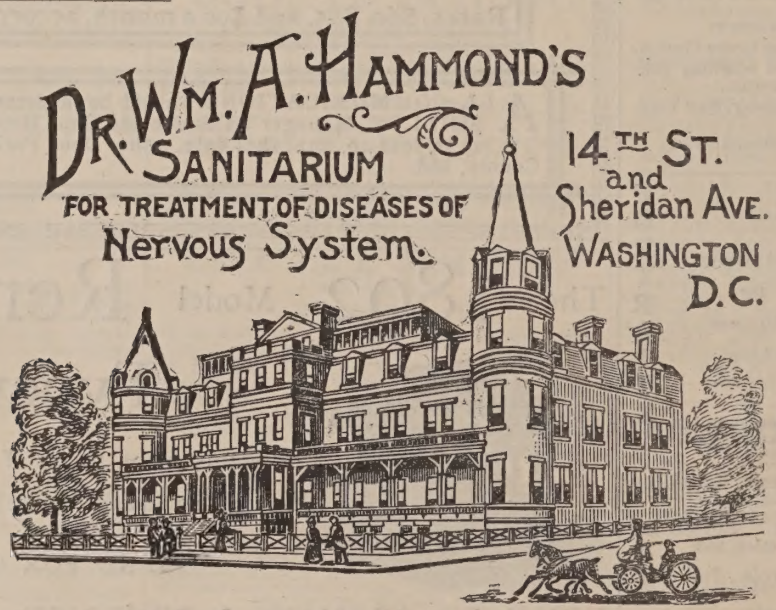

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[*Continued from page iii.*]

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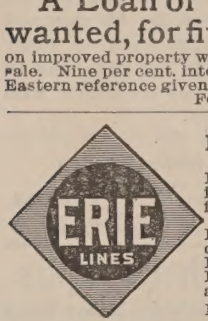

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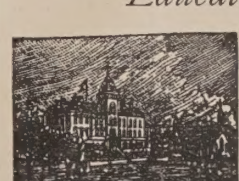

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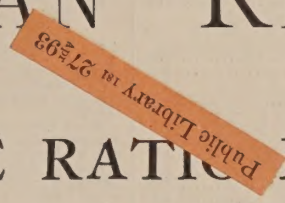

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